INVESTIGATING FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE THE QUALITY OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN JORDAN

Abdel Hakim O. Akhorshaideh

Salford Business School

College of Business and Law

University of Salford

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List of Abbreviations

ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
CBJ	Central Bank of Jordan
CIRO	Context, Inputs, Reactions and Outcomes
CSOs	Case Study Organisations
DEGTT	Department of Employment Glossary of Training Terms
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GDVTI	General Director of Vocational Training Institute
GETA	Government Employment Training Act
GNI	Gross National Income
HKJ	Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan
HRM	Human Resource Management
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
QFD	Quality Function Deployment
QIZ	Qualifying Industrial Zones
TCPUJ	Training Centres in Public Universities in Jordan
TQS	Training Quality Standard
UJ	University of Jordan
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Abstract

Training initiatives are universal phenomena, particularly in developing nations, which have been using training as a part of their overall development efforts. This research aims to identify and investigate the factors that influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in Jordanian public universities. It is an explanatory study which focuses on explaining how and why the factors influence training practices.

This study has been conducted by adopting a case study strategy and a qualitative approach. The data were gathered by using semi-structured interviews as the main data collection instrument within two training centres in two Jordanian public universities. Additionally, a number of data collection instruments were used in order to achieve triangulation, and to fully understand the training practices in the two case study organisations (CSOs). In total, 16 trainers and 12 training programme coordinators and training administrators were interviewed. The research reveals that there is an absence of: systematic trainer selection processes, a training design approach, training evaluation systems, trainee selection, involvement of major parties in training design and evaluation, and a lack of variation in methods used in delivering training programmes. The study reveals that there is an absence of systematic institutional efforts regarding training for trainers, training coordinators and administrators in both CSOs.

Contributions to knowledge on the academic and practical levels are evident with the research being the first explanatory attempt to empirically investigate the key factors which influence the training programmes in training centres in Jordanian public universities. Thus, it provides a deep understanding of the current training practices and management in training centres in two Jordanian public universities. This is because previous studies focussing on training were mainly undertaken in different cultural contexts from that of Jordan. The findings of this study have added to the existing literature by extending knowledge regarding training practices in a new context. Practically, the study has significant implications for both practitioners and decision makers, such as: the need to establish systematic trainer and trainee selection processes; continuous development and training for trainers and administrators; adoption of standardised procedures for designing training programmes; developing appropriate methods for the evaluation of training programmes; enhancing quality awareness of quality in training; and establishing a formal body to organise and control training institutions in Jordan. Several directions for future research are also recommended.

Chapter One

Research Introduction

1.0 Chapter Introduction

This chapter introduces the thesis. The background of the study will be presented, the need for the research will be discussed, and the research aim, objectives, and questions will be described. The expected contributions of the research will be outlined. The research methodology and the organisation of the case studies will be summarised, followed by an explanation of the development and application of the interview protocol and the validity and reliability of data. Finally, the structure of the thesis will be indicated, providing brief information about each chapter, before concluding with a summary.

1.1 Background

Currently, organisations are making great efforts to adjust to the changing business environment to improve their competitiveness (Lim *et al,* 2006). Velada *et al.* (2007) and Noe *et al.* (2006) have concluded that investment in training events has increased all over the world in recent years, and in order to justify this investment it is important to provide proof that training efforts are being fully recognised and to make sure that training leads to desired outcomes and increases in work performance. Training is one of the most prevalent devices for increasing the productivity of human resources, as has long been recognised. The need for training may be for a variety of reasons, such as shortage of labour, improved quality of work, a decrease in injuries, increased performance, high turnover, expanding production, diversification of production and adapting to new technology (Chow *et al,* 2008). Elmishri (2000) agrees that the need for training may result from drives to improve quality, reduce waste, redesign jobs, and make changes in the work process or materials.

Development of workers' skills is a consequence of the need of organisations to meet the challenges of universal competition and social change, as well as to deal with the new advanced technology (Raymond and Noe, 1999). More specifically, the goal of training is for employees to understand the skills, knowledge, and behaviours highlighted in training programmes and to apply them to their job activities (Bates and Davis, 2010). Pfeffer and Veiga (1999) claimed that training might be considered as a source of competitive advantage in various businesses, if conducted successfully.

The ability to deliver high-quality training depends on a number of external factors such as economic growth and demographic changes, and internal factors relating to the

organisation itself, the trainees and the training process (Elangovan and Karakowsky, 1999; Holton and Baldwin, 2003; and Sahinidis and Bouris, 2008; Tennant *et al.,* 2002). In addition, training quality is highly dependent on the ability of the decision maker to formulate and implement an appropriate training policy (Herschbach, 1997). Training organisations need to provide answers to questions about the quality of their training programmes as perceived by their customers. If feedback is promising, the training organisation can communicate it to other prospects, but if negative, the provider must modify its policy accordingly (Mulder, 2002).

1.2 The Need for Research into this Area

The researcher is a Jordanian citizen and a full-time lecturer at the Faculty of Business in the University of Jordan, with a background in the subject of human resources management and training. The case studies will be carried out in Jordan.

Jordan has a strategic location at the meeting point of Asia, Africa and Europe. It is bordered by Syria to the north, Iraq to northeast, Palestinian Territories (West Bank) and Israel to the west, Saudi Arabia to the east and south, and the Red Sea in the southeast. Jordan formed its first Government under the British mandate in 1921 as the Emirates of East Jordan, and then was granted full independence in 1946. The country was renamed the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan in 1950 (Fisher, 2004). The total size of the country is some 89,342 square kilometres with a population in 2009 of 6,400,000. The majority of Jordan's land is desert and lacks natural resources (Department of General Statistics, 2009).

Jordan's economy is viewed as market-oriented, and is based on the principles of openness, individual initiative, free enterprise and cooperation between public and private sectors (CBJ, 2006). The kingdom enjoys free trade agreements with the biggest markets in the world such as the United States and the European Union, and it has established qualified industrial zones which attract foreign investment as they represent job opportunities for qualified and well-trained job seekers (CBJ, 2006).

The justification for this study comes from the increasing interest in training and human resource development in general, and in Jordan in particular, as a means to develop, improve and upgrade the performance of human resources in order to achieve the required level of effectiveness which is necessary for Jordan to remain competitive in the regional and global economies.

Chow *et al.* (2008) affirmed that training has been a key functional area in business for many years and evaluation of training effectiveness is a fundamental aspect. The success of an organisation is highly dependent on the effectiveness of the individuals who are responsible for performing their duties (Pfeffer and Veiga, 1999). Armstrong (2003) supports employee learning by stating that training that includes both analytical and experiential aspects should be considered a part of career development for managers; however, continuous training programmes are essential for achieving higher productivity, better on-the-job performance and improved quality (Tennant and Roberts, 2002). Regardless of the stated purpose of the training programmes, the training efforts are often intended to result in some level of improvement in the organisations' operations or level of efficiency (Schraeder, 2009). In most Arab organisations the success of training programmes is evaluated by immediate reactions instead of focusing on the comprehensive process of training, results levels, and the knowledge transferred to the workplace (Al-Athari and Zairi, 2002; Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995; Atiyyah, 1993).

1.2.1 Personal Interest

An author's strong personal interest in the topic and answering the research questions can counteract the inevitable interference from work, family obligations or just procrastination (Maxwell, 1996). This researcher is a Jordanian citizen and the empirical case studies will be conducted in Jordan. He has worked as a full-time lecturer at the Faculty of Business in the University of Jordan (UJ) since 1991; furthermore, he has a background in the subject of human resources management and training, having held the position of Director of the Human Resources Department in the UJ from January 2008 until September 2009. From May 2004 until October 2008, the researcher was a director of the training department at the Centre of Consultations in the UJ. This meets Maxwell's (1996) claim that choosing a research topic within the researcher's experience acts as motivation; lack of motivation causes many students to never finish their theses.

1.2.2 Government Policy

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is a Middle Eastern nation with a population of 6.4 million. The country has limited economic resources, which has created a tendency toward maximising them through effective utilisation; this is especially true of human

resources. Hence, policy makers have concentrated their efforts on establishing a good educational system in order to produce highly skilled manpower, and Jordanian employees are in high demand in many Arabic countries (Ministry of Planning Annual Report, 2009). In addition, there are government efforts to reduce the high rate of unemployment of around 13% (Department of General Statistics, Statistical Annual Report, 2009), which causes huge social, economic and political problems. These efforts have been directed by King Abdullah II through his letters of appointment for the cabinet and the Royal speeches in the annual opening ceremonies of the Jordanian parliament since 1999. The King's letter to new prime ministers confirms that as part of its overall education and training improvement strategy, the government should provide the required resources and facilities to develop and implement a comprehensive strategy to reform Jordanian human resources. At the same time it should promote labour market needs and best practice to enhance productivity and the readiness of the Jordanian labour market to meet local, regional and global labour force needs (Alrai newspaper, 2013).

An examination of the plan of every government assigned by the King since 1999 (seven prime ministers and seven cabinets) shows that training the Jordanian human resources and increasing their capabilities are at the top of the government strategies and policy priorities (Alghad newspaper, 2010).

1.2.3 The Dearth of Empirical Studies

The above discussion of the business and political background makes it clear that there are theoretical and practical reasons for investigating the quality of training in the context of training centres in Jordanian public universities. However, there have been few empirical studies of quality issues in general or of the quality of training programmes in particular, in Arabic countries (Al-Haj, 2006; Yaghi, 2007; Sharif, 2005); none has been carried out in Jordan. The dearth of empirical research into the practices of quality management in developing countries in general, and in Jordan in particular is a prime motive for conducting this study. Therefore, this study represents an attempt to fill in part a gap in the literature on training centres in public universities in Jordan, and to add to knowledge in this area. From the academic and professional background mentioned above, it is clear that there are theoretical and practical gaps in the quality of training activities and training programmes provided by Jordanian training institutions in general and the training centres of public universities in particular (First

Training Conference, University of Jordan 2007), confirms the need to examine this topic. This study is therefore an attempt to fill part of the gap in the literature on the quality of training in centres in public sector universities in Jordan (PSUJ) and will add knowledge to this area.

1.3 Research Outline

This section will explain the research aim, research questions and research objectives, in addition to outlining the expected contributions of this research to knowledge.

1.3.1 Research Aim

The aim of this research is to identify and investigate the factors that influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan (TCPUJ).

1.3.2 Research Objectives

To meet the aim of the research and to answer the research questions related to the key factors influencing training programmes in TCPUJ, three objectives were formulated as follows:

- To critically review the relevant literature on training in order to understand training philosophies, theories and practices, and the factors which influence the quality of training programmes.

- To conduct an empirical study within the training centres in Jordanian public universities in order to understand the factors influencing the quality of training programmes.

- To explore and explain how and why these factors influence the quality of training programmes in TCPUJ.

1.3.3 Research Questions

In order to achieve the research aim, three research questions were raised:

- What are the factors influencing the quality of training programmes in TCPUJ?

- How do these factors influence the quality of training programmes in TCPUJ?

- Why do these factors influence the quality of training programmes in TCPUJ?

1.3.4 Expected Contributions to Knowledge

- To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study will be the first of its kind to be carried out in Jordan. The findings will enrich the existing literature on the quality of training programmes in public universities, and will fill the gap in knowledge in Jordanian studies in particular.

- It is expected to identify some unique factors influencing the quality aspects of training programmes in TCPUJ.

1.4 Research Methodology

As mentioned in the research aim, this study will identify and investigate the key factors that influence the quality of training programmes in TCPUJ. In order to achieve this, the research will comprise two main stages: undertaking a critical literature review, and carrying out an empirical case study. The phenomenological research paradigm and a qualitative approach are appropriate in these circumstances (Silverman, 2002), and will be used in this study. The research strategy has to be precisely determined, and since one of the main objectives is to gain an in-depth understanding and to investigate the key factors that influence the quality of training programmes, the case study strategy is appropriate. Certainly, many authors such as Paulin *et al.* (1982) and Woodside and Wilson (2003) concluded that case study research is an inquiry focusing on describing, understanding, predicting and controlling individual situations and is the most suitable research design, since it can provide good empirical evidence. Consequently, the researcher has concluded that the case study is the most appropriate strategy to achieve the research aim and objectives stated in sections 1.2.1 and 1.2.2.

Document review, interviews, direct observation, archival review and questionnaires are among the many data collection techniques used in conducting qualitative research (Easterby-Smith, *et. al.,* 2002; and Collis and Hussey, 2003). In this study, the researcher will use four of these instruments: interviews, documents, archival records and direct observations. He will visit the case study organisations repeatedly during the

data collection stage in order to identify and investigate the key factors influencing the training programmes provided by these organisations. The visits will be undertaken in two steps, the first to pilot the interviews protocol, and the second for the actual collection of data through semi-structured interviews. Figure 1.1 summarises the research process.

Figure 1.1: The Research Process

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┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Developing Research     │
│ questions, aim, and     │
│ objectives.             │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│    Literature Review    │
│                         │
│ ➢ Identify the factors  │
│   influencing the       │
│   quality of TP         │
│ ➢ Identify the          │
│   research              │
│   methodology           │
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│    The Field Study      │
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┌──────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│ Semi     │ │ Direct           │
│ structured│ │ observation,     │
│ Interviews│ │ documentation    │
│          │ │ and archive      │
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┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Analysis and Findings  │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Discussion findings in  │
│ light of literature     │
└─────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐
│      Conclusion         │
│ Contributions to        │
│ knowledge and           │
│ Recommendations         │
└─────────────────────────┘
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The literature review will be carried out first, to gain an in-depth knowledge and understanding of the subject researched and to identify critical influential factors. These factors will provide guidance and direct the researcher to particular aspects of human experience. The second stage of the study involves in-depth case studies in order to collect the relevant data and information needed to answer the research questions listed above.

1.5 Literature Review

An accurate and critical literature review of the subject under investigation will be conducted. The goal of this review is to gain a deep understanding of the factors which influence the quality of training programmes in general and the training programmes in TCPUJ in particular.

1.5.1 Case Study Organisations

One training centre from each of two public universities in Jordan were selected in which to carry out the empirical study and collect the required data, as discussed in following chapters.

1.5.2 Development and Application of the Interview Protocol

The interview exercise comprised five phases. The first was the development of the interview schedule, affected in the main by the detailed literature review. The second involved the translation of the schedule (the questions) from English to Arabic, to ease the interview process. In the third phase, ethical approval to conduct the study was requested from the appropriate body in the University of Salford, and granted. The fourth phase involved assembling four pilot studies over a period of two weeks and quantifying the results, and the final phase involved conducting interviews with trainers, training programme coordinators, and two training department directors in two training centres in public universities in Jordan.

1.6 Validity and Reliability of Data

Several procedures were put into place to ensure the maximum reliability and validity of the data collected. The researcher himself has attended many research training courses, and has thus become proficient in the efficient and effective conduct of research. The collection methods were chosen only after detailed consideration of the

possibilities, and interviewees were asked to check the transcripts of their interviews for accurate reporting of facts; an updated case study database was developed to ensure the capture and storage of all data which could then be easily accessed.

The inclusion of four methods of data collection (observation, interviews, documentary review, and analysis of archival records) allowed scope for substantial triangulation of the data.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters and is structured as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter introduces the research, its background and the need for it, and the research aim, questions and objectives that flow from these. The contribution to knowledge, the proposed methodology and the design of the thesis are outlined.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Chapter two comprises a review of the literature related to training worldwide. The major issues examined are the concepts and definitions of training, quality and effectiveness, importance and benefits of training, and factors influencing the quality of training including programme design, implementation and evaluation, equipment used, and administrative factors.

Chapter Three: The Jordanian Context

Chapter three provides information on the context in which this research is conducted, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. It provides an overview of the kingdom in terms of historical, demographic, geographical and political issues. The focus is on higher education in Jordan, and specifically on the case study organisations and training within the Jordanian context.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Chapter four discusses the research methodology employed, including the research philosophy, approach and design, and data collection instruments. It provides a rationale for choosing these approaches and the case study strategy, and explains the data collection methods and techniques of analysis used.

Chapter Five: Data Analysis and Research Findings

Chapter five presents the findings and results of the study and identifies the key factors that influence the quality of training programmes in the two selected case study organisations.

Chapter Six: Discussion

Chapter six consists of a discussion of the findings in light of the literature in order to investigate and establish similarities or contrasts with existing theoretical propositions.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion, Contribution and Recommendations

Chapter seven provides the conclusions drawn by the researcher in relation to the research aim and objectives, the study's contribution to knowledge, and recommendations for further research in the area of training.

1.8 Chapter Summary

This introductory Chapter has outlined the research study, and offered the reasons why it will be of value to Jordan. It has considered the aim, the research questions, and objectives to be achieved. It has also identified the expected contributions to knowledge, and an indication of methodology to be adopted has been provided. The structure of the thesis was explained.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the background to the concept of training, highlighting the philosophy of training, different definitions from authors and scholars, the need for training and its benefits, training objectives, and the types and advantages of training programme such as on-the-job and off-the-job training. The chapter reviews the literature relating to the factors which play a significant role in the quality of training programmes in order to provide a conceptual background for the field work. The review ends by identifying the factors that influence the quality of training programmes. Thereafter, the list of the guidance factors for the empirical investigation will be presented.

As mentioned in chapter one, there is a definite lack of scholarly research into the factors affecting quality of training programmes, and at the same time there is a definite need to investigate this issue in the context of Jordan. It is crucial to learn from what is already understood worldwide about training and the factors which influence the quality of training programmes, for application where appropriate to Jordan. The chapter therefore introduces the overall context of the research.

2.1 Definitions of Training

The change in the nature and content of work has influenced organisational choices of employee development programmes (Howard, 1995). Training is now considered one of the most commonly encountered human resource development interventions (Campbell and Kuncel, 2002, p. 278). It is defined in many ways according to the scholar's perspective and experience. In the existing literature, numerous definitions of training have been presented, and understanding these is one of the fundamental requirements for carrying out research in this area. Over the years, definitions of training have been expressed in several ways. Pont (1995, p.165), for example, defined training as "the relatively systematic attempt to transfer knowledge or skills from one who knows, or can do, to one who does not know or cannot do". Thomes (1992, p.96) stated that "training is the bridge between an individual's present performance levels, required for the organisation to be more effective in meeting the challenge of change and increasing competition". Robbins and Hunsaker (1990) provide a similar definition, but consider the changes in an individual as well. He states that training "is a learning experience in that it seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his ability

to perform on the job". However, Bramley (1996) stated that training is planned to assist learning so that individuals can become more effective in carrying out parts of their tasks.

According to Campbell and Kuncel, (2001) (cited in Chiaburu and Tekleab, 2005, p.29) training is defined as "The planned intervention that is designed to enhance the determinants of individual job performance", while Dessler (2008, p.294) asserts that "training means giving new or present employees the skills they need to perform their jobs".

Armstrong (2001, p.543) defined training as: "The formal and systematic modification of behaviour through learning which occurs as a result of education, instruction, development and planned experience", and Murton *et al.* (2010, p.72) as: "Training is usually instructor led and aimed at developing a particular skill or changing behaviour and gaining specific knowledge".

To continue, training is the use of methodical and designed instruction and development activities to promote learning (Armstrong, 2003). Goldstein and Ford (2002) stated that it is the process of assisting workers to perform their job tasks successfully, and to secure the appropriate utilisation of their abilities; in addition, it is the most efficient way of enforcing the employee's capabilities. Therefore, it can be assumed that training is applied mainly to accomplish an organisation's central goals through a systematic design.

The UK Manpower Services Commission's glossary of training terms (1981) (cited in Reid and Barrington, 1997, p.7) defined training as: "… a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skills behaviour through training experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of individuals and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organisation".

Moreover, the UK Department of Employment's Glossary of Training Terms (DEGTT1981, p.64), cited in Brooks (1995, p. 178) defined training as: "A planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skills behaviour through learning experience to achieve performance in an activities. Its purpose, in the work situation is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organisation." The 'needs' of an organisation include the existence of some objective,

and the 'purpose' of training is to eliminate any gap which exists between the organisation's objectives and the capability of its employees to achieve them.

In contrast to education, Good (2004, p.1) claimed that training is instruction that is job-specific, and not concerned with traditional skill-based training, indicating that "training is the systematic and analytical based designing of methods and media as to enable an employee or group to learn scheduled knowledge and/or process against predetermined purposes and apply it to a required standard".

From an economic perspective, it is clear that training is one method used to resolve national problems, in which respect Beardwell and Holden (1997) consider it as an instrument for solving particular economic problems such as unemployment and breaching the skills gap. In the same way, Chan and Lim (2003) indicated that training can be considered as skill improvement whereby the learning of a new skill or the attainment of new knowledge improves an individual's value-added performance to the economy.

Training is generally implemented over the short term when it relates to developing the worker's performance in his/her present job. Harrison (1992) concluded this to be the case, asserting that training is a shorter-term, systematic process through which an individual is facilitated to master pre-determined tasks or ranges of skill and knowledge to a pre-defined standard. In the same manner, Mumford and Gold (2004) and Harrison (1989) perceived training to be the specific process of assisting individuals to learn things applicable to particular circumstances, within a particular organisation or industry.

Moreover, it is assumed that training has a future benefit, Sisson (1989, p.177) commenting that: "Training is associated with the process of ensuring that employees acquire the requisite knowledge and skills to perform present and future jobs in the organisation".

Based on the previous definitions, it can be realised that training is a planned programme created by an organisation to enable employee learning of current or future job-related capabilities. In relation to capabilities, it has been noticed that these contain skills, knowledge, attitudes or behaviour that is critical for effective work performance (Raymond, 1999; Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Cole, 2002).

The US Government Employees Training Act (GETA, title 5, US Code: Ch. 41, sec4100), defined training as: " … the process of providing for and making available to an employee, and placing or enrolling the employee in, a planned, prepared, and coordinated program, course, curriculum, subject, system, or routine of instruction or education, in scientific, professional, technical, mechanical, trade, clerical, fiscal, administrative, or other fields which will improve individual and organisational performance and assist in achieving the agency's mission and performance goals".

Training seeks to transfer what is attained by the trainees throughout the programme to the real job position. Whether it is applied internally or externally, further, as Pont (1995) confirms, it is a relatively systematic effort to transfer skill or knowledge from a person who knows, or can do, to another person who does not know or cannot do.

In light of the above definitions, although training is accurately defined it is proper to slight this definition further, and to differentiate between the terms 'training' and 'development'. In this context, although Sisson (1989) presented the view of the future value of training, Armstrong (1999) and Megginson *et al*. (1999) have discussed that training commonly focuses on the current time while development focuses on the future. In other words, training is a process to help employees to develop their performance in their present jobs whereas the goal of development is to prepare them to progress to other positions in the organisation and to enhance their capacity to cope with the prospective change. In this regard, Sadri and Snyder (1995) confirmed that the key goal of any training activity is to affect some form of change.

Gomez-Mejia *et al.* (2001) and Cole (2002) agreed with this view by describing training as any learning activity which is focused on the gaining of specific skills and knowledge for the purposes of the present task or job. On the other hand, development considered as any learning action that is directed towards future, rather than current, needs and which is more concerned with occupation development than immediate performance. Nevertheless, despite the reference to occupation development and the indirect focus on the individual, in real fact, the emphasis of development tends to be mainly on an organisation's future workforce requirements, and only secondly on the development requirements of individuals in the place of work.

Consequently, Thomson (1991) differentiated between the two notions, stating that training is a process through which practices are purposely offered to trainees to

empower them to absorb some new viewpoint, understanding, attitude, value, skill or technique, while development, is to prepare employees to achieve work beyond that which presently engages them and to accept responsibilities "greater than they now have". Development is the all-important principal process, through which employee and organisational development can, through time, accomplish their fullest potential (Harrison, 1992).

After discussing the definitions of the concept of training, it is clear that training activities are concerned with decreasing or removing gap in skills, capabilities, knowledge and attitudes, in addition to improving any unwelcome attitudes which may possibly exist through the organisation. Indeed, training has many important benefits; significant advantages are highlighted in the following sections.

2.2 Background

This section consists of six sub-sections. It starts with introducing the philosophy of training, and proceeds to define a number of concepts suggested by contemporary writers. The needs for training, and the benefits gained from it, are then discussed, before considering the objectives of training in general. Subsequently, types of training, training strategies and models, and reasons for choosing an external or internal strategy are discussed. This section ends by considering the concept of transfer of training.

2.2.1 The Philosophical Background of Training

Based on Armstrong's (1999) argument, training is a process undertaken by individuals to assist them to achieve better, and to make the greatest practice of their natural capabilities. In other words it is a mechanism for allowing a person to fulfil his or her potential, and is a continuous process through which people acquire knowledge and new skills in order to improve performance.

The philosophy of an organisation is a declaration of what that certain organisation stands for. It is a set of beliefs and values by which actions can be judged, making clear which behaviours are suitable and which are improper Different philosophies can exist for different features of an organisation's actions (Lin *et al.* 2010; Wills, 1994).

The philosophy of learning is an attitude, as well as a learned, developed and practised skill. In order to learn, it is first essential to acknowledge that knowledge is lacking, that learning can originate from different sources, and secondly to dynamically search for it.

Learning is like paddling a ship upstream, the target being to go forward and not fall back (Murton *et al.* 2010; Whitney, 2005).

Reid and Barrington (1997) argue that the training philosophy has its grounds in the cultural, social, economic and other values and experiences of the individual, organisation and nation. In this regard, they have offered the following philosophic views of training.

➢ *Elitism* has its roots in long-established patterns of provision over long periods of time. Training is reserved for high-status work and is not necessary for the rest of the working population. Such a training philosophy was dominant throughout the UK until 1969.

➢ *Voluntarism* assumes that the responsibility is on individuals to seek out and pay for their own training and development in their own time. Work circumstances do not need to contain a command to learn or train.

➢ *Centralism* and *authoritarianism* regard training as a measure to be imposed by the employers or training department after identifying training needs using the authority of top management. Harrison (1989) concluded that under this philosophy all the training activities are implemented without any concern for the views of the trainee, who moves through the ensuing learning experience with the assumption that it will be beneficial.

➢ *Conformism* and *non-conformism* represent two opposite views towards learning. Conformism occurs when trainees wait to be told how and what to learn, expecting or at least hoping for, a central lead, whereas the non-conformist alternative encourages innovation among employees.

➢ *Humanism* considers human interests as paramount; it is a philosophy that gives the trainee the right to decide what most satisfies his/her interests, and how.

➢ *Continuous development* undertakes that learning should be endless and evident throughout all individuals' lives as the world is changing so quickly.

Smith and Hayton (1999) argued that the philosophy of training has developed from three different theories:

➢ *Human capital theory*, which assumes that the return on training is the central focus and that the organisation will be motivated to pay for training in such situations.

> *Training and human resources management theory*, which has as its main aim the achievement of employee commitment to the organisation, and which considers training and employee development as the best tool to realise this.

> *Training and high-performance organisation theory*, which puts emphasis on the impact of changing working practices and new technologies in high-performance organisations, on the required skills of employees, and on the consequent need for training.

The training philosophy is a statement of an organisation's attitude towards training (Wills, 1994); as noted by Armstrong (1999), this statement must clearly recognise the significance that is attached to training.

From the previous discussion, it can be seen that the philosophies of training have been contextualised. In the following section, the benefits of training will be discussed.

2.2.2 The Rationale for Training

Improving the capability of employees is one way in which training can create a competitive advantage, but not the only way (Schuler and Jackson, 2006). Indeed, in order to deal with the rapid and continuous nature of change, organisations are strongly challenged with developing appropriate and effective training programmes for their human resources, as a tool to compete and succeed in today's dynamic environment (Lingham *et al.,* 2006)**;** this is supported by Lin *et al.* (2010), who argue that organisations are increasingly appreciating the significance of training their manpower.

There are several reasons behind this: technological changes are making greater demands on employees, at all levels; universal competition leads to a knowledge economy-based form of industry; advanced industry is influenced by innovation, intelligent property and capital to stay competitive, resulting in the increased demand for skilled and knowledge personnel; the increasing age of the workforce; and organisations have to keep investing in manpower to ensure upgraded functions to meet the changing markets and stay competitive in practice (Tai, 2006; Lin *et al.,* 2010).

Undoubtedly, training has become necessary for all countries as well as organisations, since formal education is not enough for the continuous development of a country's human resources and intellectual capital; lifelong learning has become a necessity. Hence, institutions, companies and other training facilities must provide ongoing high-

quality training services to enable a country's manpower to cope with a rapidly changing world (Boints, 2004). Indeed, Aghlia (2000) has asserted that low satisfaction is the result of poor pay and benefits, training, and advancement.

Leader (2003) confirmed that the need for training is clearly technical-rationalist and economic, and that there are no explanations why training might be worthy other than its economic value. Therefore, organisational change and technological improvement have increasingly led employers to the recognition that achievement depends on the knowledge, abilities and skills of their human resources (Holton and Naquin, 2003; Yaghi, 2008), and this in turn leads to the reality that continuous investment in developing and training the human resources in organisations is an essential and value-added practice (Beardwell and Holden, 1997; Stavrou-Costea, 2005; Schuler, 2000).

Consequently, it is apparent that training is vital for both organisations and individuals. The necessity for employees' training results from the organisation's requirement to meet the challenges of social changes and global competition, and also to deal with the new innovative technology (Noe, 2005), since as Holton and Naquin (2003) have affirmed, in order to maximise production and profitability, the workers are often required to acquire knowledge of new approaches and further effective practices.

2.2.2.1 Benefits of Training

Employees are constantly looking to improve their future career prospects, and as a result are becoming more concerned about their performance and productivity; this has led them to an increasing awareness of the accelerated obsolescence of knowledge and skills (Chen *et al.*, 2004). At the same time, organisations need to apply training initiatives in order to develop their workers' skills and knowledge, a condition that should also improve workers' career visions (Beardwell and Holden, 1997).

It is broadly recognised that the training of workforces is the basis of most businesses' employees improvement systems (Nordhung, 1989), with contributions to organisational performance and productivity often given as the most prevailing dispute for justifying training expenditure (Scott and Meyer, 1991, cited in Bartlett and Kang, 2004). Certainly, the belief in a constructive relationship between workers development and training, and organisational efficiency, is widespread (Jacob and Washington, 2003; Bratton and Gold, 1999; Kelly, 1994; Noe, 1999; Holton and Naquin, 2003), since organisations which provide more training programmes for their workers enable them as

individuals to achieve more and consequently perform better organisational achievement (Torraco and Swanson, 1995).

In a research conducted by Harrold (2000, quoted in Jacob and Washington, 2003), it was concluded that productivity is increased as a consequence of the firm's investment in training events. Accordingly, there is evidence that worker training courses are reasonably related to organisational achievement.

The benefits of training are apparent: trainees are provided with the knowledge and skills needed to ensure optimal performance outcomes; a reserve of workforces qualified to meet the organisation's operational objectives and needs can be developed from inside the organisation; and training contributes to optimistic morale, individual development and satisfaction (McConnell, 2003, p.44).

Although no direct link has been found in the literature between training and job satisfaction, Rowden (2002) and Rowden and Conine (2005) propose that training may be used as a tool to increase job satisfaction. Tsai *et al.* (2007) concluded that individuals committed to learning revealed a higher level of job satisfaction with a constructive result on their performance. Following Rowden's idea, it is reasonable to accept that workers who recognise their training to be useful will be more satisfied than those who receive no training or training of no importance.

Further, trained workers will better fulfil the desires of their clients. Workers feeling less than skilled to do a job are further possible to leave the organisation (Chen *et al.,* 2004) or, if they decide to stay, their output will be sub-optimal (Kanelopoulos and Akrivos, 2006). The bigger the gap between the abilities required and those possessed by the workers, the more the absence of job satisfaction and the turnover of personnel.

Training delivered may help employees to reduce anxiety or frustration resulting from work requirements, unaccustomed situations, or deficiency in the skills and capabilities required to achieve tasks successfully (Chen *et al.,* 2004). Cheng and Ho (1998) and Holton and Baldwin (2003) found a clear link between reward and outcome expectations from training, and observed that trainees who expect their rewards to increase as a result of their training, also show improved performance.

In this respect, Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) indicated that organisations accrue benefits through the improved performance and increased productivity that accompany

employee training and development, while employees enjoy extrinsic and intrinsic rewards associated with skill development and performance improvement. In other words, training enhances organisations' capability to increase productivity, improve service, and implement new technology; by offering training opportunities, they help workers develop their own personal competitive advantage and ensure their long-term employability (Schuler and Jackson, 2006).

Employees themselves are increasingly demanding that their employers provide them with all the training they need to perform not only their current jobs, but also future ones that they may hold subsequently both within the organisation and outside; this may sometimes be part of the informal contract of employment (Goldstein, 1993; Johnston and Packer, 1997). Powell and Yalcin (2010) stated that the dynamic nature of the contemporary business world forces organisations to increase and strengthen their competitiveness as well as the effectiveness of their human resources and, as a result, many organisations are paying great attention to training and development.

The quality of the organisation's workforce has become the key driver for sustained high-level performance. Yiu and Saner (2005) stated that traditional competitive advantages have been eroded by competition, and competitive advantages now depend on superior innovation, intellectual property and capital, which in turn require increasingly sophisticated human skills and knowledge, adding that employee training helps increase the organisation's performance. The organisation's vision, strategies, experts and management tools have to be considered.

Training makes a vital contribution to the development of any organisation as a whole (Stavrou-Costea, 2005) by providing these benefits and also by improving its reputation (Jacobs and Washington, 2003) which, as Sloman (1999) has argued, provides it with a competitive edge. The benefits of training occupy much discussion in the literature, from which it is seen that there are many factors that encourage organisations to pay serious attention to training their human resources.

Accordingly, it is vital for organisations facing global competition to continuously advance their human resources' knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes (Kauffeld and Willenbrock, 2010). Rowden and Conine (2005) indicate that training may be considered as a tool both to increase job satisfaction and to satisfy the needs of their customers in better ways.

Smith and Hayton (1999) and Schuler and Jackson (2006) summarised the training benefits as follows:

- To secure improvement in employee performance and organisations' competitiveness
- To secure improvement in the adaptability and flexibility of the work done
- To satisfy a new skill and/or knowledge need arising from investment in and implementing new technology.
- Additionally, Hanratty (2000) argues that adequate training will assist organisations to improve the quality of their service and give their workforce a vision of what they are expected to become.

Indeed, OECD surveys show that nations with well-developed training arrangements are more effective in keeping their competitive situation in the worldwide economy and in minimising the influence of unemployment than nations that have not participated in such training (OECD, 1994). As Sloman (1999) observes, training gives individual employees the opportunities to expand their own potential in both the short and long term, thereby reducing their chances of becoming unemployed.

The possible benefits of training as stated by Armstrong (2003) are:

- Developments in individual, group and organisational performance.

- The capability to attract high-quality workers by providing them development and learning opportunities.

- Better job satisfaction.

- Enhanced operational flexibility through an increasing of the variety of skills possessed by workers.

- Improved the worker commitment through identification of the objectives and mission of the organisation, as stimulated by training.

- An improved understanding by workers of the motives for change, and consequently commitment to change.

- The improvement of a constructive organisational culture that appreciates performance enhancement.

- The providing of a higher level of service to clients.

Redman and Wilkinson (2009) affirmed that training has a positive influence on the quality of organisations' production and the links between training, performance and profitability. The main objective of learning and training is to achieve the organisation's human resource management strategies by ensuring that it has the skilled, knowledgeable and competent employees required to meet its present and future needs (Cole, 2002; Armstrong 2003). Moreover, if organisations train their people properly, they will reduce their operation costs and enhance productivity, creativity and innovation (Spies, 1993); however, Holton and Baldwin (2003) have claimed that the key objective of training is to improve trainees' performance in the transfer of training to the work location.

Organisations that make continuing efforts toward human resources training perform better than organisations that do not care about continuous improvement of the skills and knowledge of their human resources (Lyons, 2009). This was affirmed by Redman and Wilkinson (2009), who considered that the benefits of training human resources are multi-dimensional and consist of four aspects: talent, scientific and technical, financial and social benefits.

Cole (2002) stated that there are benefits that given to employees, including increased job satisfaction, increased individual inventory of skills, improved value of workers in the labour market, and increased opportunities of internal promotion.

Bartlett and Kang (2004), based upon research identifying the benefits resulting from training in New Zealand and the USA, found these to be job, career, and personal-related benefits.

Pattni and Soutar (2009) affirmed that training plays a significant role in increasing employees' self-efficacy. From their survey, Bartlett and Kang (2004) established that in respect of the job, the benefit from training was better employee performance; in terms of individual careers, training can help employees to reach their personal objectives, and in respect of long-term development, participation in training programmes contributes towards employees' personal growth and development. Table 2.1 below summarises the potential benefits of training.

Table 2.1: Potential benefits of training

Benefits of Training	Related Literature
Improved skills and knowledge for employees	Bartlett and Kang (2004); Cole (2002)
Improved employee performance	Thomason (1991); Goldstein and Ford (2002); Armstrong (2003)
Improved employees' morale	McConnell (2003)
Good reputation for organisation	Jacobs and Washington (2003)
Reduced anxiety or frustration for employees	Chen *et al.* (2004)
Improved work stability	Chen *et al.* (2004)
Increased job satisfaction for employees	McConnell (2003); Rowden and Conine (2005)
Improved ways of satisfying customers' needs	Kauffeld and Willenbrock (2010); Armstrong (2003)
Increased value of employees in the labour market	Goldstein (1993); Johnston and Packer (1997)
Individual career benefits for employees	Bartlett and Kang (2004)
Increased self-efficacy	Pattni and Soutar (2009)
Enhanced productivity, quality, creativity and innovation	Spies (1993); Redman and Wilkinson (2009)
Reduced costs of operations for organisations and increased profitability	Spies (1993); Leader (2003); Redman and Wilkinson (2009); Wu (2002)
Improved competitive advantage for organisations	Lin *et al*. (2010); Pawell and Yalcin (2010)
Improved employees' loyalty and commitment	Armstrong (2003)
Improved organisational performance	Yiu and Saner (2005); Thomason (1991); Armstrong (2003)

2.2.2.2 Training Objectives

Armstrong (2003) argued that if clear objectives are not set for a training programme, that programme is less likely to succeed. Having considered the justification for presenting a training system into an organisation, the purposes of training become clear, and these can be categorised into two types, the first one correlated to the organisation, and the second to the organisation's employees (Thomason, 1991; Cole, 2002). Armstrong (2003) indicated that the key purpose of training is to accomplish the organisation's human resource management policies by guaranteeing that it has the knowledgeable, skilled, and competent workers needed to meet its current and future needs.

It is certainly the case that while training cannot solve all problems of ineffective performance, it can remedy the performance deficiency caused by inadequate skills or knowledge of the job. In this respect Gomez-Mejia *et al.* (2001, p. 264) argue that "Performance problems can derive from various sources, many of which would not be affected by training. The only source of a performance problem that training can address is a deficiency that is under the trainee's control; it can improve performance only when the worker is the source of a performance deficit".

Three main objectives of training have been drawn by Grant and Smith (1984), as follows:

1) To offer the skills and knowledge, and as far as possible, the attitudes needed for employees to carry out their present tasks more efficiently, as well as to help individuals at all levels to enhance their capabilities and to recognise the implications and importance of their jobs.

2) To assist individuals to become able of assuming other responsibilities within an organisation, either at higher or at their present levels. In other words, this goal is related to increasing the potential of workers.

3) To help workers to adapt to changed circumstances facing the organisations as part of the process of organisations' development.

However, Holton and Baldwin (2003) have stated that the major objective of training is to develop human resource performance in the transfer of training in the work place.

Demonstrating transfer needs a strong linking between the likely changes during training and apparent deviations in behaviours in the work place. Therefore increasing the possibility of transfer need active consideration to transfer-enhancing approaches which could be completed by determining clear objectives for the training effort.

According to Treven (2003), there are several reasons why training is important for both employees and organisations:

- Changes in the workforce and workplace. Both the workforce and the workplace are going through many changes. In terms of the changing workforce, the increasing number of immigrants with inadequate educational qualifications is driving organisations to deliver training to develop basic skills. In terms of the workplace, the increased use of advanced technology, the continuing shift from a manufacturing to a service economy and the increasingly universal business world require continuous worker training (Goldstein, 1989).

- Maintaining competitiveness and developing productivity. Training is crucial for maintaining organisations' competitiveness. Germany and Japan, two of the toughest industrial competitors, have brilliant training and development efforts, which help them, preserve high ranks of productivity and flexibility.

- Regulatory requirements. Numerous laws require organisations to offer training opportunities for their employees.

2.3 Categories of Training

Cautious use of training strategies or systems can be a cost-effective investment, but methods appropriate to the needs of a person or group must be adopted. Authors such as Armstrong (2003), Gomez-Mejia *et al*., (2001), Reid and Barrington (1997), Beardwell and Holden (1997) and Cole (1997) provide a useful insight, since they consider the types of training which can take place either within or outside an organisation. This section considers the two major types of training, on-the-job and off-the-job, along with some training strategies within the Western context, followed by the reasons for choosing the strategy.

2.3.1 On-the-Job Training

Arthur *et al*. (2003) found that the efficiency of training seems to vary as a result of the identified training delivery system, and the task or skill being trained. Generally, training systems can be characterised as either on-the-job or off-the-job.

On-the-job is by supervisors in some organisations as preferable to off-the-job training, for reasons indicated by Klink and Streumer (2002); they stated that the positive relationship between training benefits and costs, the possibility to train just-in-time; and the anticipation of a constructive transfer of what was trained to the worker's own work place, are the three incentives for the common use of the on-the-job training. On-the-job training is possibly the most communal method to training, and can range from the participant basically observing and copying means and methods adopted by skilled employees, to joining in highly structured programmes provided as office practice or workshops; such training on the organisation's places can take the form of watching an experienced employee, guiding, shadowing and job rotation (Beardwell and Holden, 1997).

Generally, this style of training is reserved for new or inexperienced workers learning through noticing peers or managers performing the tasks and trying to copy their behaviour (Noe, 1999), and it commonly takes place in the common work place (Robinson, 1988). It can also be useful for promoting current workers' skills when new technology is presented, cross-training workers in a department or work unit, and orienting transferred or promoted workers to their new works (Noe, 1999; Sloman, 1999).

The watching an experienced worker approach is defined by Reid and Barrington (1997) as a well-known on-the-job method. In this condition, supervisors and qualified workers offer new workers with any information required, and the new workers absorb the organisational practices and standards as they go along. However, regardless of this training method being the utmost common and widely utilised by various organisations, and regardless of its worth especially for inexperienced workers, there are shortcomings allied with it. Beardwell and Holden (1997) noted that this technique may well introduce the skills the person is required to prove to the new employees, but that he or she may lacks the skill in training new workers how to improve those skills; vigorous

information may be misplaced as the demonstrator makes embedded decisions about what is and what is not essential in the process being trained.

Basically, this is a practice, occasionally called learning by exposure (Reid and Barrington, 1997), not only requires some knowledge on the part of skilled employee, but it too assumes that the new employee is capable to gain skills and knowledge without any designed assistance other than the guidance of a co-worker. Accordingly, if there are no inducements to learn or discouragements not to learn, the results are often unacceptable, since the trainers are not themselves well qualified, nor are they prepared to achieve the tasks of trainer.

However, as Cole (2002) pointed out, there are other techniques adopted in on-the-job training, one being job instruction, which is mainly implemented to enable trainees to acquire routine instructions in manual and some clerical jobs. This technique of instruction is unlike the 'sitting by Nellie' approach in that the instructors are properly qualified. Coaching is yet another strategy, whereby a manager guides a colleague to improve his/her managerial skills in a process of mentoring (Cole, 2002; Torrington *et al.*, 2002). There is also 'shadowing and job rotation' which allows employees to move to another department or possibly even to other branches or subsidiaries of an organisation, in order to acquire new skills and knowledge. This technique can play a significant role in the learning experience of employees (Raelin, 2000; Cole, 2002). However, one disadvantage of job rotation is that employees are not always welcomed kindly by their counterparts and are sometimes seen by supervisors and other employees as obstacles to their daily work (Cole, 2000). Raelin (2000) argued that although rotation may allow employees to reveal effective skills during their temporary job, there is little opportunity for them to reflect on these skills even if they are performed successfully.

According to Gomez-Mejia *et al.* (2001), other forms of on-the-job training techniques include cross-functional training, in which employees work in more departments or areas in the organisation. The aims of this technique are to train them how to perform processes in different areas, and not only in their assigned jobs. Team training is also implemented by most organisations that believe productivity can be increased through work teams (Noe, 1999, 2005).

Actually, on-the-job training is an attractive proposition for employers because, as Noe (1999) observes, it needs less investment in money or time for resources, trainers' salaries, or instructional design. However, there are disadvantages to the approach; for example, managers and supervisors may not practice the same process to achieve a job, they might pass on bad ways, and not understand that practice, demonstration, and feedback are essential circumstances for effective on-the-job training. With these possible dangers, this type of training can result in poorly trained workers (Noe, 1999).

Sambrook (2005) has suggested that another way to examine and theorise the learning that happens within the work setting, is to consider this in terms of training 'at' and 'in' work. Learning *at* work is the more formal provision of training and education programmes such as induction, and a variety of official and non-official in-house programmes. However, a key advantage of training at work is the separation of training from work, where training conducted away from the work, in a venue or technical space, although it is still in the workplace. On the other hand, learning in work is the less formal process surrounded by work actions, such as asking questions, observing, problem-solving, secondment, project work, coaching and being part of multi-disciplinary teams, as described above. These activities may be classed as informal or accidental learning (Mumford and Gold, 2004).

2.3.2 Off-the-Job Training

Off-the-job training takes place away from the work situation (Robinson, 1988), and it is sometimes very necessary to remove people from the work environment to a place where the frustration and bustle of work are eliminated (Beardwell and Holden, 1997). Torrington and Hall (1991) indicated that outside sources of training can provide a range of skills which cannot be maintained in-house. There are, however, disadvantages of such training, e.g. high cost, difficulty of simulating work problems, resistance of trainees to be away from home (if this is necessary); they are generally more time consuming. Robinson (1988) added that taking training separated from the place of work offers an opportunity in a low-risk environment to study significant problems in more depth than would be likely in the midst of work interruption and pressures. There are other advantages to off-the-job training, these being: more time available for the trainees, a relaxed atmosphere more conducive to learning, a better chance of holding trainees' attention, and improved morale and motivation among the trainees for self-

development, as they believe their selection results from an already good opinion held of them.

According to Cole (2002), a considerable amount of job knowledge can be gained by doing training off-the-job, since skills development usually benefits from a period away from the normal job pressures, especially in the early stages of learning. Thus, organisations provide a range of resources off-the-job in order for employees to practise skills in a somewhat safe atmosphere, where faults will show neither embarrassing for the trainee nor expensive to the organisation.

Furthermore, organisations often prefer to promote skills development off-the job in order to resist some of the effects of the informal organisation at work. As already indicated in the previous section, in on-the-job training, a manager coaching a subordinate will imply that his or her approach to the job is the most appropriate, when in fact it may not be (Cole, 2002); the line staff employee will also be influenced by prevailing work attitudes, which may not be positive. Accordingly, it is difficult to achieve clear learning objectives for on-the-job training, whereas off-the-job training removes these. Latest years have seen better importance placed on off-the-job training as a complement to training provided on the job (NEC, 2004). The NEC group, sound conscious of the significance of such training, indicates five different forms of off-the-job training programme:

- The major universal programme that focuses on the basic skills and knowledge needed by all workers.
- The management skills development programme that assists managers to advance their capability in departmental and global tasks.
- The specialised skills enhancements programme that emphasis on developing professional skills.
- The profession design support programme that helps in improving lifetime professions.
- The self-development support programme that assists staffs to improve their complete potential (NEC, 2004).

2.3.3 Reasons for Choosing External or Internal Training

Reid and Barrington (1999) classified training types under five core titles: training on-the-job; planned organisation practice; in-house programmes; planned practice outside

the organisation; and exterior programmes. Generally, these can be distinguished as internal and external strategies, and Reid and Barrington (1999) also indicated four standards that can be utilised to decide which of these approaches will be most applicable, as follows:

- Compatibility with training needs
- Expected probability of transfer of knowledge to the work site
- Availability of resources
- Trainee-related issues.

In terms of compatibility with training needs, Hayes (2002) argued that the change agent might quickly reject some strategies, such as on-the-job training, because there may be no project teams currently operating in the organisation that could provide the required work experience.

Regarding the transfer of training, both the external and internal courses could facilitate the transfer of skills and positive attitude towards other trainees in the workplace (Reid and Barrington, 1999).

In relation to the availability of resources, time might be a factor that impeding both internal and external training. Also, the available budget rather than the opportunity cost might be a factor that would work against the external course; the in-house course might cost less (Reid and Barrington, 1999).

According to Armstrong (2003), external (off-the-job) training is useful for managerial and technical skills and should be able to supply a quality of instruction that it might be uneconomic to provide internally. It seems that different parts of the world rely on external training to varying extents. Armstrong's argument appears acceptable since external training could supply a level of quality that it might be uneconomic, or even impossible, to provide internally. Certainly, this is the situation in respect to Jordanian organisations as they are sending most of their employees to be trained in external training institutions because of the lack of internal training facilities and instructors.

According to several authors (Charney and Conway, 2005; Carliner, 2003), the most significant motive that inspires individuals to contribute in a training programme is what they will acquire by contributing. In other words, they consider whether their attendance in the training course will be an opportunity to gain something valuable

concerning their work or a waste of time.. Clark *et al*. (1993) concluded that training incentive is a direct function of the degree to which the participant trusts that training will result in either career usefulness or job usefulness.

Nikadrou *et al.* (2009) argue that trainees must recognise the usefulness and relevance of the training to their job. Also, a good designed training programme is not sufficient to guarantee its quality. Several researchers (Carliner, 2003; Gauld and Miller, 2004; Charney and Conway, 2005; Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2008; Nikadrou *et al.,* 2009) state that every aspect that relates to the training programme's implementation and design (i.e. trainer, training goals, environment, training process, content, material,) can influence the trainees' learning level and supposed usefulness of the programme.

In summary, training institutes are one of the key stakeholders who desire to present successful training programmes and increase participation in training activities (Brown and McCracken, 2009).

2.4 Training Process

The training process comprises all those activities carried out by an organisation to support and conduct trainees, including employees from different organisations (Armstrong, 2003). Torrington and Hall (1991) stated that the process usually starts by the identification of training needs and ends with an evaluation and follow-up stage. Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) and Tenant *et al.* (2002) reported that inappropriate timing of the daily training sessions is one of the most-raised problems, producing complaints from both trainers and trainees.

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006, p.3) indicated that many factors should be taken into consideration when planning and conducting an effective training course:

- Identifying training needs
- Determining objectives
- Deciding subject content
- Choosing trainees
- Setting the appropriate schedule
- Determining suitable facilities
- Selecting proper trainers
- Determining and preparing audio visual aids

- Managing the training programme
- Evaluating the programme.

These factors will be explained in the following sections.

2.4.1 Training Needs Identification

If training programmes are to be effective, they must satisfy the needs of trainees, so the identification of training needs is the first step and a basic stage in training administration (Torrington and Hall, 1991; Noe, 1999; Robinson, 1988; Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). It is common to define a training need as the gap that occurs between the exact needs of a given work and the current capability of the incumbent (Robinson, 1988, p.36). Similarly, Stewart (1999) argued that a training need is the same as the gap between existing capability and that required in order to achieve performance objectives.

Armstrong (2003) stated that all learning and training actions have to be built on the understanding of what needs to be done and why it needs to be done. Thus, carrying out systematic needs identification is a critical opening step to the design of training and can definitely affect the whole importance of training programmes (Arthur *et al.,* 2003).

According to Buckley and Caple (2004), when deciding whether or not to train, the first issue of importance is to define what constitutes the training need. It is suggested that a training need can be assumed to exist in two ways, these being when training is the most proper and operative tool of overwhelming an existing or expected deficit in performance, and when present or future job objectives are clearly linked to the organisation's corporate objectives.

Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) conclude that there should be more contact between trainers and clients and trainees' managers.

Regarding the kinds of training need, Buckley and Caple (2004) described two types, reactive and proactive. Reactive training occurs as the result of an immediate and crucial on-job production gap for which a behavioural reason can be recognised and separated from other reasons. On the other hand, proactive training may be strictly related to the organisation's strategy and human resources policy. Thus, proactive training is future-oriented and may originated for many reasons such as expected

technical expansion, or the results of management improvement and employees replacement procedures and policies.

As stated by Cole (2002) and Buckley and Caple (2004), clarification of training needs can be carried out according to the level at which the needs occur, which might be:

- At the organisational level, when overall productivity weaknesses have been noticed or are probable in tasks or through divisional boundaries.
- At work or occupational level, when different groups of staffs have been recognised as having need for training.
- At the employee level, when productivity problems have been observed in individual members of staff somewhere in the organisation.

Similarly, Armstrong (2003) and Stewart (1999) argued that training needs should be identified in terms of corporate needs, group needs, and individual needs. In the same vein, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) concluded many methods to identify training needs, including:

1) Ask the individuals.
2) Ask the supervisors of the employees.
3) Ask people who are familiar with the work and in what way it is being accomplished, such as customers, peers and subordinates.
4) Test the participants.
5) Analyse performance evaluation.

According to Armstrong (2003), Buckley and Caple (2004), Torrington and Hall (1991) and Robinson (1988), training needs identification is one of the main processes that should be carried out by organisations, since it is believed that failure to perform this process is a major reason why training outcomes are not always favourable. The following two sections are devoted to a discussion of training-needs analysis and training needs and performance appraisal.

2.4.2 Analysis of Training Needs

According to Noe (2005), three analytical steps must be undertaken in order to identify training needs: organisational, personal and task analysis. Organisational analysis includes defining the extent to which training matches the organisation's plans and resources, and whether managers and peers are willing to support trainees during the

post-training time. Person analysis is done to assure that training is actually needed, and includes an evaluation of who needs training, and whether the nominated people have the precondition skills, attitude and beliefs to chief the training programme's contents. Task analysis focuses on identifying the skills and abilities, task and knowledge that will be imparted to the trainee during the training programme.

Training-needs analysis is the first significant phase of a systematic training process and it establishes the base of a training programme (Bimptos and Petridou, 2012). Noe (1999) has also indicated that certain techniques such as observation, interviews, surveys and questionnaires can be used to identify training needs, and Cole (2002) added performance appraisal as another method of establishing such needs.

Odiorne and Rummler (1988) pointed out that the quality of the training outcomes is based on the training needs assessment data; if the training needs have not been appropriately assessed, then both the design of the training programme will not achieve the expectations of participants, and the training efforts are a waste of time. Vermeulen (2002), Holton and Baldwin (2003) and Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) stressed the need for the training to match what was required in context of the trainees' jobs.

Goldstein and Ford (2002) stated that organisational support is one of the main requirements for the success of the training needs assessment process. When information is collected, either by external specialists or local employees, employees working in the organisation might be disrupted and those being appraised are sometimes unwilling to co-operate with the person gathering the data. However, when the needs identification process is carefully designed and supported by the organisation, the disruption is minimised and employees' cooperation can be increased. Therefore, creating liaison groups and work groups that support simplifies the course becomes a vital part of the identification phase. Failure to establish organisational support will make it difficult, if not impossible; to accomplish training needs assessment (Goldstein and Ford, 2002).

Based on their review of more than 100 articles related to the area of training-needs analysis, Chiu et al. (1999) offered a broad theoretical framework for training-needs analysis, focusing on several questions as follows: first, who are the key initiators of training-needs analysis? Second, what are the levels of interest in the studies (i.e. organisation, process, group or individual). Third, what is the intended outcome of the

analysis. Finally, what methods of analysis are used. The researchers found that the literature was dominated by a supply-led approach to training needs-analysis (Chiu *et al.*, 1999), which is largely trainer-driven and authority-oriented, coming from the vested interests of trainers (Thompson, 1994).

Goldstein and Ford (2002) argued that in addition to organisational support, four analytical steps are necessary to achieve successful training needs identification, as follows:

- Organisational analysis – this step begins with an examination of the short- and long-term goals of the organisation, and the factors that are likely to affect these goals. Due to the volatile competitive environment, and a certain degree of uncertainty about people and human resources issues, the organisational analyst has to consider these issues systematically.
- Requirement analysis – in this step the analyst focuses on the requirements of the job. In general, training programmes aim to provide people with expertise to perform jobs. Therefore, the requirements analysis has to identify how to collect the information and how much information is needed to ensure representative and reliable data.
- Task and knowledge, skill, and ability analysis –this process begins with specifying the tasks required on the job, and proceeds to identify what skills, knowledge, and attitudes are needed to perform those tasks.
- Person analysis – this is where the emphasis is on assessing how well the employee performs the job by using the knowledge, skills and attitudes required by it. In this step a set of criteria for measuring job performance is required. Another important aspect of person analysis is to determine which necessary knowledge, skills and attitude have already been acquired by the prospective trainees; as a result this will save time and money.

It has been indicated by Herschbach (1997) and Franceschini and Terzago (1998) that several parties contribute to the process of training. Trainers are one of the key actors in almost all of the stages of the training process, including training needs assessment, and their scope is wide enough to cover any level in the organisation. Consequently, Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) concluded that there should be more contact between trainers and clients and trainees' managers.

The demand-led approach, in contrast, is largely business-oriented where top managers, chief executives and directors are committed to investment in training due to its perceived importance to the success of the business. The key to this approach is the business planning process, which establishes the context and mission of the organisation, and its main characteristics are a top-down, finance-driven process, putting more emphasis on the business outcome and less on employees' needs. Differing from the business-oriented approach in terms of its scope and emphasis is the process-oriented approach, which focuses on a local division or department rather than on the whole organisation. In the trainee-oriented approach, a bottom-up, self-assessment occurs, in which the employees' needs are emphasised rather than the business outcome (Chiu *et al.*, 1999).

The findings of Chiu *et al.* (1999) regarding the key initiators were that trainers constitute the largest proportion of initiators of training-needs analysis (supply-led contributors), whereas less than 14% top-level or line managers were among the initiators (demand-led) of training-needs analysis, and none of the trainees was found to be an initiator. The researchers revealed that there was little evidence that academics, consultants and managers would work together in training-needs analysis research.

Concerning the levels of analysis, the research demonstrated that the biggest proportion of studies focused on analysing organisational needs, followed by the group level, and then the process level (24%). Investigations at the individual level were relatively few (14).

In respect of the assessment methods, the overall proportion of the four types of assessment methods was: 15% for the organisational assessment; 9% for the process assessment; 40% (the highest proportion) for the trainers' assessment; and finally, 36% for the self-assessment. The authors argued that regardless of the level of training-needs analysis, the main purpose was to improve the effectiveness of the organisation (Chiu *et al.*, 1999).

Soloman (1999) affirmed that performance appraisal is considered as an essential feature of best training practice and the most important means of identifying training needs. Additionally, when appraisal systems are well structured, they can improve motivation and performance both in individual development and organisational planning (Torrington and Hall, 1991).

According to Rees and Porter (2004), who conducted a study on appraisal pitfalls and the training implications, when considering training needs it is important to recognise the problems of "wish lists" and the probability of conflict between employee and organisational objectives. Rees and Porter also indicated that in the determination of training needs, care needs to be taken to establish realistic priorities and to recognise the potential between individual aspirations and organisational needs, since the way in which employees wish to develop themselves may not coincide with the future plans of the organisation. Moreover, not all workers have a realistic assessment of their actual needs.

Cheatle (2001) concludes that a good training-needs analysis or assessment should provide some basis on which training actions can be considered in order to make clear what the employee is doing and why. The process should diagnose training concerns and priorities in a logical way by examining individual and overall features of the organisation. Therefore, conducting a systematic training-needs analysis is a serious initial step to training design and can significantly influence the overall success of training programmes (Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Sleezer, 1993; Zemke, 1994). Indeed, a systematic needs assessment can be used to specify a number of key aspects for the implementation and evaluation of training programmes.

It can be concluded that the training-needs analysis can guide and help as the basis for the design, development, delivery and evaluation of the training programme; the existence and comprehensiveness of training-needs analysis should be related to the overall effectiveness of training because it provides the mechanism whereby the questions central to successful training programmes can be answered. In the design and development of training programmes, systematic efforts to analyse the training needs of the organisation, identify the job requirements to be taught, and identify who needs training and the kind of training to be delivered, should result in more effective training (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick 2006; Arthur *et al.,* 2003).

However, Yaghi (2008) and Alfaleh (1999) have argued that there are unsystematic training approaches in Jordanian organisations, in addition to an absence of scientific training-needs assessment methods in almost all Jordanian public and private sector organisations. They identified three main reasons for these problems: that training programmes are not based on identified needs; the lack of a systematic training process;

and lack of training programme evaluation methods, training methods and trainer-selection criteria.

2.4.3 Planning and Setting Training Objectives

After recognising training needs, setting objectives is the second step. These objectives should be set in accordance with the needs of the training programme's participants and be clear and measurable for all aspects of the training programme (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). These authors suggested that objectives must be set in the following order:

- What results are we trying to accomplish?
- What behaviours are needed to achieve these desired outcomes?
- What skills, knowledge, and attitudes are needed to realise these behaviours?

According to Tracey *et al.'s* (1995) recommendations, training objectives must define clearly what the participant should be capable to do, under which situations, and the typical level of performance. Buckley and Caple (2004) and Goldstein and Ford (2002) considered training objectives as providing inputs to programme design as well as the degree of achievement; the absence of proper objectives will lead to other problems associated with the evaluation process and will affect the whole success of the programme.

Kozlowski *et al.* (2001), Carliner (2003) and Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2008) argued that training objectives should be set prudently in order to assist trainees understand that the objectives of the training event are strictly related to their everyday work activities (training usefulness). Moreover, when the participants understand that the training programme will assist them to increase their performance, it is possibly that they will raise their job-related skills and knowledge.

Doherty and Bacon (1982) indicated that there are many advantages of formulating training objectives. Among them are:

- Assists the programme design and choosing of training material
- Provides a basis for the evaluation of training programme
- Assists in participants' selection
- Enhances communication between trainers and trainees

Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012) argued that planning is one of the essential stages of an efficient training programme, and this planning includes designing the objectives of training. Bowman and Wilson (2008) stated that unsuitable planning and implementation can lead to misunderstandings concerning the expectations and the accomplishments attained through training. Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) stressed that planning the training activity and setting training aims and objectives are among the major roles of trainers.

2.4.4 Programme Design

Training needs and objectives play essential roles in designing successful training programmes, including subject content. Once the identification of training needs has been effectively completed, the next step is to decide how training will be achieved (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). Bates and Holton (2007) and Bhatti *et al*. (2012) indicated that many factors like intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, training design, trainee's readiness, social support, training transfer, training environment, and trainer's attributes may influence the participants' attitudes toward the training programme. Appropriate conduct of the training programme depends on good design (Martin, 2010).

Yiu and Saner (2005), Linghame *et al*. (2006), Clark *et al*. (1993), Bhatti *et al*. (2012) and Goldstein (1993) suggest that training programmes should be designed according to the nature of the training, and the available resources; trainers are among the key stakeholders who should be involved in the design stage.

Clearly, Kirkpatrick (2006) and Yaghi (2010) identified that failure to attend the training course negatively affects the training events; Tai (2006) also found that matching the training programme to the needs of the job increases trainees' perceptions of the importance of training and the value of attending the programme.

This has also been indicated by Herschbach (1997) and Franceschini and Terzago, (1998), who recommended that several parties contribute to the process of training; trainers are one of the key actors in almost all of the stages of the training process including design. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) argued that the training institute is part of the training programmes design process. Further, Herschbach (1997) states that training organizations need to outline and implement new strategies that will allow them to develop training.

All the actions related to conversion of the training content into a training programme are enclosed in the training design. The design step involves the plan, structure and detailed scheduling of the programme. It has to take into consideration the participants' characteristics, the available resources, training objectives, and the current levels of knowledge regarding the training process (Tannenbaum and Yuki, 1992; De Cenzo and Robbins, 1996).

Chen *et al.* (2004), Armstrong (2003), Yiu and Saner (2005), Lingham *et al.* (2006) and Kauffeld and Willenbrock (2010) agreed that the differences in the trainees' education, experience, levels of skills and capabilities, and other qualifications are factors that affect the training programmes and the success of training; they must be considered during design and implementation, and in the training methods. Chambers (2005) concluded that persons be likely to learn differently, with favoured styles of learning. Brown and McCracken (2009) recognised the significance of participant characteristics such asskills/abilities, personality, and motivation in the overall training process.

Training design and trainee characteristics are considered as the most significant groups of variables influencing the effectiveness of training programmes (Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Clark *et al.,* 1993). Schraeder (2009) and Hornik *et al.* (2007) stated that, in a training setting, learning may be enriched by flexible design, especially of content, where the definite subjects covered are directed straight to the requirements and interests of participants.

Tharenou (2001) and Chiaburu and Tekleab (2005) confirmed that trainees with adequate support from their supervisors usually attend training sessions with a stronger belief in the programme's usefulness, and are motivated to gain the best out of the training. Additionally, this support will ensure that they complete the programme. Clark *et al.* (1993) claimed that the design of the training programme should involve key stakeholders prior to the start of the programme.

Armstrong (2003), Buckley and Caple (2004), Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), Cole (2002), Arthur *et al.* (2003) and Goldstein and Ford (2002) all argued that, in systematic training, the selection of trainees should be achieved on the basis of a shortage of skills and knowledge identified through training-needs analysis. They also pointed out that the training should be appropriate to what was expected by the participants and match their job context.

Lingham *et al.* (2006) argued that, if the organisation does not promote employee involvement in decision-making about training and their own self-development, this may lead to unwillingness on the part of employees to participate. Consequently, Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) stated that a trainee who considers the training as unimportant to his or her job will devote less time and effort on acquiring the skills and knowledge required by the job.

Franceschini and Terzago (1998) and El-Hasan (2006) indicated that training programmes should be well organised, and this is one of the major responsibilities of the training provider; the number of participants in training programmes is determined by several criteria, such as the nature and level of the programme and the training methods used.

Carliner (2003) and Charney and Conway (2005) emphasised the point that a trainer has to track definite phases in designing a training programme in order for the top potential result to be attained. In specific, the trainer must first define the objectives/goals of the programme (either alone or in cooperation with the other parties) and then decide the content of the programme depending on these objectives.

Odiorne and Rummler (1988) pointed out that the quality of the training outcomes is based on the training-needs assessment data; if the training needs have not been appropriately assessed, then the design of the programme will not meet the expectations of participants and the training is a waste of time. Vermeulen (2002), Holton and Baldwin (2003) and Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) stressed the need for the training to match what was required in the trainees' job context.

Brown and McCracken (2009) contended that the trainer plays a central role in encouraging candidates to participate in effective training activities. Yaghi (2008) stated that the diversity of the sources from which training institutes can obtain trainers is one of the best strategies in managing the training process and in assuring the availability of trainers at any time, in a professional manner and at appropriate cost.

Schraeder (2009) explained that the content, PowerPoint slides, overheads, handouts, and any other materials related to the training programme need to be well designed to reach a high-level of quality and competence, in addition to ensuring that the materials reflect a high level of professionalism. Chen *et al.* (2006) argued that a good training

programme needs course content to be appropriate to job requirements and needs to use methods of training that can support trainees' contributions.

Training programme design consists of major components; the content should be organised and divided into manageable learning pieces, training means and approaches, to match the trainee characteristics. Moreover, the trainees' motivation and attitudes have a significant effect on the achievement of any training programme (Patrick, 1992).

As long as the content of the programme is concerned, Kontoghiorghes (2001) and Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2008) stated that training programme content impacts learning; in other words, the participant' skills and knowledge levels will be improved if the participants comprehend that the content encounters their work requirements. Moreover, Axtell *et al.* (1997), Yamnill and McLean (2005) and Hutchins (2009) suggested that when the training programme materials content are alike to those used in the participant's work place, then it is further possible that their knowledge will be enlarged, and their understanding of the training's usefulness.

Consequently, the training content, hand-outs, and any materials should be available to participants either prior to or during the programme (Schraeder, 2009). The content of the training defines the training programme material that will be delivered, e.g. manuals, notes, etc., (Carliner, 2003; Charney and Conway, 2005). Lastly, giving the suitable material to participants does not assure the training's achievement. This materials need to be used properly by participants (Charney and Conway, 2005).

At that point, taking into account the content of the training, the trainer has to decide and organise the training procedure, which will let the trainer to explain the carefully chosen material (Carliner, 2003; Charney and Conway, 2005).

In other words, the trainer should select the training methods and means and then provide, in detail, the entire training course (e.g. timetable, activities, breaks, etc.).

Regarding the determination of the training schedule, several things should be taken into account: the trainees, the employers, and the best conditions for training. Further, the schedule should be set and communicated well in advance, and should be established to meet the needs and desires of the trainees and their organisations. In this context, Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) and Tennant *et al.* (2002) stressed that

inappropriate timing of the daily training sessions is one of the most frequent problems and complaints raised by both trainers and trainees.

Brown and McCracken (2009) described several particular limitations: perceived absence of opportunity to absorb; physical logistical restrictions (e.g. location of training, and time constraints), and Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) confirmed that the lack of appropriate facilities might result in negative attitudes on the part of trainees which could affect their motivation to learn.

Schraeder (2009) stated that it is vital that training brochures, advertising materials, and communication with participants reveal a high degree of proficiency, which should pervade each feature of the training through the whole practice.

2.4.5 Methods of Training

Chambers (2005) concluded that persons tend to learn in different ways, with favoured styles of learning. Brown and McCracken (2009) identified the importance of trainee characteristics, including ability, skills, personality and motivation. Chen *et al.* (2004), Armstrong (2003), Yiu and Saner (2005), Lingham *et al.* (2006) and Kauffeld and Willenbrock (2010) agreed that the differences in the trainees' education, experience, levels of skills and capabilities, and other qualifications are factors that affect the programmes and the success of training, and should be considered in the design and implementation of training.

Arthur *et al*. (2003) found that the efficiency of training seems to differ as a function of the identified training delivery systems, and the task or skill being trained. Chen *et al.* (2006) argued that a good training programme needs to use methods of training that can support trainees' contributions. Many authors such as Tracey *et al*. (2001), Beardwell and Holden (1997), Reid and Barrington (1997), Gomez-Mejia *et al*. (2001) and Cole (1997) offer a convenient vision, since they consider the types of training which take place inside or outside an organisation.

Perhaps the first distinction to be made is between the location of the training, in which respect Beardwell and Holden (1997) noted that provision for training can be "on-the-job" and/or "off-the-job". In explaining the differences, Cole (1997) described an off-the-job location as a training centre which may be on or away from the organisation's sites, or a training institution, and where the emphasis is frequently on increasing an

accepting of common principles, providing related knowledge, and creating an awareness of reasonable concepts and practices.

Schraeder (2009) stated that many training programmes can be expanded to contain some amount of energetic participation by the participants, involving them in actions that directly linked with the planned objectives of the programme. However, a fully on-the-job location, in contrast, is one where the worker is actually performing the tasks for which he/she has been hired, and the emphasis is on the gaining of definite skills in the original situation. Within these two contrasting approaches, different methods and techniques are used, summarised by Cole (1997) and shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Training Methods and techniques

On-the-job training methods	Off-the-job training methods
1. Job instruction	7. Lectures/talks
2. Delegation	8. Classroom instruction
3. Coaching/counselling	9. Case-study analysis
4. Secondments	10. Programmed instruction
5. Learning from experienced workmates ('sitting by Nellie')	11. Group discussions
	12. Simulation exercises
6. Special projects	

Source: Cole (1997, p.294)

Bimbitsos and Petridou (2012), De Cenzo and Robins (1996) and Yaghi (2008) stressed that the media aids and equipment used in presenting the training material are basic and should be taken into consideration when designing any training programme. De Cenzo and Robbins (1996) summarised their use in off-the-job training, as presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Off-the-job training methods

Classroom lectures	Lecture designed to communicate specific interpersonal, technical, or problem-solving skills
Videos and films	Using various media productions to demonstrate specialised skills that are not easily presented by other training methods
Simulation exercises	Training that occurs by actually performing the work. This may include case analysis, experiential exercises, role playing, or group decision making
Computer-based training	Simulating the work environment by programming a computer to imitate some of the realities of the job
Vestibule training	Training on actual equipment used on the job, but conducted away from the actual work setting, e.g. a simulated work station
Programmed instruction	Summarising training materials into highly organised, logical sequences. May include computer seminars, interactive video disks, or virtual reality simulations

Source: De Cenzo and Robbins (1996)

Schraeder (2009) argued that it might be useful to enhance training by providing contact information on other participants, encouraging trainees to communicate and network

following the training sitting. He added that trainers could also ask participants to provide information about their own key knowledge and skills, to increase the possibility that trainees would contact each other for networking or benchmarking.

Mathieu *et al.* (1992) and Tracey *et al.* (2001) argued that the trainee's level of training inspiration will affect his or her preparation. Burke *et al.* (2006) stated that involving trainees in exercises that relate the information and give comment permits trainees to make adjustments in their behaviour and gain insight into the changes required. Atiyyah (1991) stressed that training methods utilised in Arab training institutes are limited and conservative, and the lecture is still the most frequently used method, followed by discussion groups; case studies, role playing exercises, games and simulation are rarely used.

Ghosh *et al.* (2012) indicated that the trainer must motivate the trainees to contribute to discussions and adopt a reflective listening to inspire group involvement. Cole (1997) emphasised that case studies and simulation are important as training tools. Schraeder (2009) stated that many training programmes can be expanded to contain some degree of dynamic contribution by the trainees, involving them in actions directly related to the scheduled purposes of the programme.

Lucas (2005) found that employees usually prefer to perform their tasks using traditional procedures and work methods rather than new ones, perceiving the adoption of a new approach as risky and problematic. Atiyyah (1991) confirmed that most Arab trainers have limited or no experience in using advanced training methods.

2.4.6 Training Facilities and Equipment

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006, p.3) indicated that in planning and implementing an effective training programme, factors to be considered include the need for selecting the appropriate facilities, and selecting and preparing audiovisual aids. Indeed, training equipment, as part of the training process inputs, plays a critical role (Cooper, 1994).

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) affirmed that audiovisual aids are widely used in training programmes. The audiovisual aid has double goals: to help the trainers to communicate with their audience; and to hold the trainees' interest and entertain them in addition to developing a positive climate for participants' learning.

Treven (2003) indicated that the facilities required for training differ from a small, makeshift seminar area to large lecture rooms, accompanied by small conference rooms with advanced instructional technology. Bimbitsos and Petridou (2012), De Cenzo and Robins (1996) and Yaghi (2008) stressed that the media aids used in presenting the training material are basic in designing any training programme.

On the other hand, the facilities should be comfortable and convenient. Places that are too small, noise, uncomfortable furniture, distractions and uncomfortable temperature are negative factors to be avoided, as are venues that involve long distances to travel and other inconveniences for the trainees. On the positive side, refreshment and breaks should be considered (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick2006; Bimptos and Petridou, 2012).

Storr and Hurst (2001) stated that appropriate facilities and resources, learning space, and complementary learning resources are all required for good training. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) stated that the classroom and other process logistics should be functional and comfortable.

Brown and McCracken (2009) described several specific limitations: perceived absence of opportunity to learn; physical logistical restrictions (e.g. location of training, and time constraints), and Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) confirmed that the lack of the appropriate facilities might cause negative attitudes on the part of trainees which could affect their motivation to learn. Additionally, Storr and Hurst (2001) mentioned that appropriate library facilities are considered necessary for successful training.

Charney and Conway (2005) indicated that the instructor should examine the actual location where the training will be carried out, in order to properly correct the arrangement of the room to suit the trainer's presence. When the classroom feels right, the instructor will be happy and in all prospects, will offer all the needs of the training programme more successfully.

Concerning the setting in which the training course is conducted; Park and Jacobs (2008) confirmed that training providers must offer a training atmosphere that supports and assists the training practice. For example, if a programme is well designed and planned but conducted in a noisy, dirty and dark classroom, then it is expected that the training activities will not be applied as was planned (i.e. the trainees and trainer will be distracted by the noise, poor lighting, etc.).

2.4.7 Selection of Trainers

The selection of trainers is essential to the success of a training programme. The trainers' qualifications must include a knowledge of the training subjects, a desire to train, communication skills, and skills in motivating individuals to participate they should also be "learner oriented", ready to meet trainers' needs Kirkpatrick(2008).

Kirkpatrick recommended two approaches for the effective selection of trainers: observing the trainer's performance in a similar situation; and relying on the recommendations of other professionals who have already used the trainer.

Guald and Miller (2004) concluded that trainers can be selected for their listening and questioning skills, communication skills, knowledge of content, problem-solving skills, and ability to use teaching aids. Massy (2003) confirmed that training quality requires that trainers understand the ways in which they can transfer knowledge to the trainee.

While trainers have a critical influence on the quality of training programmes, specifically, a good trainer who is strongly interested in training, a good communicator and receptive to trainees will positively influence the quality of a training programme (Farrant *et al.,* 2008).

According to Charney and Conway (2005) and Lawson (2006), the trainer's whole presence (appearance, teaching, communication ability, etc.) affects trainees' perceptions of the course's perceived effectiveness, and inspires them to maximise their job-related skill and knowledge levels.

It has already been indicated (Herschbach, 1997; Franceschini and Terzago, 1998) that several parties contribute to the process of training, with trainers as key actors at all the stages; Leduchowicz (2007) confirmed that planning the training activity and setting training aims and objectives are among the major roles of trainers.

Chen *et al*. (2006) concluded that trainers clearly have to know what they are supposed to do; their background is crucial, and they should have the appropriate experience. Towler and Dipboye (2001) concluded that there are many attributes necessary for trainers such as communication skills, knowledge of content, ability to use training aids/media, controlling the learning environment, and listening and questioning. However, Mabey *et al*. (1998) and Stewart (1999) explained that the absence of a good system can cause problems to training management.

Further, Ghosh *et al.* (2012) emphasised that the trainer must motivate the trainees to contribute to discussion, and must adopt reflective listening to inspire group involvement. Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) indicated that trainers should be more pervasive and perceptible and there should be more contact between trainers and clients and trainees' managers.

Carliner (2003) and Charney and Conway (2005) emphasised the point that a trainer has to track definite phases in designing a training programme in order for the top potential result to be attained. In specific, the trainer must first define the objectives/goals of the programme (either alone or in cooperation with the other parties) and then decide the content of the programme depending on these objectives.

However, Yaghi (2008) and Alfaleh (1999) argued that there are unsystematic training approaches in Jordanian organisations, in addition to the absence of scientific training-needs assessment methods in almost all Jordanian public and private sector organisations. They identified three main reasons for these problems: that training programmes are not based on identified needs; the lack of a systematic training process including training programme evaluation methods and training methods; and trainers' selection criteria.

2.4.8 Training Evaluation

According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006), the most shared motive for evaluation is to identify the success of a training programme and ways in which it can be improved. Generally, scholars agree that evaluation is an important if problematic part of the training process, and the last stage of a systematic training programme (Goldstein and Gillan, 1990).

2.4.8.1 Importance of Evaluating Training

Given that human resources are considered one of the most vital resources of any organisation (Early and Peterson, 2004), there is little doubt that training is more successful if it is tailor-made. Further, Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012) stressed the necessity and the importance of training evaluation, considering it as an integral part of training. Training evaluation is a system for measuring changes resulting from training interventions, identifying whether trainees have achieved learning outcomes (Tan *et al.,* 2003).

Training-course evaluations have their origins in the business community where value for money for training has long been considered important (Darby, 2007). Campbell (1998) placed great importance on training evaluation as a principal means of setting objectives for the training programmes. Generally, the effectiveness of training programmes depends on the standards chosen to measure it (Arthur *et al.*, 2003; Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Evaluating training outcomes is a crucial component of the learning process (Mann and Robertson, 1996).

Currently, organisations are investing more money in training than ever before (Brinkerhoff, 1989; Cromwell and Kolb, 2004), so the evaluation of training consequences is essential and helps organisations to evaluate their efficiency more accurately (Noe *et al.*, 2006). As Brinkerhoff (1989) pointed out, the challenge for organisations is to consider training as an essential and energetic partner that certainly impacts their competitive situation.

In accepting this challenge, organisations should not only increase the quantity of evaluations of a training course, but they should include the evaluation's results into the training design practice itself. Further, Brinkerhoff (1989, p.5) stresses that "unless leaders in training engage in far greater usage of evaluation and other quality improvement efforts than they now pursue, the training profession faces serious threats to its survival".

Evaluating training results is an important component of the training process (Mann and Robertson, 1996). According to Lewis and Thornhill (1994), there is general agreement that this is the least well conducted part of training activities, frequently ignored or practised ineffectively. Hesseling (1966) concluded that one of the focal jobs of the trainer is to assess for training usefulness, and to confirm that the selected training approaches have accomplished an anticipated outcome. Torrington and Hall (1995) stated that evaluation of training tends to be unclear and unacceptable, although it is essential to validate value for money.

The purpose of training evaluation is to identify the cost-benefit relation ofemployees development programmes, to offer feedback on the usefulness of the training, and define how much the participants have benefited (Phillips and Chagalis, 1990). This is supported by Reid and Barrington (1997), who indicated that evaluation permits

training to be assessed in financial expressions, and can offer data to defend increased training.

Concern for the evaluation process, when planning a training course, it is crucial to allow the setting of appropriate training aims and learning results. This can assist to develop the quality of future training events, consequently avoiding training actions being wasted. Evaluating the benefits of training can also enable individuals to determine the worth of training, rather than the real costs. Training-programme evaluation can help organisations to develop their workforce training and improvement activities (Lewis and Thornhill, 1994).

According to a study conducted by Powell and Yalcin (2010) on evaluating the efficiency of training programmes, several results may be of interest. Tracey *et al*. (1995) and Kirkpatrick (2008) indicated that training evaluation should measure the outcomes of the training and the transfer and application of what has been learned in the workplace.

2.4.8.2 Models of Training-Programme Evaluation

In the following sections, several training evaluation methodologies and models are presented.

2.4.8.2.1 Kirkpatrick's Model

Kirkpatrick (2006) proposed a four-level methodology for evaluating the success of training programmes that comprises measurement of reactions to training, learning achievement, transfer and succeeding behaviour, and business outcomes. These measurement categories are shown in table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Kirkpatrick's model of training evaluation

Level	Description
Reaction	Assessing what the trainees thought of the particular programme.
Learning	Measuring the learning of principles, facts, skills and attitudes which were specified as training objectives.

Behaviour	Measuring aspects of job performance which are related to the training objectives
Results	Relating the results of the training programme to organisational objectives and other criteria of effectiveness.

Source: Kirkpatrick (2006, p.21)

The first level in Kirkpatrick's model is the *reaction* or feelings that trainees have toward the actual training programme. While this outcome is an important starting point for evaluating programme outcomes, it is perhaps the least explored in existing studies identified for this meta-analysis. The second category in Kirkpatrick's model is *learning*, concerned with knowledge outcomes, or ideas, information, and approaches from the training programme that are understood and retained by trainees. The third level is *behaviour* which is concerned with the actual on-the-job application of learned ideas, information, and approaches from the training programme. The final level, *results*, is broadly considered as the overall end results achieved (Alliger and Janak, 1989).

Kirkpatrick's approach is the most common one utilised in the training field (Dubinsky *et al.,* 2001). Many authors, such as Salas and Bowers (2001), Arthur *et al.* (2003) and Bramley and Kitson (1994) considered it to be the best known model for evaluation of training. Nevertheless, it has been criticised for the assumption that the levels are each related to the former and next level and that the model is too simple, failing to take account of the numerous intervening factors influencing training (Tamkin *et al.,* 2002). Many objectives might be achieved through the evaluation of training, which in turn justify it.

Hashim (2001) stated that training evaluation may be carried out for many reasons, including gathering information that helps decision makers to improve training processes and facilitating participants' job performance.

To conclude, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2008) state that "trainees' reactions affect learning. The term "trainees' reactions" refers to the extent to which trainees are satisfied with their overall training participation, in other words the degree to which trainees are satisfied with all the elements of the training programme (i.e. trainer

performance, training environment and training components' goals, content, material and process)".

2.4.8.2.2 The CIRO Model

The CIRO model is another evaluation model broadly used in present organisations (Cooper, 1994). The four main components are context, inputs, reactions and outcomes. This model stresses evaluating the efficiency of managerial training courses, and as such it does not specify how measurement of training programmes for manufacturing employees can be done. Furthermore, it concentrates on measurements both before and after the training has been conducted. The core strength of the model is that the objectives (*context*) and the training equipment (*inputs*) are taken into account. On the other hand, this model does not assess behavioural change, which is a serious topic. In addition, the model recommends the implementation of measures through the training that can provide the training provider with essential information concerning the present state of the training programme, leading to developments.

Stuffelbeam (2000) recommended that the evaluation should contain of context, input, process, and output evaluation, and argues that these evaluations are completed at different steps throughout the programme progress. Tenant *et al.* (2002) affirmed that, to be active, training must have definite purposes and results, which apparently lead to organisations' benefits.

A comparison of the two models is shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Comparison between the Kirkpatrick and CIRO evaluation models.

Criteria	Kirkpatrick	CIRO
Focused areas	Reaction	Context
	Learning	Input
	Behaviour	Reaction
	Result	Outcome

Strengths	Identifies behavioural change with an emphasis on the change of ability and application to jobs	Measures pre- and post-training to establish whether the objectives of the training were achieved
Weaknesses	No focus on training objectives, only post-training measures	Requires more training resources and has no behavioural focus

Source: Tenant *et al.* (2002)

2.4.8.2.3 A Four-Phase System

Lingham *et al.* (2006) suggested a four-phase system for training evaluation that focuses on designing the training programme, evaluating the preliminary programme, feedback and design of the evaluation tool, and continuing training and evaluation. They concluded that good evaluation schemes should be co-created and contain quantitative methods that capture features of content, applicability and trainee' perceived significance of joining the training events (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: A Four-phase system

Phase 1: Design of training Programme
- Meeting with organisational leaders, trainers and evaluators.
- Agreed methodology to obtain feedback from initial itirations of the training programme.
Focus: Organisational Objectives

Phase2: Launch and evaluating of initial training programme
- Conducting initial training (one or two cycles)
- Use agreed methodology to obtain feedback from participants in the initial iterations of the training programme
- Analysed of the data gathered from participants and feild notes
Focus: organisational and participants perspectives

Phase3: Feedback and design of evaluation instrument
- Meeting with organisational leaders, trainers and evaluators
- Adjustment to the training programme (content and/or design)
- Creating the evaluation survey for the evaluation of the programme
Focus: organisational and participants' perspectives

Phase4: Ongoing training and evaluation
- Conducting of training programme with new content and/or design
- Collecting data from evaluation survey
- Analysis of results from survey in relation to emerged themes from initial feedback.
Focus: organisational and participants' perspectives

Source: Lingham *et al*. (2006, p.337).

Much research has been focused on the success of training, and the focus has recently shifted from training output to process models asking why certain training has an effect and how it can be optimised (Kauffeld and Willenbrock, 2010). According to Mulder (2001), training organisations seek to acquire feedback regarding the quality of training programmes they have offered, as perceived by their clients, in order to make policy modifications if the results of the evaluation were disappointing. Mulder (2001) has developed an evaluation instrument consisting of a closed questionnaire which includes three groups of questions, administered before, during and after the training. For training organisations, training evaluation leads to improved training activities and to the building of a high reputation (Bimpitsos and Petridou, 2012).

McCoy and Hargie (2001) stated that no one model of evaluation is comprehensive and appropriate for all circumstances and, to evaluate efficiently, there is requirement for improved understanding of the nature of evaluation, its objective, and participants' and employers' needs. Tannenbaum and Woods (1992) identified many factors that can impact the training evaluation process: importance of training, change potential, scale,

nature and purpose, organisational culture, expertise, cost and timeframe. Failure to address any of these factors could restrain the success of the evaluation.

The following training-related concepts have been identified (Brinkerhoff, 1989; Bratton and Gold, 2003; Holgado-Tello *et al.,* 2006; Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2008):

- *Reactions*: trainees' reactions regarding training goals, content, material, trainers, environment and training process;
- *Learning*: trainees' acquired knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes resulting from participation in training programmes; and
- *Usefulness*: trainees' perceived usefulness, regarding their job, as a result of the training programme attended.

Kirkpatrick (2006), Yiu and Saner (2005) and Linghame *et al*. (2006) all recommended the use of pre-test and post-test in the evaluation activities of training programme participants.

However, Atiyyah (1991) argued that the evaluation approaches used in Arab training organisations are highly personal and their outcomes have inadequate utility in developing on-going programmes or designing new ones. Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) found that the use of a questionnaire, and observation, were the most popular training evaluation techniques used by Kuwaiti organisations, while ASTD (1997) reported that more than 90% of 300 US organisations used a questionnaire to evaluate training programmes. Atiyyah (1991) stated that the most widely used timing of the questionnaire is immediately after the programme is completed.

Hashim (2001) argued that most training programmes are evaluated only at the reaction level, associated with the terms "happiness sheet" or "smile sheet", because reaction feedback is generally gained through a participating questionnaire managed at the end of a training event.

2.5 Quality of Training

In this context, the concept of quality has been expressed in many views and ways, including fitness-for-purpose or use (Juran, 1992). In addition, Juran and Gryna (1993) asserted that quality means customer satisfaction. Quality should be aimed at the present

and future needs of the customer (Deming, 1998). Oakland (2003, p.4) argued that quality is an approach to improving the effectiveness of the overall organisation, whether it is public or private. He offered a convenient definition of quality as *"meeting the customer's requirements"*. This review of literature discloses that quality is a broadly defined expression. Below are some few definitions of quality:

"A high degree of goodness" (Procter, 1978 cited in Manyaga, 2008, p.166).

"Conformance to requirements" (Crosby, 1979 cited in Carson *et al.*, 1998, p.134).

"Doing the right things right" (Deming, 1998 cited in Manyaga, 2008, p.166).

"Degree of fit between what a customer wants and what a customer gets" (Peninsula Technikon, 2001cited in Manyaga, 2008, p.166).

Furthermore, the word 'quality' denotes to traits bearing the ability to satisfy needs, wants, and meeting definite criteria (Zhang, 2003).

In training and education the capability refers to efficiency and effectiveness in the method of learning. The learning should lead to suitable consequences for learners, establishments and sponsors. The phrase 'education and training' is taken to mean vocational training and education, (pre-employment or post-employment courses). For continuous development and innovations in quality, various studies illustrate that an educated and trained staff is a vital component of quality improvement in organisations (Chin and Pun, 1999). Hides *et al.* (2004) affirmed that several quality approaches became applicable, not only in the industrial sector, but in public sector organisations, showing that there has been a developing interest in implementing quality models and applications in the public and service sector organisations.

Practitioners and providers of training and education in developing and developed countries commonly seek to improve the quality of education and training. Indicative of the occurrence of the mission for quality are the several orientations in the general and academic press, and in analyses of global organisations of education and training reform initiatives to national qualifications contexts; training resources; and utility of place of work and formal training in increasing appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes (Herschback, 1997; ILO, 2002; Searle *et al.*, 2003; UNESCO, 1999).

Daniels (2003) assumed that good training should answer several questions, regarding the need for training, who needs training, the provider of the training, and the training evaluation and forms. Obviously, these questions relate to and determine the goodness (quality) levels of training. Herschbach (1997) stated that training must be conceived as a system to be effective; he also considered that the selection of training administrators is needed to ensure that the most qualified individuals carry out training management.

Odiorne and Rummler (1988) pointed out that the quality of the training outcomes is based on the training-needs assessment data; if the training needs have not been appropriately assessed, then the design of a training programme will not meet the expectations of participants and the training efforts are a waste of time. And Vermeulen (2002), Holton and Baldwin (2003) and Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) stressed the need for the training to match what was required in the trainees' job context.

Kauffeld and Willenbrock (2010) argued that rapid and unpredictable changes in the organisations' operating environments are forcing them to have employees who are more adaptable and skilled than previously. The increased emphasis on high-quality goods and services, in the face of greater competition in the marketplace, is making it more necessary than ever for organisations to equip their employees with the relevant skills and develop their appropriate competencies. An ageing workforce together with fewer young recruits means organisations are having to spend more money and time on 'preventing' their employees from becoming obsolescent, rather than relying on schools and colleges.

Clark *et al.* (1993) stated that training motivation is a direct function of the extent to which the trainee believes that training will result in either job utility or career utility (the perceived usefulness of training for attainment of career goals, such as getting a raise or promotion, or taking a more fulfilling job). Sylvie and Sire (2001) confirmed that individuals' perceptions that their efforts in training will enable them to gain rewards at work is one of the factors that positively influence the trainees' training efforts, and Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), Cheng and Ho (1998) and Holton and Baldwin (2003) found a clear link between reward and outcome expectations from training, and observed that the performance of trainees who expect their rewards to increase as a result of their training will also improve.

Brown and McCracken (2009) argued that the location of training is one of the logistical constraints which affect the participants' willingness to effectively participate in training, and Noe and Schmitt (1986) argued that the top management and supervisors' support received by trainees is one of the factors influencing training effectiveness. Kontoghiorghes (2001) found that the perceived supervisory support for training affected anticipated job utility and thus motivation to learn during training. Clarke (2002) stated that the lack of support from trainees' supervisors was a major barrier to effective training. Indeed, it is necessary to identify factors that affect training success and to provide directions for training design to make sure that investment in training actually pays off (Kauffeld and Willenbrock, 2010).

Francesschini and Terzago (1998) stated that fair pricing and well organised and managed programmes are among the fundamental requirements for the success of training. Sylvie and Sire (2001) stated that trainees expect two types of reward: intrinsic and extrinsic. Schraeder (2009) stressed that, if participants in a training programme are viewed as customers, and steps are taken to increase the training experience by not only meeting but exceeding the trainees' expectations, then the effectiveness of the training may be improved.

According to the definitions of quality above, the author has concluded that meeting the customers' needs will help organisations to achieve their objectives, including their competitiveness and reducing costs. In addition, it is clear that one of the most important issues regarding quality is the continuous improvement of the overall organisation including processes and human resources.

2.5.1 Factors Influencing the Quality of Training

In an era of continuous change and increased uncertainty and complexity of the present environment, both management and employees understand their limited capacities to deal with future demands. The emergence of two trends has increasingly been troubling corporate management: the increasing age of the workforce, and the fast-paced evolution of new technologies (Tai, 2006).

Many authors (Carliner, 2003; Gauld and Miller, 2004; Charney and Conway, 2005; Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2008; Nikadrou *et al.*, 2009) argue that every factor that refers to the training programme's design and implementation (i.e. trainer, training

goals, content, material, environment, training process) can influence trainees' learning level and perceived usefulness of the training programme.

Herschbach (1997) concluded that good training-institute staff is one of the bases of training programme quality; trainers, administrators, and the whole staff of the training institutions should themselves be well trained and need incentives, so higher pay and better working conditions are fundamental to enhancing training institutions in the long term. Brown and McCracken (2009) argued that the location of training is one of the logistical constraints which affect participants' willing to effectively participate in training.

Sternberg and Lubart (1996) proposed that a combination of individual and environmental factors will influence training outcomes. In this regard, the content and contextual validity of training are considered as factors playing significant roles in the effectiveness and evaluation of training. Storr and Hurst (2001) stated that appropriate facilities and resources, the learning space and complementary learning resources for training programmes are required. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) stated that the training classroom is part of the training-process logistics and should be functional and comfortable.

Quality function deployment (QFD) was found as a specific methodology applied with good results in the service sector; further, QFD has been used for the design of a theoretic practical training course with the purpose of giving a well-defined knowledge target to all the participants. The basic steps of QFD require the determination of customer needs. In fact, the need of the customer is the principal input of the training course design process (Akao, 1990; Franceschini, 1998).

It is necessary in QFD to state the groups of customers to be addressed, with the purpose of satisfying their needs. Many 'actors' take part in the training process, all having different roles and, with respect to a training course, different kinds of requirements (Franceschini, and Terzago, 1998) (see Table 2.6).

Table 2.6: Factors influencing satisfaction with training

Actors	Roles & Requirements

The trainee (or customer-user)	Who is the person taking part in the training course for different reasons: subsequent to his company's will, for professional upgrade, for personal interest, and so on?
The investor (or employer)	Which is the company that decides to pay a training agency for a training course and that, in the case of a "tailor-made" training course, agrees on the basic subjects with the expert?
The training organisation (or service-provider)	Which is the service company that organises the training course?
The expert (or technician)	Who is the person (an external consultant or an internal employee of the training agency) who is skilled in the specific subject of the course and who designs its detailed contents?
The trainer	Who is the professional chosen by the training agency – often according to the specifications defined by the expert – to provide all or a part of the training service to the participants?
The recruiting manager (or customer-selector)	Usually belonging to the human resources department, whose job is to select the group of participants for the training course?

Source: Franceschini and Terzago (1998, p.754).

According to Dubinsky *et al.* (2001), many factors influence satisfaction with training, including format, site, instructor, instructional methods and content of the training programme. This model, presented in Table 2.7, stresses the importance of the site of training.

Table 2.7: Factors influencing satisfaction with training

Factor	Description
Format	What format should be used to deliver the training?
Site	Where should the training be held?
Instructor	Who should provide the training?
Instructional method	What instructional method should be utilised?
Content	What should the content of the training programme be?

Source: Dubinsky et al. (2001, pp.28-29).

The quality of the training outcomes are based on the outputs of the training-needs identification process. Switzer *et al.* (2005) stated that training course contents that are unrelated certainly produce bad outcomes in the work situation on return, and Tracey *et al.* (2001) found a strong relationship between training environment and training outcomes.

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) mentioned several factors which should be taken into consideration in planning and implementing an effective training programme:

- Identifying training needs
- Determining objectives
- Deciding subject content
- Choosing trainees
- Setting the appropriate schedule
- Determining suitable facilities
- Selecting proper trainers
- Determining and preparing audio visual aids

- Managing the training programme
- Evaluating the programme.

Herschbach (1997) considered that careful selection of training administrators is needed to ensure that the most qualified individuals carry out training management. Schraeder (2009) explained that the content, PowerPoint slides, overheads, handouts, and any other materials related to the training programme also need to be well designed to reach a high level of quality and competence, in addition to ensuring that the materials used in the training reflect a high level of quality and professionalism.

The Training Quality Standard (TQS) is an evaluation outline and an assessment and certification method designed to identify the best organisations providing training and development resolutions to organisations. The TQS was established to reflect employers' main concerns and expectations in obtaining training and improvement solutions, and the practices of the organisations proven to be the best at providing them. It helps training providers supply learning services which have a visible influence upon employers' organisation. It is a recognised Quality Mark, although its true benefit is the fact that it promotes discussion between providers and employers: http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20101008133025/http://trainingqualitystandard.co.uk/Documents20.

According to Braga and Roncari (1994), in developed countries training refers to the whole set of theoretical and practical training activities targeted at increasing the knowledge and individual skills of human resources. Herschbach (1997) concluded that good training-institute staffs are the basis of training-programme quality. Halaby (cited in Atiyya 1991, p.92) reported that the development programmes for training organisations' staff in Arab training institutes were inadequate.

The increase of training programmes based on the total quality management approach, particularly significant between the late 1980s and the early 1990s, has made a critical contribution to the mode of training in developed countries. Training has become, even more than before, a strategy for increasing organisations' productivity according to market demands. Further, firms have felt the necessity to invest in changes that could increase their competitive advantage in the future. The demand for industrial training courses offering qualifications is growing, while requests for training programmes "in

the field" are becoming even more focused, aiming at precise improvement goals consistent with the company's quality plan (Franceschini and Terzago, 1998).

Accordingly, certain considered changes are evolving in the training world, such as developing a training environment improving the flexibility of organisations' response to the market, shortening the learning cycle and finally developing training evaluation systems. Quality function deployment (QFD), established as a specific methodology for new product development, has been applied with good results even in the service industry. Furthermore, QFD has been used for the design of theoretic practical training courses, with the purpose of giving a well-defined knowledge target to all the participants (Akao, 1990; Franceschini, 1998; Franceschini and Rossetto, 1995a, 1995b).

ISO 10015 is an initiative within the ISO 9000 family. The result of this initiative was the drafting of a quality standard for training, available for use by private and public organisations interested in ensuring high-quality standards and high returns on training investment (Yiu and Saner, 2005) (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: The input-output process of training
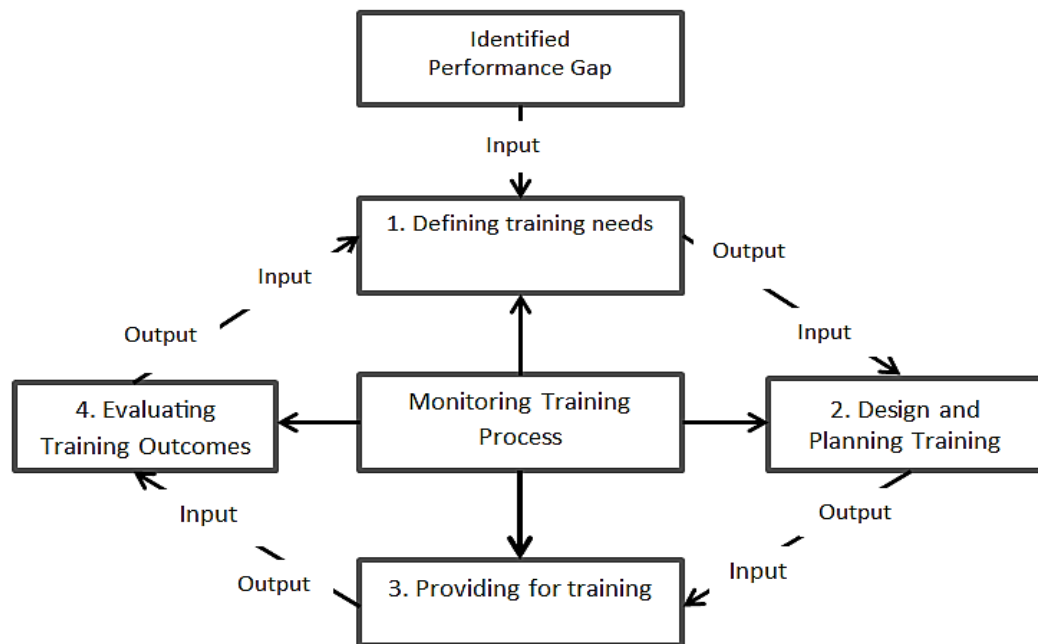
Source: Yiu and Saner (2005, p.13)

2.5.2 Different Customers with Different Needs

The first phase of QFD needs the determination of the client's (trainers, employers) needs. Clearly, the needs of the customer are the major input of the design process. It is necessary to define the groups of customers, with the purpose of satisfying their needs. The world of business training programmes is much differentiated, because of different 'actors' taking part in the system (Akao, 1990; Franceschini, 1998; Franceschini and Terzago, 1998). They summarised these actors as follow:

- The *trainee* (or customer-user), who is the individual taking part in the training programme for different reasons: the organisation's will, for professional improvement, for individual interest, and so on;
- The *investor* (or employer), which is the organisation paying a training organisation for the programme and, in the event of a "tailor-made" training event, approving on the basic topics with the expert;
- The *training organisation* (training-provider), which is the training organisation that organises the training programme;

- The *expert*, who is the individual (an external consultant or an internal employee of the training agency) who is experienced in the precise topic of the programme and who designs its comprehensive content;

- The *trainer* who is the qualified selected by the training organisation, regularly based on the qualifications defined– to deliver a part or all of the training activity to the trainees;

- The *recruiting manager* (or trainee-selector), whose job is to select the trainees for the training course.

All these actors play different roles and have, with respect to a training course, different kinds of requirements.

The expert wants to use the subjects that he/she considers most important to design the body of the course. For example he/she appreciates:

- Objective definition;
- Data about the trainees;
- Basic timing for the realisation of the programme;
- Data about availability of technical and logistical instruments;
- Data about the trainer's profile.

2.5.2.1 Customer Satisfaction Analysis

Many sources are used to identify the requirements of trainees for a standard training event, from evaluation forms or questionnaires completed at the end of a programme, to preceding analysis.

Participants in training courses may wish to be given a certificate of final evaluation or attendance, or even to hear a linear explanation rather than one with many logical leaps. Nevertheless, these components do not wholly represent clients' requirements; they are some of the characteristics for delivering the training, or specifications that are related to other implied requirements, such as the value of the training content, the ease of certification of the attained know-how or skills.

Franceschini and Terzago (1998) pointed out that the participants' needs for training programmes are:

➢ to be useful (i.e. effective, fit to use);

- to deal with interesting subjects (causing participants' interest and curiosity);

- to be pertinent/consistent with participants' expectations;

- to be clear;

- to be comprehensible ;

- to be well organised;

- to be well managed (referring to the process of providing the service in the classroom and to relations between trainer and participants and among participants);

- to entertain in a pleasant way (these are aspects referring to the emotional point of view connected with participation in the programme. These are not optional elements; on the contrary, they are very important because they constitute for the participant an emotional inclination to get all the know-how and capabilities that the programme aims to provide).

Schraeder (2009) indicated that, if participants in a training programme are viewed as customers, and steps are taken to increase the training experience by not only meeting but exceeding the trainees' expectations, then the success of the training may be enhanced. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) identified eight macro-categories or "warning areas" that they used to start off the design process of the training service. These are:

1) Content (it is necessary to recognise appropriately, verify it and finally incorporate it in the course body structure);
2) Support (including both training books and technical support for teaching);
3) Provision (in the phases of explanation, examples, exercises, industrial case studies and tests);
4) Learning (critical contents, logical steps, etc.);
5) Class management (relationship with the class, keeping the attention, work-time management, etc.);
6) Communication (language and style used in the explanation);

7) Organisation (course duration, timetable, composition of participants in groups, certificates, additional services, evaluation questionnaires, etc.);

8) Logistics (classroom functionality and comfort, site easily reachable, etc.).

Quality function deployment is certainly an innovative tool with which to approach the development of a new service. Nevertheless some problems still exist:

• Cultural barriers which thwart the creation of project teams able to use QFD;

• Lack of friendly tools (SW environments) able to reduce training time;

• Exponential growth of managerial difficulties connected with increase in the size of design projects.

Analoui (1999) stated that poor payment, salary, and other economic incentives certainly constitute the root of ineffectiveness at work. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) argued that participants in training programmes require being entertained in a pleasant way. Arthur *et al*. (2003) found that the success of training appears to vary as a function of the specified training delivery method, and the skill or task being covered.

2.5.2.2 Conclusions on the Factors influencing the Quality of Training programmes

This literature review has identified a number of factors which might influence the quality of training. The researcher has spent a significant amount of time in studying articles and books to discover these factors, and illustrates the most common ones in Table 2.8).

Table 2.8: Factors which influence QTP

Factors	Related Literature
Training-needs assessment	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick (2006); Lingham *et al.* (2006); Yaghi (2008); Franceschini and Terzago (1998); Bhatti *et al.* (2012).
Training-programme design	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick (2006); Dubinsky *et al.,*(2001); Lingham *et al.* (2006); Franceschini and Terzago (1998); Schraeder (2009); Kauffeld and Willenbrock (2010); Martin (2010)
Training implementation	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick (2006); Dubinsky *et al.*(2001); Lingham *et al.* (2006); Hutchins (2009); Nikadrou *et al.* (2009)
Training environment: site, facilities	Kirkpatrick (2006); Dubinsky *et al.*(2001); Sternberg and Lubart (1996); Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012); Brown and McCracken (2009)
Trainees: personal attributes, motivations, experiences, level of knowledge, skills	Tannenbaum and Woods (1992); Franceschini and Terzago (1998); Sahinidis and Bouris (2008); Schraeder (2009)
Trainers	ISO 10015; Franceschini and Terzago (1998); Bannet and Leduchowicz (2007); Kirkpatrick (2006); Dubinsky *et al.* (2001); Gosh *et al.* (2012); Farrant *et al.* (2008)
Evaluation process	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick (2006); Lingham *et al.* (2006); Stuffelbeam (2000); Powell and Yalcin (2010); Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012); Kauffeld and

	Willenbrock (2010); Darby (2007)
Administrative services	Franceschini and Terzago (1998); Kirkpatrick (2006); Brown and McCracken (2009); Park and Jacobs (2008); Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012)

2.6 The Context of the Study

This section contains a brief discussion about the nature of training practices in the environment where the research is to be carried out. It begins with an overview of training in developing countries, of which Jordan is one, continues to consider the issue in Arabic countries, and finishes with a discussion of training in Jordan.

2.6.1 Training in Developing Countries

There are many definitions regarding the term developing country; Sullivan and Steven (2003) define a developing country as a concept used to describe a nation with a low level of material well-being, while the World Bank considers all low- and middle-income countries with Gross National Income (GNI) per capita below US$11,905 as developing countries (World Bank, 2008). According to the World Development Indicators Database (World Bank, 2009) Jordan is classified as a developing country with a GNI per capita of $3,740.

Countries categorised as developing have nevertheless paid more attention to training in recent years. The limited supply of resources, educated and trained people is one of the significant features of developing countries. This has led Arab governments and organisations to pay much more attention to training and development (Atiyyah, 1993; Al-Madhoun *et al*., 2003). Budhwar and Deborah (2001) argued that economic globalisation and its associated international competitive pressures have the potential to change HRM in developing countries. Furthermore, globalisation has ushered in new forms of management in developing nations. Thus it is argued that globalisation, along with increasing international competitiveness, new technologies and innovations in production and management, are the main driving forces behind the changes and new developments in HRM in developing countries (Deborah and Smith, 2000a; 2000b).

Historically, the importance of training and development has been realised by many countries and organisations and they have emphasised the use of management training and development. Such a philosophy has extended to developing countries, and they too have become involved in training and development activities. Indeed, Boisot (1986) stressed that China had planned to train and develop 11 million managers before the end of the 20th century in order to meet present and future development requirements. Further Xiau (2005) affirmed that the State personnel ministry in China sends 40,000 managers per year to be trained in developed countries as the UK and the USA in addition to multiple times of this figure to Chines training institutions. India is another case with a strong awareness that training and development are needed for all management levels in the country (Saxena, 1974).

Herschbach (1997) stated that during the 1980s and 1990s, heavy investment were made in vocational education and training by most developing countries. These investments often exceeded the capability to build and maintain high-quality training systems. Therefore, training quality was uncertain and the need for skilled manpower still unfulfilled.

2.6.2 Training in Arab Countries

Nowadays, Arab countries tend to apply a vertical approach to problem-solving, focusing on the successes and failures of the past, as opposed to a horizontal examination of others around the world (UNDP, 1998). Al-Kazemi and Ali (2002) found that there are 1.4 million foreign residents in Kuwait, relative to 825,000 Kuwaiti citizens. They also mentioned that Kuwaiti employees view knowledge as something private that must be guarded to protect their positions, and stated that Kuwait is still reliant on imported, ready-made employees of all types and skills to run and manage most of the technological and sophisticated operations. So Kuwait and other Arab countries are in need of local skilled and competent employees.

Despite tremendous investment in education and training in the Gulf States, the supply of indigenous manpower is still below demand; for example, in 1985 expatriates represented 61% of the labour force in these countries and almost 40% of their total population (Atiyyah, 1996). This is supported by Almefleh (2013) who reports that in 2010 the total number of expatriates in the Gulf countries was 15 million representing 60% of the total labour force in these countries and approximately 38% of the total

population of the Gulf countries. Halaby (cited in Atiyya 1991, p.92) reported that the development programmes for training organisations' staff in Arab training institutes were inadequate. SIS (2000) reported that Arab states have to adopt three important principles in order to become modernised: human investment through education and training, viewing workers as intellectual assets, and implanting and nurturing innovative, developmental and cost-saving behaviour in companies and government.

Terterove and Wallace (2002) confirmed that social and economic factors can generate barriers to training, and Agnaia (1997) believed that certain social factors imposed obstacles to training programmes in some Arab regions and reduced the effectiveness of the training.

According to Boints (2004), lack of diversification in Arab nations' economies has resulted in the need for a meta-policy to develop and renew intellectual capital in the region. He added arguments in support of an intellectual capital development report in the Arab region: the lack of a diversified industrial base (in virtually all countries); the need for a solid educational system; imbalance between educational output and market demand; and no infrastructure to stimulate spill-over effects from sectoral growth. It would be irrational to regard training and development as the only way of protecting the investment that a business makes in its people, and Prior (1994) has suggested other ways of protecting business.

Herschbach (1997) stated that one of the fundamental deficits in Arab countries is the shortage of knowledge – its absorption, application and creation. Despite higher spending on education than in most other world regions, major concerns persist including inadequate coverage, high failure and repetition rate, poor quality, a low level of knowledge attainment and limited analytical and innovative capacity. Herschbach (1997) added that good training-institute staff is fundamental to training-programme quality, but Halaby (cited in Atiyya 1991, p.92) reported that the development programmes for training organisations' staff in Arab training institutes were inadequate.

There is agreement among management training experts and executives in Arab countries that the effectiveness of training in general is low, and it is difficult to undertake a systematic evaluation of the training activities. There is a dearth of empirical studies on management training in Arab countries (Atiyyah, 1993 and Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002).

Atiyyah (1991) confirmed that most Arab trainers have limited or no experience in using advanced training methods, while Herschbach (1997) confirmed that, in developing countries, trainers are heavily reliant on the lecture method with few practical activities. Consequently, Herschbach (1997) and Atiyyah (1991) stressed the necessity of training the staff of training institutions; they must be experienced and should themselves be trained in the use of advanced training techniques.

Arab countries achievements in the training field are inadequate, and training institutions have failed to achieve any significant change in the attitudes and practices of training. These institutions focus on quantitative criteria of achievement such as the number of trainees who participate in training activities rather than the qualitative criteria of training effectiveness (Al-Humood, 1989; Atiyyah, 1991; Yaghi, 2008).

2.6.3 Training in Jordan

As indicated in section 2.6.2, one of the central deficits in the Arab states mentioned is the shortage of knowledge – its absorption, application and creation, and despite higher spending on education than most other world regions, major concerns persist including inadequate coverage, high failure and repetition rates, poor quality and a low level of knowledge attainment and limited analytical and innovative capacity (Herschbach, 1997).

It is clear that there is a gap between the quality of higher education organisations' outputs (graduates) and the Jordanian labour market's requirements in terms of the qualifications and skills required (Ministry of Work Report, 2006). Moreover, the quality of training in Jordan is suffering from several obstacles leading to weaknesses in the outputs of the training programmes, and consequently to inappropriate skills and qualifications of the human resources available in the labour market (GDVTI, 2009). In this regard, Rawabdeh (2008) affirmed that in the last few years, Jordan had demonstrated its ability to reform its economy so as to thrive in the third millennium. This will bring a new challenge, arising from the fact that organisations are expected to face increased competition which necessarily requires meaningful and objective development of human resources. These developments cannot be achieved without high-quality training activities leading to highly qualified outputs: trained and skilled manpower.

Public (government) universities in Jordan have contributed to the development of human resources through providing educational opportunities for the people of Jordan; at the same time, these universities provide training opportunities through training centres which offer programmes in many fields for the clients from inside the country and outside (see Table 2.9).

Table 2.9: Public Sector Universities in Jordan

Name of University	Year of Establishment	Training centres
University of Jordan	1962	√
Yarmouk University	1976	√
Mutah University	1981	√
Jordan University of Science & Technology	1986	√
Al Albayt University	1992	√
Hashemite University	1992	√
Al Hussein Bin Talal University	1999	√
Balqa University	1997	√
German-Jordan University	2005	
Tafila University	2005	√

Source: Annual report of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, Jordan (2012)

Abu-Arqoub (2008) stated that certain social, managerial, economic and political factors have imposed constraints on the management of training institutions in Jordan and in most of developing countries, and have limited the achievements of training programmes. The Jordanian government has failed to appoint any formal body with responsibility for determining Training Quality Standards or Assessment Services, to conduct TQS assessments and to accredit the training institutions delivering services for individuals and organisations.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This critical literature review chapter has discussed the concept of, the background of training, its philosophical background, its benefits and objectives, the need for training, and the main categories of it. It has introduced the training process including the training needs assessment, the training programme design, which determines the selection of trainees, trainers, training material, training methods, and the required logistics for training programmes, the implementation, and the evaluation of training programmes. Moreover, the approaches for the evaluation training programmes have been discussed, which are focused on the outcomes of training programmes as well as the inputs of them. From the detailed discussion of these aspects of training, the chapter has progressed to consider the quality aspects related to the training in general and training programmes in particular. In addition, the factors influence the quality of training, the factors that influence the satisfaction with training including the training programme design, implementation, evaluation, equipment, trainees' expectations, and administrative related factors has been highlighted. Finally the chapter the context of the study, training in developing countries and training in Arab countries, training including training in Jordan, was addressed. In the next chapter the background of Jordan, the country in which the study is conducted, will be presented.

Chapter Three

The Jordanian Context

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a background of the country in which the study is conducted. The first section is a brief review of Jordan covering the geography and climate; religion; education system and higher education; and economy. The second is an overview of the University of Jordan and Hashemite University.

3.2 The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan (HKJ): General Overview

This section reviews the geography and climate, describes the historical background, and explains the educational system in the HKJ.

3.2.1 Geography and Climate

Jordan, in the heart of the Middle East, is located at the cross-roads between industrial Europe and the rich Arabian peninsula and is within easy reach of the African continent; its ancient history and diverse geography have produced adaptable and energetic people, a land of many cultures and many different people, both indigenous and invading (Hutchinson, 1978).

The total area of the HKJ is almost 90,000 square kilometres; 7.8% is agricultural land and only a minute proportion is water. As can be seen from the map in Figure 3.1, it is bordered on the north by Syria; on the east by Iraq and Saudi Arabia; on the south by Saudi Arabia and the Gulf of Aqaba, its only sea outlet, which gives access to the Red Sea; and on the west by Israel and the West Bank (the national authority of Palestine).

According to the CIA *World Factbook* (2013), life expectancy in Jordan is the second highest in the region after Israel, estimated at 80.18 years, although the World Health Organisation (WHO) proposes a significantly lower figure, at 73.0 years in 2011. Jordan prides itself on its healthcare service, one of the best in the Middle East and Africa (BBC, 2012). Government figures have put total expected health expenditure in 2012 at some 12% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), while international health organisations give a slightly higher figure (Ministry of Finance; General Budget, Jordan 2012).

The country's healthcare system is shared between public and private organisations. In the public sector, the Ministry of Health operates 1,245 primary healthcare centres and 31 hospitals, accounting for 37.1% of all hospital beds in the country; the military Royal Medical Service runs 12 hospitals, providing 20.5% of all beds; and the the University

of Jordan hospital accounts for 5% of beds. The private sector operates 61 hospitals providing 33% of all hospitals beds (Table 3.1). In 2007, Jordan Hospital (the biggest private hospital) was the first general speciality hospital to acquire international accreditation, JCAHO. The Hope Centre, King Hussein Cancer Centre, is one of the leading cancer treatment centres in the world. Interestingly, there were 203 physicians per 100,000 people in the years 2000-2004 (Ministry of Health annual report, Jordan 2011).

Table 3.1: Public and private sector Hospitals in Jordan

Health Service sector/ year	2010		
	Number of Hospitals	Number of Beds	%
Ministry of Health	31	4373	37.1
Royal Military Medical Services	12	2412	20.5
University of Jordan Hospital	1	602	5.1
King Abdullah I Hospital	1	504	4.3
Private Sector	61	3888	33.0
Total	**106**	**11779**	**100**

Source: Ministry of Health, annual report (Jordan 2012)

By the end of 2012, more than 97% of children under the age of 5 had been vaccinated, a figure which has increased regularly over the past two decades. Based on governmental reports, water and sanitation reach 99% of the population, while in the beginning of the 1950s these resources were available to only 10% of Jordanians. Electricity also reaches 99% of the population, as compared to less than 10% in the 1950s. As a result of government efforts to develop the living conditions for Jordan's

citizens, more than70% of the whole population has medical insurance (Ministry of Health annual report, Jordan 2011).

Figure 3.1: Map of Jordan
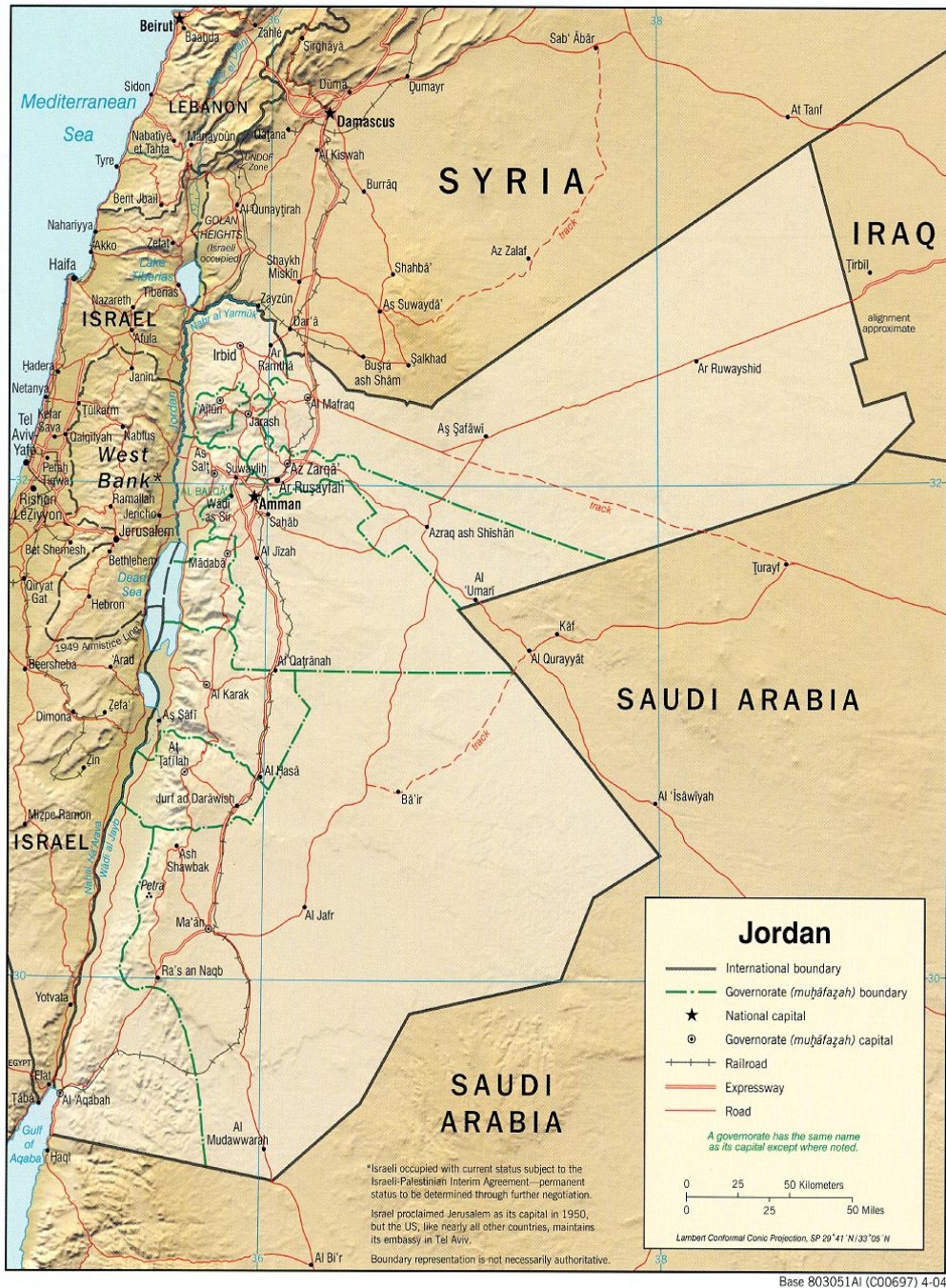
Source: http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/cia05/jordan_sm05.gif

At the end of 2011, the population of Jordan was estimated at 6,249,000, with an annual growth rate of 2.2% during the period 2004-2011; the sex ratio in 2011 was 106.4 males to 100 females (Department of Statistics, Jordan, 2012). The unit of currency, the

Jordanian dinar (JD), equals around 89.3 GBP and 0.709 USD (Alrai newspaper, 2013). The gross domestic product (GDP) at current market prices at the end of 2011 was JD10, 244 (CBJ, 2013). Arabic is the first and the official language, while English is the second language and is spoken at every level throughout the kingdom. Table 2.2 shows the population.

Table3.2: Population of Kingdom by sex

Year	Male	Female	Total
2007	2950.0	2773.0	5723.0
2008	3015.0	2835.0	5850.0
2009	3082.0	2898.0	5980.0
2010	3151.0	2962.0	6113.0
2011	3221.1	3027.9	6249.0

Source: Department of statistics, Jordan statistical Yearbook 2011.

Table 2.3 shows the population of 7 of the 12 governorates and the percentage of the total population of each.

Table 3.3: Estimated population of the Kingdom by province at the end of 2011

Governorate	Total	%
Amman	2419600	38.72%
Zarqa	931100	14.90%
Mafraq	293700	4.70%
Karak	243700	3.90%
Balqa	418600	6.70%

Irbid	1112300	17.80%
Madaba	156300	2.50%

Source: Department of statistics, Jordan statistical Yearbook 2011

3.2.2 Religion

Islam is the first and official religion in Jordan. It is a significant cultural matter that influences the values and the norms of Jordan's culture. Approximately 90% of citizens are Sunni Muslims and 2% are Shia Muslims. Christians make up 6% of the country's population, including Greek Orthodox, Catholics, Coptic; and 2% are Druze (Greenway and Simonis, 2000).

3.2.3 Climate and Topography

The climate of Jordan is influenced by the desert to the east, and the mountains to the west. It varies from dry or semi-arid regions in the east and south to regions in the north and west where there is adequate rainfall and cooler, Mediterranean weather. The country has some of the best weather in the Middle East, as diverse as its landscapes (Ministry of Tourism, 2012).

In general, Jordan has hot, mild summers and dry, showery winters, with yearly average temperatures ranging from 12 to 25 degrees C (54 to 77 F), but reaching the 40s (105-115 F) in the desert parts. Rain averages differ from 50 mm (1.97 inches) yearly in the desert to as much as 800 mm (31.5 inches) in the northern mountains, some of which falls as snow (Central Bank of Jordan, 2007). Overall, Jordan can be divided into three geographical districts, each with a different microclimate:

1. The desert area in the south and east forms nearly two-thirds of the country, and is an extension of the Arabian Desert. There is a little shower, and small plants live in spring and winter. Figure 2.1 shows these different weathers (Central bank of Jordan, 2007).

2. Highlands run through Jordan from south to north. Many riverbeds and valleys cross the mountains and finally flow into the Jordan River or the Dead Sea. The mountains are by no means uniform, fluctuating in altitude from 1969-5249 feet above sea level, and their weather, although in general rainy and cool, also

varies from one part to another. It is in the highlands that the main ruins of ancient civilizations are found in the cities of Petra, Philadelphia (known today as Amman), Jerash, Madaba, and Gadara and Al-Karak. Cereals and Fruit trees, vegetables are planted in the mountains.

3. West of the mountains is the Jordan Rift Valley, which is also positioned along the whole length of Jordan. It drops to more than 1312 feet below sea level at the Dead Sea, the lowest location on earth, and reaches a minimum width of 9.3 miles. The Rift includes the Jordan Valley and the Dead Sea, Aqaba, and Wadi Araba. The region is rich in agricultural fields and is warm throughout the time. Figure 3.2 presents a summary of the geographical topography of Jordan.

Table 3.4: The Kingdom's Area by Topography

Indicator	Area (Sq. Km)*	
Total Area of the Kingdom	89,318 sq.km	
Land Area	88,778 sq.km	
• Heights	• 550	
• Plains	• 10,000	
• Rift Valley	• 8,228	
• Badeia (Semi-desert)	• 70,000	
Territorial Waters	540 sq.km	
• Dead Sea Dead Sea (below sea level (- 416 Meter)	• 446	
• Aqaba Gulf	• 94	

Highest Acme in Jordan	1,854 M. above Sea level	
Lowest point in Jordan, the Dead Sea	(- 446) M. below sea level	

*approximated area

Adapted from: (the department of public statistics, Jordan 2013)

3.2.4 Historical Background

Jordan is rich in history and culture, so much so that the country can be considered a huge open museum. For many centuries, its location has made it a centre of civilisation, under the dominion of the Sumerians, Babylonians, Mesopotamians, Nabateans, Greeks, Romans and Persians. Wadi Rum, Petra (the capital of the Nabataean Arabs in Southern Jordan), Jerash, Rabad, Azrak and Ma'an are among Jordan's most famous historic sites.

From the mid-seventh century until the beginning of the twentieth, the land now comprising Jordan remained under the rule of Arab and Islamic dynasties. From 1920 to 1946 it was administered by Britain under a League of Nations Mandate, known from 1921 as the Emirate of Trans-Jordan. In May 1946 the country became the Independent Hashemite Kingdom of Trans-Jordan. Finally, in 1950, it was renamed the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, and in 1957 it terminated its special defence treaty with the UK.

Modern Jordan was founded by King Abdullah I after World War I. It was ruled by his grandson, the late King Hussein, for 46 years from 1953 until his death in 1999. A rational leader, he successfully navigated the challenging pressures from the major powers (US, USSR, and UK), various Arab states, and Israel However, Jordan lost the West Bank to Israel in the 1967 war, and King Hussein permanently resigned Jordanian claims in 1988. In 1994, King Hussein signed a peace treaty with Israel. In 1989, he restarted the parliamentary system and introduced a gradual political liberalisation; political parties were allowed in 1992.

In 1999 King Abdullah II assumed the throne. Jordan has grown into a modern nation that has enjoyed a remarkable measure of peace, stability and economic growth in

recent decades. Municipal elections were held in July 2007 under a system in which 20% of seats in all municipal councils were reserved by quota for women. Parliamentary elections were held in January 2013 and saw independent pro-government candidates win the vast majority of seats (Alrai newspaper, Feb. 2013).

Amman, both the ancient and the modern capital of Jordan, is an expansive city spread over hills. It is one of the oldest continually inhabited cities in the world; despite being essentially a product of the 20th century, it still retains its old world charm. It. Known as Rabbath-Ammon during the Iron Age and later as Philadelphia, the ancient city was once part of the Decapolis League, with a population of nearby 2.3 million people (Department of Public Statistics, 2011).

In present-day, culturally diverse Amman, it is common to find luxury hotels towering over traditional coffee shops where old men meet to play backgammon. Travelers looking to discover old Arabia in Amman will find the souks and bazaars intriguing. There you can find traditional stores that sell handcrafted coffee cups and plates, although the souks are worth visiting for the atmosphere alone. In spite of media reports, Amman is one of the safest and friendliest cities in the Middle East (Al Arab Al Yawm newspaper, 2012).

3.2.5 The Jordanian Economy

Jordan's economy is one of the lowest in the Middle East. Due to insufficient supplies of oil, water and other natural resources, the government of Jordan is heavily dependent on foreign assistance, mainly from the US, its oil rich Arab neighbours, the UK and some European countries. There are several economic challenges, such as high rates of poverty, inflation, a high rate of unemployment, and a huge budget deficit (the annual budgetary speech of Jordanian minister of finance in the parliament, 2012).

Jordan is practically blocked-in and has insufficient supplies of water, so that much of the country is unsuitable for agriculture. It is nowadays discovering means to develop its inadequate water supply and utilise its available water resources more competently, as well as through regional cooperation. Jordan as well depends on outside sources for the most of its energy supplies. During the 1990s its crude oil requirements were encountered through imports from Iraq. Since early 2003 oil has been provided by Gulf Cooperation Council member states. In 2010, Jordan signed a contract with Iraq to continue imports of crude petroleum. Almost 90% of Jordan's natural gas is supplied by

a pipe from Egypt through the southern seaport city of Aqaba (Robins, 2004; Central Bank of Jordan, 2013).

The global economic slowdown has even further depressed Jordan's GDP growth. The country's economy has constantly been opened to difficult and unfavourable situations and inadequate resources. Nevertheless, there are some natural resources such as phosphate and potash; additionally, tourism plays an important role in generating revenue (Fisher, 2004).

Jordan is categorised by the World Bank as a "lower middle income country". GDP in 2009 was estimated at JD 17,815.6 million or US$ 25,127.1 million, the per capita GDP at current market prices equals JD 2,979.2 or US$ 4,201.9, unemployment is at 12.3%, and the inflation rate is 4.4% (Central Bank of Jordan, 2009).

Jordan's Planning and International Cooperation Minister stated that 2012 was the most terrible year in the last twenty years because of greater energy and electricity generating costs. However, by 2013 Jordanians are expected to feel the beginning of a gradual increase in capital expenditure from grants on development projects which will be launched throughout the country to help overcome energy challenges; at the top of the list is the import of natural gas via Aqaba (Jordan Times, 2013).

Jordan has recently adopted a programme of economic reform. The government took the initiative in 2012to gradually eliminate fuel subsidies, pass legislation targeting corruption, and start tax reform. It has also worked to liberalise trade, getting access to the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 2000, opening up trade, privatising public sector-owned establishments and eliminating fuel subsidies, which in the past few years have spurred economic growth by attracting foreign investment and creating many jobs for Jordanians (King's Letter to the PM, 2011-03-22).

Jordan signed an association treaty with the European Union (EU) and secured its first mutual free trade treaty with the US in 2001; the latter ensures that exports of light industrial goods, mainly textiles and clothes produced in the Qualifying Industrial Zones (QIZ), can enter the US tariff and quota free. Both agreements have helped to drive economic development and growth. Jordan's total exports in 2011 were about $7,700,750,186 while the total imports were $14,913,540,940 (Central Bank of Jordan, 2012).

3.2.6 Political System

Jordan's Organic Law was instituted in April 1928 under the control of Emir (Prince) Abdullah I. It provided for a consultative council (the first parliament), and Jordan's first elections were held in April 1929. This document was transformed after Jordan gained full independence on 25 May 1946, following the ending of the British Mandate.

Jordan is a constitutional hereditary monarchy with a parliamentary system. The ruling monarch is the head of state, the chief executive and the commander-in-chief of the Jordanian armed forces. The king exercises his executive authority through the prime minister and the Council of Ministers, or cabinet. The cabinet is collectively responsible to parliament, the elected House of Deputies which, along with the other wing, the House of Notables (Senate), constitutes the legislative branch of the system. The judicial branch is an independent branch of the government (Articles 1-6, Constitution of the HKJ, 2011).

Jordan's constitution outlines the functions and powers of the state, the rights and duties of Jordanians, the guidelines for interpretation of the Constitution and the conditions for constitutional amendments. It mandates the separation of the executive, legislative and judicial branches of the kingdom. The Constitution specifically guarantees the rights of the Jordanian people, including the freedoms of speech and the press, association, academic freedom, political parties, religious freedom and the right to elect parliamentary and municipal legislatures. Moreover, it shapes the regulation of the government's finances, as well as the enforcement and repeal of laws (Al-Abadi, 2009; The Official Gazette, Jordan 2013).

3.3 The Education System

The improvement of the education system in HKJ can only be defined as dramatic. Starting from nearly zero in the early 1920s, HKJ has utilised a complete, high-quality system in order to improve its human resources. All communities and villages with 10 or more school-going kids are provided with a school, providing people in even the most remote and poorest parts access to education.

Actually, approximately 20.5% of Jordan's total government expenditure goes to education, compared to 2.5% in Turkey and 3.86% in Syria. Moreover, in 2009 UNESCO placed the education system in Jordan 18th out of 94 countries for providing

gender equality in education (4th Educational Development Conference in Jordan, 2011).

According to the Global Innovation Index 2011, Jordan is the third most innovative economy in the Middle East, behind the United Arab Emirates and Qatar. Further, in Jordan there are 2,000 researchers per million people; the top performers in the world were Finland, Iceland, Sweden and Japan with 5,000 researchers per million (Butler, 2006).

3.3.1 School Education

Education in public schools (government schools) is free to all primary and secondary school pupils and obligatory for all kids from the ages of 6 to 15 (grade 1 to grade 10). Jordan has realised above 95% enrolment for its school-age kids. The jordan's education record has demonstrated inspiring by global standards and results from the foresight of the kingdom's leadership who saw, and continue to see, the need to emphasis on building the Jordan's human resource to encounter the future's challenges (A Higher Education Cooperation Scheme between EU Member States Partner Countries, 2007).

The education system in HKJ includes a 12-year complete programme divided into four portions: nursery school, kindergarten, basic and secondary. The basic stage continues from grades 1to10. The secondary part, of two years, is divided into two main streams: a comprehensive secondary education part that ends with a general secondary education examination GSECE, *Al Tawjihi*; and an applied secondary educational stage which consists of specialised vocational programmes to qualify skilled workforce through preparation programmes run by the Vocational Training Corporation and the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2011; Department of Statistics, 2006). Thus, the formal education system is composed of the following stages:

> A compulsory phase for children aged 6 to 15 (grades 1-10)

> A comprehensive secondary education (academic and vocational) and applied secondary education (training centres and apprenticeships) consisting of secondary school (grades 11-12)

> Higher education, either a two-year intermediate-level course offered by community colleges or four years of university-level courses. The student's

attainment on the GSECE is the only criterion for admission into higher education institutes.

One of the main challenges in the education system is that some of there are still persistent problems in this sector. With the steady growth in the number of young people, the Jordanian government has to ensure that the quality of education and the level of skills attained can help the new generation to compete effectively in both national and international labour markets. Currently, there are a number of problems: a gap between skills taught and skills required by employers, leading to high unemployment, and fewer jobs created for Jordanians with limited skills; outdated teaching methodologies; and lack of teachers training (USAID in Jordan 2009).

A recent study indicated that the number of Ministry of Education students was expected to increase by 124,634 between 2008 and 2013. To accommodate this rise in numbers, an additional 3,360 classrooms were required over this time period. The same study revealed an uneven provision of educational infrastructure; for example, there is concurrent excess capacity and wide-scale overcrowding in schools (World Bank, 2009).

To meet the increasing demand for higher education, government expenditure will also have to increase (World Bank, 2009).

3.3.2 Higher Education

Higher education in Jordan began in the 1960s, when several teachers-training institutions were founded all over the country. They prepared the teaching staffs required to satisfy the high demand for school education characterising the second half of the twentieth century. The first public Jordanian university, the University of Jordan, was established in 1962. Yarmouk University followed in 1976, and eight more public universities have been established in different parts of the Kingdom since that date. In 1989 the Council of Higher Education signed the first policy document authorising the establishment of private universities. Amman University, the first Jordanian private university, was established in 1990, followed by twelve more private universities (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2012). Admission to higher education is available to holders of the general secondary education certificate *Al Tawjehi*, who can choose between 2 years community colleges (public or private) and universities (public or private). Their establishing delivered the all-important teaching

staff required to encounter the high demand on school educational services (A Higher Education Cooperation Scheme between EU Member States Partner Countries, 2007).

Community colleges offer specialised, career-oriented development and prepare students for work in middle-level careers in areas such as education, business, IT studies, medicine, pharmacology, hotel and hospitality management, interior design, social work and nursing. These colleges are supervised by and affiliated to Al-Balqa Applied University, a Jordanian public university. They offer specialised two-year programmes in different ranges of study. All community college scholars must pass a comprehensive national assessment at the end of their education. Jordan has 54 community colleges; 24 are private, 14 public and 16 are owned by Jordan's armed forces, the Ministry of Health, the UNRWA, and the Civil Defence Department (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, Jordan 2011).

3.3.2.1 Higher Education Governance

Legislation governing higher education in Jordan was passed on 6th of April 1980. This marked the formation of the Council of Higher Education (CHE) that plans and coordinates higher education in the HKJ and lays down its general policies. The CHE is chaired by the Minister of Higher Education and is charged with laying the foundations and defining the objectives of higher education, and estimating the manpower needed in the various fields of knowledge, including sending students for study outside Jordan (Articles 1-25, Law of Higher Education, 1980, Jordan).

Public universities are governed by the Law of Higher Education (LHE). Every university has a board of trustees, university council, deans' council, faculty council, and a department council. Based on the LHE, the current managerial system in public universities is as follows:

- University Board of Trustees (UBT): the chairman and the members of the board are appointed by royal decree. The board is responsible for developing the strategy of the university, developing general policy, examining and approving the budget, recommending the president to the higher education council, and evaluating the university's and the president's performance.

- University Council: regulations state that each university should have a university council, chaired by the president. Its members are: all vice presidents;

all deans; a member from each faculty elected by the faculty to serve for one year subject to renewal; the directors of two administrative units at the university, appointed by the president for one year; three members from different backgrounds in the local community, recommended by the president and appointed by the Higher Education Council for one year; one student, selected by the president, for one year; and one member from the university alumni, selected by the president, for one year. The university council is responsible for: evaluating university activities and examining the president's annual reports; strengthening the relationship between the university and the public and private sectors; looking into university regulations and plans; and preparing the budget for approval by UBT and the Higher Education Council.

- Deans Council: This council is chaired by the university president. Its members include all vice presidents and deans and it is responsible for appointing and promoting faculty members; approving faculty sabbaticals and other leaves of absence; and approving the curricula of the various faculties.

- Faculty Council: this council is chaired by the dean of the faculty. Its members are all vice deans; heads of all departments of the faculty; a representative from each department, elected by its faculty members for one year; and two members with experience relevant to the functions of faculty, appointed by the president upon the recommendation of the dean, for one year and subject to renewal.

- Departmental Council: Every academic staff member is a member of one of the departmental councils, which form the basic unit in the academic structure of the university. In the department, decisions are made with the participation of all members.

All university presidents must be of Jordanian nationality; they are recommended by UBT, then nominated by the CHE and appointed by royal decree for a four-year term, which is renewable once. Vice presidents and deans are nominated by presidents and appointed by the CHE. Vice presidents have three-year terms, which are renewable once, and deans have two-year terms, also renewable once. Vice deans and department heads are nominated by deans and appointed by university presidents to renewable one-year terms (Law of Higher Education, 1980, Jordan).

3.3.2.2 Universities in Jordan

Currently, there are ten public and twenty private universities in the kingdom. Bachelors and Masters Degrees are offered in both, while Doctoral degrees are confined to public universities, except for the Amman Arab University for Graduate Studies, which is a private university specialised in Master's and Doctoral degrees. Over 240,000 Jordanian students enrol in universities, both public and private, each year, and about 29,000 international students from 87 countries; the total is approximately a quarter of a million. In addition, over 25,000 Jordanian students study abroad basically, in the United Kingdom and United States, and some European and Arab countries (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2013)

The kingdom is also home to a number of international universities such as Columbia University, New York Institute of Technology, German-Jordanian University, The American University of Madaba, and DePaul University (Alrai newspaper, Jordan 2013).

Table 3.5: Public Universities in Jordan (with dates of foundation)

Name of institution	Date Established	Location	Number of Enrolled students	Number of academic staff
The university of Jordan	1962	Amman	42,500	1450
Yarmouk University	1976	Irbid	33,000	860
Mu'tah University	1981	Kerak	16,800	498
Jordan University of science and technology	1986	Ramtha	18.000	820

The Hashemite University	1992	Zarqa	21,000	500
Al-Albeit University	1993	Mafraq	12,000	315
Al- Balqa applied University	1997	Salt	32,000	432
Al- Hussein bin Talal University	1999	Ma'an	8,000	247
Jordan- German University	2005	Amman	3,000	181
Al Tafila university	2005	Tafila	5,500	178

Source: Annual report, Ministry of Higher education and scientific research, (2013)

3.3.2.2.1 The University of Jordan

The University of Jordan was the first Jordanian university, established in 1962. It has applied itself to the advancement of knowledge no less than to its dissemination (University of Jordan, 2012).

In its capacity as a comprehensive teaching, research and community-service institution, the University of Jordan enables its students to choose from a wide range of programmes; more than 3,500 courses are offered by some 18 faculties. Many current and former staff members head important academic, administrative and political establishments in the kingdom; many have served as ministers in a number of government cabinets, as top advisers to the Jordanian leadership, Members of Parliament, and presidents of Jordanian public and private universities (the UJ Golden Jubilee Brochure, 2012).

Many have also offered their services to neighbouring countries, and many teach or have taught at a number of prestigious universities all over the world. Most faculty

members are active participants in conferences, workshops and symposia abroad; and most take advantage of the various research and exchange awards, reflecting a global outlook, progressive thinking and diverse background. The total of the student body for the academic year 2012/2013 is 43,692 students, 64% female and 36% male, while 4,500 students from abroad (more than 75 nationalities) are pursuing a wide variety of undergraduate and graduate programmes (UJ annual report, 2012). Table 3.5 provides the total number of the students enrolled in UJ in the academic year 2009/2010.

At the undergraduate level, students can choose from 59 different programmes in the Arts, Business Administration, Science, Engineering and Technology, Physical Education, Pharmacy, Dentistry, Humanities and Social Sciences, Rehabilitation Sciences and Information Technology. For those interested in graduate education, the university offers 22 Doctoral programmes, 63 Master's programmes, 17 programmes in Higher Specialisation in Medicine, one in Higher Specialisation in Dentistry, five Diploma Programmes, and three interdisciplinary Master's programmes across the wide variety of academic disciplines.

Table 3.6: Grand total of the student body for the academic year 2009/2010

Gender	Figures	Ratio
Male	13640	36.19%
Female	24052	63.81%
Total	**37692**	**100 %**

Source: University of Jordan, Year book, (2010)

3.3.2.2.1.1 Centre of Consultations – University of Jordan

The Centre of Consultations (CoC) is one of the oldest training and consultation institutions in the Arab world, providing comprehensive services with more than 1200 faculty members and experts in various fields and disciplines. The CoC was established in 1981 at the University of Jordan, to enhance the connections between the University of Jordan (JU) and both public and private sectors; its aim is to transfer the principles

and philosophy of JU to serve the local Jordanian society and Arab societies at large (UJ annual report, 2012).

The CoC plays a significant role in providing government and private-sector clients with skills, knowledge and technical expertise. It is an outstanding pioneer and leader in providing training services, consultation and study services through long-term partnership with private and public sector clients in Jordan and the Arab region at large.

The centre offers general training courses and courses in various areas, such as business and management, finance and accounting, computing and technology, secretarial courses, modern languages, graphic design and educational sciences (CoC's Training plan, 2009).

Special (contractual) training programmes are held to meet identified training needs for certain Jordanian or Arab organisations. The centre also provides consultation services for organisations in both public and private sectors, conducted in cooperation with academic staff members in the university. Most of the studies and consultations address technical problems in the industrial sector, feasibility studies, and administration (CoC's Training plan, 2009).

3.3.3.2 The Hashemite University

The royal decree to establish the Hashemite University was issued on 19 June 1991. The Board of Trustees was formed, with eleven members who were specialists and experts in different education-related fields. Teaching at the university started on 16 September 1995. The Hashemite University is located in Zarqa, the second biggest city in Jordan. The total area of the campus is 8519 acres, 15% of which are used for buildings, 25% for planting and agriculture, and the rest (65%) is desert The Hashemite University applies the credit-hour system, which offers students flexibility and freedom in selecting the courses that meet their preferences and their academic, cultural and social aspirations(HU, annual report, 2008).

The Hashemite University's objectives confirmed it as a university committed to excellence in teaching and research. Its grand mission is to offer service and consultation to the local community in addition to the larger society, and to be a cornerstone in the accumulative efforts with other universities in Jordan to enhance academic cooperation between Jordan and Arab nations and between Jordan and the

world. The total number of students in the Hashemite University at the beginning of the academic year 2009/2010 was about 18,000. The university comprises 12 colleges (faculties) and institutes (HU year book, 2011).

3.3.3.2.1 Centre for Studies, Consultation and Community Service

According to the CSCCS year plan, 2010, the Centre for Studies, Consultation and Community Service (CSCCS) was established at 1997 in order to achieve the core mission of the Hashemite University: to meet the needs of society and to respond to the requirements of a rapidly changing world. The aim of the Centre is to contribute in solving real-life problems and the improvement of productivity in private and public sectors at both national and regional levels.

- **The services offered by the CSCCS**

The CSCCS offers two major services: training and consultation services. It conducts training programmes at three locations: one on the campus, another in Zarqa city centre, and the third in Amman city.

- **Training courses**

The centre offers training in three ways (CSCCS year plan 2010):

- General training courses: training programmes in different areas such as management, computer skills, finance and accounting, economics and engineering. These programmes are part of an annual training plan prepared by the centre's staff, or as suggested or requested by concerned parties during the year.

- Special training courses are held to meet identified training needs for certain Jordanian or Arab organisations.

- Conferences, workshops, and seminar events are held periodically and designed to find solutions to specific problems facing business organisations and economic and commercial sectors.

- **Annual training plan**

Training courses are suggested by university faculties and departments, requested by organisations inside and outside Jordan, known from experience to be needed by organisations and individuals, and annual training plans held locally and abroad. This last includes scheduled training courses.

- **Studies and consultations**

In addition to the training services considered as a core activity of the CSCCS, the centre also provide consultation services at the request of Jordanian organisations in public and private sectors. These consultations are conducted in cooperation with academic staff members in the university. Most of the studies and consultations address technical problems in the industrial sector, feasibility studies, and administration (CSCCS year plan 2010).

3.4 Chapter Conclusion

In this chapter the Jordanian context has been discussed; providing detail of the Jordanian geography, demographic aspects, and the cultural and historical background. the Jordanian economy, political system, and educational system including higher education have been introduced and the Training Centres in the two public universities in Jordan have been highlighted.

Chapter Four

Research Methodology

4.0 Chapter Introduction

Methodology talks about "how research should be undertaken, including the theoretical and philosophical assumptions upon which research is based and the implications of these for the method or methods adopted" (Saunders *et al*., 2007, p.481). Research methodology is a systematic and orderly approach taken towards the collection and analysis of data (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Hussey and Hussey (1997) and Taylor and Bogdan (1984) have emphasised that the research methodology is concerned with the ways by which the researcher collects and analyses data in order to answer the research questions and with the entire process of the research. Antony *et al.* (2002) stated that research methodology is very important as it can guide the researcher in the steps that are needed to achieve the objectives of the research. This chapter describes the research methodology that the researcher will employ to meet the research aim and objectives, and answer the research questions.

It also offers the rationale for the chosen research philosophies, approaches, research strategies, methods of data collection and data analysis techniques that will be used in this study.

4.1 Definition of Research Methodology

Research means different things to different people; therefore there is no consensus on how to define research. However, there is agreement that research is a process of enquiry and investigation in a systematic way in order to increase knowledge (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Collis and Hussey (2009) summarise the purpose of research as follows:

➢ To review and synthesise existing knowledge

➢ To investigate some existing situation or problem

➢ To provide solutions to a problem

➢ To explore and analyse more general issues

➢ To construct or create a new procedure or system

➢ To explain a new phenomenon

> ➢ To generate new knowledge

> ➢ A combination of any of the above.

Accordingly, it is clear that systematic research must use appropriate methods to collect and analyse the data.

Definitions of research methodology vary considerably. According to Collis and Hussey (2009), many different definitions of the concept of research methodology have been given. Adam and Healy (2000) stated that methodology is the overall approach, within which are the individual research methods and tools used to meet a given research objective. A clear and unambiguous statement of the research objective is therefore necessary to enable the selection of an appropriate research methodology and data collection techniques.

Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.480) define research methodology as: "Something that people undertake in order to find out things in a systematic way, thereby increasing their knowledge". Likewise, Kruger (2001) defines research methodology as the application of various systematic methods and techniques to create scientifically obtained knowledge. Hence, research methodology is the systematic way in which a researcher uses appropriate methods to collect and analyse data and to properly identify issues to be discussed, in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

Zickmund (2000) views methodology as the procedures for collecting and analysing needed information. Research methodology can be seen as guiding principles for certain knowledge. For such principles to be effective, they must fit both the problem under consideration and the ultimate presumptions held by the creator of knowledge (Arbnor and Bjerke, 1997).

4.2 Types of Research

Collis and Hussey (2009) categorise research according to its purpose, listing the following types: exploratory research, which is conducted to examine a problem or issue when there are very few or no earlier studies which can be referred to; descriptive research, which describes phenomena as they exist; analytical or explanatory research, which is a continuation of descriptive research; and predictive research, which aims to generalise from the analysis by predicting certain phenomena on the basis of hypothesised general relationships. The present research is an explanatory and

exploratory study whose aim is to investigate and identify the factors which influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in the public universities in Jordan.

Hussey and Hussey (1997) and Collis and Hussey (2009) classified research according to:

- The purpose of the research - the reason behind conducting it.
- The process of the research - the way in which the researcher will collect and analyse the data.
- The logic of the research - whether moving from the general to the specific or vice versa.
- The outcome of the research - whether trying to solve a particular problem or make a general contribution to knowledge.

According to Easterby-Smith *et al*. (2004), research can be classified into three categories: pure research which is intended to lead to theoretical development; applied research which is intended to solve specific problems; and finally, action research which should lead to change.

4.3 The Research Model

In this section the research model which will be adopted for this study is discussed in detail. Issues related to the research philosophy, research approach, research strategy, data collection and data analysis are discussed in detail. The model of the research is illustrated in Figure 4.1 below.
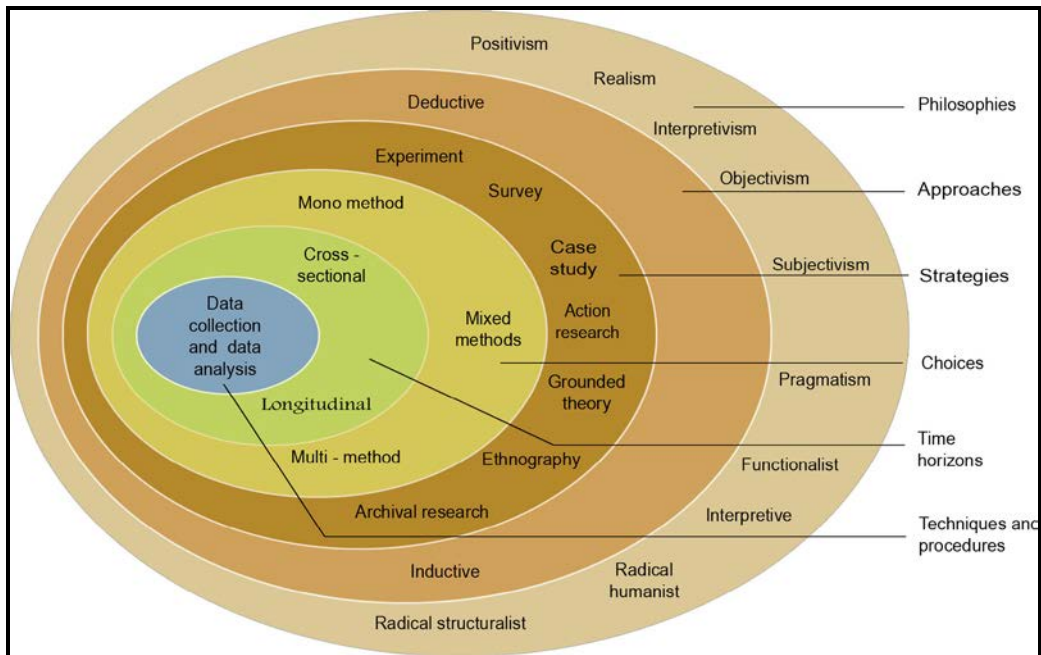
Figure 4.1. The Research Model.

Source (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p. 102)

Figure 4.2 summarises the research design that will be used for this study. It consists of a number of considerations which include the research philosophy, approach, strategy and data collection methods. These are discussed in the next sections and their relevance to this research is examined in detail to allow relevant choices to be made.

Research Philosophy

Research Approach

Research Methodology

Data Collection Methods

Semi- structured Interviews,
Documentations, Archival Records

Case Study

Inductive and deductive

Phenomenological
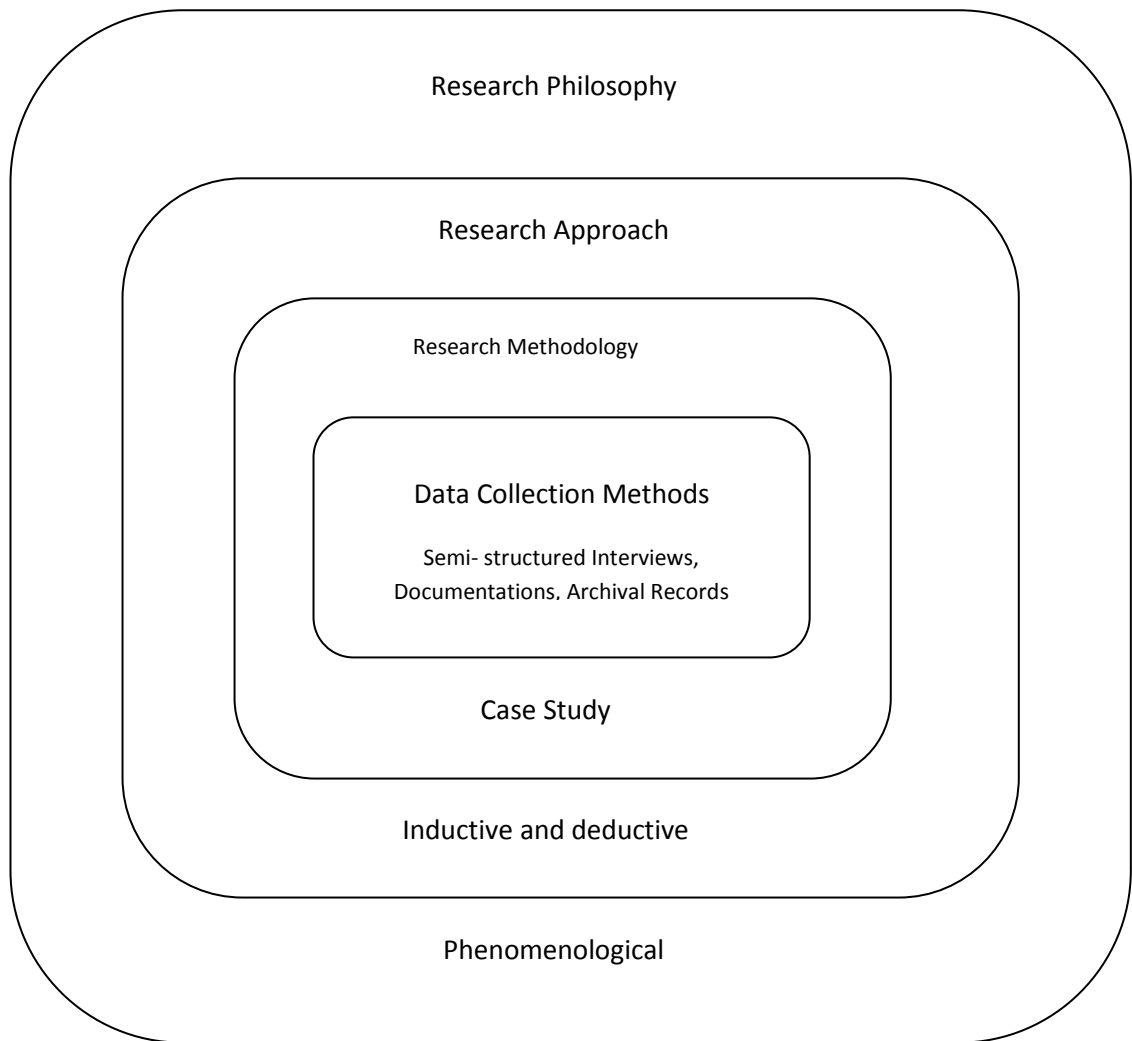
Figure 4.2: The Research Design Framework

Source: Adapted from (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p. 102)

4.4 Research Philosophy

The choice of a research philosophy or paradigm is viewed as a vital step in deciding on the research design. The notion of the paradigm is crucial to research in all fields of study. A paradigm is a very wide conception of the nature of scientific effort within which a given enquiry is assumed (Mangan, 2004).

Gummesson (2000, p.18) stated that the paradigm be presented to the forefront by Thomas Kuhn, at the opening of the 1960s, and can be used to signify "people's value judgements, standards, norms, frames of reference, ideologies, perspectives, myths, theories, and approved procedures that govern their thinking and action". A research paradigm is the fundamental set of beliefs about how the features of the research area fit

together and how individuals can search of it and make sense of their findings (Wisker, 2001).

Philosophy is defined as "the use of reason and argument in seeking truth and knowledge, especially of ultimate reality or of general causes and principles" (Oxford Compact Dictionary and Thesaurus, 1997, p. 557, cited in Collis and Hussey, 2009). In the research paradigm, the two main philosophies are referred to as positivist and phenomenological, or quantitative and qualitative (Collis and Hussey 2003, p. 47). Saunders *et al.* (2003) also refer to these philosophies as positivism and interpretivism, and they comprise views about developing and judging knowledge in order to accept that knowledge.

Saunders *et al.* (2007) emphasise that the research philosophy influences the way in which the researcher views the world and underpins the research strategy. In the same way, Creswell (2003) observed that there is a strong link between the design of the research and the paradigm of scientific inquiry, which sets the philosophical basis for the research. Research philosophy is related to the development of knowledge and the nature of the knowledge; it contains important assumptions about the ways in which the researcher views the world (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2004) emphasised that understanding the philosophical issues is important in helping to clarify research design.

Within the social sciences field there is an ongoing debate to decide the most appropriate philosophical stance, from one extreme of positivism to the other extreme of interpretivism (Easterby-Smith et al 1991; Riege, 2003; Saunders *et al.,* 2007).

Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2004) consider two philosophies in the social sciences; positivism and social constructionism (phenomenological). They describe positivist research as where "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" (p. 28).

According to the positivist philosophy, knowledge in science can only be gained from direct experience and observation, so the emphasis is on quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis, whereas the emphasis in interpretivism is on qualitative observations by which researchers make sense of the social world as humans (Saunders *et al*., 2007; Robson, 2002).

Phenomenology is the science of phenomena, whose focus is on the meaning rather than the measurement of social phenomena (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Collis and Hussey, 2003). Moreover, it is a newer philosophy, based on the idea that 'reality' is not objective and exterior but is socially constructed and given meaning by people. Phenomenology focuses on the ways that people make sense of the world, especially through sharing their experiences with others via the medium of language (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2004).

Collis and Hussey (2009) offer a comparison of the features of the two paradigms (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: A Comparison between Positivism and Interpretivism

Positivism (quantitative) tends to:	Interpretivism (qualitative) tends to:
Use large samples	Use small samples
Have an artificial location	Have a natural location
Be concerned with hypothesis testing	Be concerned with generating theories
Produce precise, objective, quantitative data	Produce rich, subjective, qualitative data
Produce results with high reliability but low validity	Produce findings with low reliability but high validity
Allow results to be generalised from the sample to the population	Allow findings to be generalised from one setting to another similar setting

Source: (Collis and Hussey, 2009, p.62)

In addition, Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2004) affirmed that there has been a trend away from positivism towards phenomenology since the early 1980s, and they summarise the distinction between positivist and phenomenological philosophies as shown in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 Contrasting Implications of Positivism and Phenomenology

	Positivism	**Phenomenology**
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interests	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	Hypotheses and deduction	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspective
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simple terms	May include the complexity of 'whole' situations
Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2004, p.30)

Based on the characteristics of both philosophies and the nature of this research, the researcher will try to gather rich information and increase understanding of the training programmes and human perceptions in order to investigate the factors influencing the quality of training programmes in the training centres in the public universities in Jordan. The phenomenological philosophy will therefore be adopted in this study. This will also enable the researcher to interact with the organisations being studied, so that the he can explore and understand the factors which influence the quality of training programmes.

4.5 Research Approach

The research aims, objectives and questions play a critical role in the selection of the research approach. Consequently, Oppenheim (2000) affirmed that choosing the best approach is a matter of appropriateness.

There are two main research approaches, qualitative and quantitative (Yin, 1994). Qualitative research is based on in-depth information, and quantitative research on large amounts of numerical data that can be generalised (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

4.5.1 Qualitative Research

According to Rudestam and Newton (2001), in qualitative research the researcher will be more flexible in exploring phenomena in their natural environment, rather than being restricted to a relatively narrow band of behaviour. A qualitative approach implies that the data are in the form of words as opposed to numbers; these data are normally minimised to themes and categories and then evaluated subjectively. Taylor and Bogdan (1984) stated that there is more emphasis on description and discovery and less on hypothesis-testing and verification. They add that qualitative researchers seek in-depth understanding of the individual and would argue that experimental and quasi-experimental methods could not achieve the full description of the phenomena. Similarly, Leedy (1993) mentioned that when the data is verbal, the methodology is qualitative. In his comments on qualitative research, Tombs (1995, p.8) stated that "qualitative researchers see themselves as producing data which is rich and deep, in contrast to what they consider to be the more superficial products of quantitative research".

4.5.2 Quantitative Research

The quantitative approach is based on the positivist view of the world in which all phenomena may be analysed scientifically and explained through appropriate scientific analysis, and it has been the dominant tradition within the research community. This ideology of thought believes that social facts are there to be found and can be investigated (Crotty, 1998). Griffin (1985) noted that quantitative procedures generally revolve around codifying such phenomena through a range of methods such as questionnaires or fully structured interviews.

4.5.3 Deductive versus Inductive Approaches

Deduction is the process by which the researcher starts with a theoretical proposition and then moves towards concrete empirical evidence. On the other hand, induction is a process by which the researcher observes certain phenomena and arrives at certain conclusions (Cavana *et al.*, 2001). Table 4.3 illustrates the inductive and deductive approaches in business research. According to Hyde (2000), the inductive approach is a theory-building process, starting with direct observation of specific instances and seeking to establish generalisations about the phenomenon under investigation, while the deductive approach is a theory-testing process which commences with an established theory or generalisation and seeks to establish, by observation, whether it applies to specific instances. Creswell (2003) and Patton (2002) stated that one of the key differences between these approaches lies in how existing literature and theory are used to guide the research. The deductive approach is designed to test a theory; thus, the literature is used to identify questions, themes and interrelationships before data are collected. By contrast, the inductive approach builds a theory as the research progresses; themes are identified throughout the research process and the literature is used to explore different topics. In Table 4.3 Saunders *et al.* (2007) illustrate the major differences between inductive and deductive approaches.

Table 4.3: The major differences between Deductive and Inductive Approaches

Deductive Approach	Inductive Approach
Scientific principles	Gaining an understanding of the meaning humans attach to events

Moving from theory to data	A close understanding of the research context
The need to explain the causal relationship among variables	The collection of qualitative data
The collection of quantitative data	A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as research progresses
The application of controls to ensure validity of data	A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process
The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition	Less concern with the need to generalise
A highly structured approach	
Researcher's independence of what is being researched	
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generate a conclusion	

Source: Saunders *et al*., (2007, p. 120)

Nonetheless, Richards (1993) argues that there is no theory-free research and that all empirical work is based on some fundamental ideas. This point of view is supported by Martin and Cepeda (2005), who note that all researchers begin with some kind of conceptual framework and that it would be impractical for them to enter a field or engage in the research process with no framework or notion about the relevant concepts in the area of interest. Moreover, Saunders *et al.* (2007) and Sekaran (2003) suggest that a combination of deduction and induction is not only perfectly possible within the same piece of research, but is often an advantageous approach, and they affirmed that the

deductive approach owes more to the positivist research philosophy and induction to the phenomenological research philosophy.

Therefore, both approaches are adopted in this research: deduction is used in identifying the common factors identified in the literature which influence the quality of training; then the inductive approach is used in the field. Together, they aim to meet the following objectives:

- To review the relevant literature on training in order to understand training philosophies and theories, and the factors which influence the quality of training programmes.

- To explore and identify the key factors influencing the quality of training programmes in the training centres in the public universities in Jordan.

- To gain an in-depth empirical understanding of the key factors which influence the quality of programmes in the training centres in public universities in Jordan (TCPUJ).

4.6 Research Strategy

A research strategy is a plan of how to answer research questions which will satisfy the research objectives (Saunders *et al.* 2007). Yin (2009) lists five different types of research strategy, as indicated in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4: Relevant Situations for Different Research Strategies

Strategy	Form of research question	Requires control over behavioural events	Focuses on contemporary events
Experiment	How, why	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	Yes

Archival analysis	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	Yes/No
History	How, why	No	No
Case study	How, why	No	Yes

Source: Yin (2009, p.8)

Two definitions of the case study as a research strategy are given by Yin (2009, p.17). The first is a technical definition beginning with the scope of the case study: "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". Secondly, the case study is defined as "a research strategy which comprises an all-encompassing method, covering the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis". According to Yin (2009), case study research is concerned with the interaction of factors and events, and is the preferred design under certain circumstances and for certain research problems. Earlier, Yin (2003, p.12) quoted Schramm (1971) who states that "the case study tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented and with what results". Its great strength is that it allows the researcher to focus on a specific instance or circumstance and to attempt to identify the various interactive processes at work. It is also argued that the case study approach is appropriate for researchers since it gives them the chance to identify the problem to be studied in depth within a limited timescale (Bell, 1999). Denscombe (2003) adds that one of the strengths of the case study strategy is that it allows the researcher to use a variety of sources and a variety of types of data as part of the investigation.

Yin (2009) mentioned three conditions which can be used to select the appropriate strategy for the research:

a) The type of research question posed;

b) The extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events; and

c) The degree of focus on contemporary, as opposed to historical, events.

Case study strategy is appropriate if the researcher wishes to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and the process being enacted (Morris and Wood, 1999); see also (Saunders *et al.* (2007) and Velde *et al.* (2004). Consequently, the case study strategy has been selected to gain an in-depth understanding of the information necessary to identify and investigate the factors influencing the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan. Yin (2003) indicates that the case study is the appropriate strategy when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed. This allows the researcher to determine not only what happened but also why it happened. He also recommends case study strategy when the researcher has little control over the events and when the focus is on contemporary events. This research will answer the research questions "What are the factors influencing the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan?", "How do these factors influence the quality of training?" and "why do these factors influence training?". The event is contemporary and the researcher has no control over the phenomenon of training programmes in the TCPUJ.

In summary and based on the above discussion, in this study the researcher will adopt the case study strategy, as a result of the belief that it is the most appropriate research strategy.

4.7 Selection of Case Studies

Having settled on the case study strategy, the question arises whether to examine a single case or multiple cases. Yin (2009) advises that the single case can be used to determine whether a theoretical proposition is correct or whether some alternative set of explanations may be more relevant. It is also appropriate to use this strategy when the case represents an extreme or unique case. On the other hand, Voss *et al.* (2002) state that, although a single case study can offer greater depth of study, it has limitations as to the generalisability of any conclusions drawn. It could also lead to bias, such as misjudging the representativeness of a single event and exaggerating easily available data. Yin (2009) and Lee (1992) observe that multiple case studies are more common and are generally used to replicate findings or support theoretical generalisations. Indeed, multiple case study research increases external validity and guards against observer bias (Leavy, 1994). Thus, Yin (2003) believes that multiple case studies may be preferable to a single case study and that, where the researcher

chooses to use a single case study, one needs to have a strong justification for this choice.

Despite the opinions of some scholars concerning the absence of specific guides for deciding the number of cases to be included, others believe that the fewer the cases, the greater the opportunity for in-depth observation (Perry, 1998; Voss *et al.* 2002).

As a result of these considerations, two training centres in two public universities in Jordan were selected as case study organisations in order to investigate the phenomenon (management of quality of training programmes). This will help the researcher to improve the external validity, offer more solid evidence and gain in-depth information and understanding.

4.8 Justifications for Choice of Case Studies

The case study organisations are the Centre for Consultation (CC) at the University of Jordan and the Centre for Studies, Consultation and Community Service (CSCCS) at the Hashemite University. They were selected in order to investigate the phenomenon (management of quality of training programmes), the programmes provided by these centres, and so to achieve the research objectives. Yin's (2009, p.63) argument is that "criticisms may turn into scepticism about the ability to do empirical work in a single case study. Having multiple cases can begin to blunt such criticisms and scepticism". Having two cases can overcome such criticisms. According to Blau *et al.* (1996), the strength of the case study is its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence such as documents, interviews and direct observations, beyond what might be available in the conventional historic study. The case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (Yin 2009). The main objective of this study is to gain empirically an in-depth understanding of the factors which influence the quality of training programmes in public universities in Jordan.

Some authors have stated that the most appropriate strategy to use in such research is the case study. For example, Saunders *et al.* (2007) assert that a case study is valuable if the researcher wishes to gain a rich understanding of the context Silverman (2002) argues that accessibility and convenience are grounds which guide researchers in their

selection of the case study, therefore, accessibility is among the criteria the researcher used to select the case study organisations.

The justifications for choosing these particular case study organisations are summarised below:

* The two training centres are located in two public universities. Case study A is the Centre for Consultations (CC) at the University of Jordan, and case study B is the Centre for Studies, Consultation and Community Service (CSCCS) at the Hashemite University. The research is conducted into factors which influence the quality of training programmes provided by the training centres in these two public universities.

* Case study A is the oldest training centre in any public university in Jordan, established in 1981 within the University of Jordan; this is the largest and oldest University in Jordan, located in the capital, Amman. . The centre has wide experience in conducting training programmes and is considered the best university training centre in the country (University of Jordan Year Book, 2009).

* Case study A offers more than 400 training programmes every year, in different areas such as management and business (the focus of this study), finance and accounting, information technology, languages, librarianship, education, computer skills, engineering, law, economics, and some scientific areas. This will help the researcher to gain rich information and data.

* The decision to award the researcher a scholarship from the University of Jordan was based on the topic of the study; this is because the university intends to start implementing a long-term strategic plan to introduce quality practices in academic as well as other activities, programmes and services produced by the university's units. The researcher was strongly encouraged by the Dean of the Business School and the President of the University to conduct this study. Accordingly, case study A is part of the University of Jordan and located in its main campus. In addition, this will facilitate access to data required for the study.

* Case study B has three branches: the main branch is located on campus, the second is located in the city centre of Al Zarka (the second city in Jordan in terms of size and population), while the third is located in Amman. This will give a good opportunity for the researcher to gain rich information that will benefit the research.

* Case B offered a total of 250 training programmes in 2011; these covered a wide range of disciplines such as management and business, finance and accounting, information technology, languages, librarianship, education, computer skills, engineering, law, economics, logistics studies, office management, and marketing and customer care (Annual Training Plan CSCCS, 2011). This will help the researcher to gain rich information and data that will be beneficial to the research.

* Both case A and case B are within the midwest region of the country. This will allow the researcher to contact them easily and will reduce travelling time.

The total number of training centres in public universities in Jordan is seven. The most active centres in terms of the programmes offered and the population in the two areas are the centres chosen for this study, so these are considered the most appropriate, not only for logistical reasons, but for the opportunity to gain more valid data.

4.9 Data Collection Instruments

Primary data refers to the collection of data though interviews, direct observation, participant observation, focus groups, and questionnaires (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Secondary data refers to information which already exists; for example, archival records, company documentation, publications and annual reports.

Oppenheim (1992) describes research means as those used for data gathering and generation. Methods are what researchers use in order to explore, define, understand and describe phenomena, and to analyse the relations among their elements; they are the ways of collecting evidence during data gathering (El-Khatab, 1992). Yin (2009) suggests six major sources of evidence to be used in the case study approach; these are listed in Table 4.5 and are compared in terms of their strengths and weaknesses. He concludes that no single source of data has a complete advantage over others, while the use of multiple sources of evidence can help in clarifying the real meaning of the phenomena being studied. Silverman (1993) and Denzin and Lincoln (1998) also encourage researchers to use more than one method and recognise the value of using multiple methods for the corroboration of findings and to improve the validity of data. Such a multi-methods approach helps the researcher to overcome the possibility of bias associated with any single method (Collis and Hussey, 2008). Golafshani (2003) agrees

that the use of multiple sources of evidence can help substantially in improving validity and enhancing the reliability of the research.

Table 4.5: Strengths and Weaknesses of Six Sources of Evidence

Source of Evidence	Strengths	Weaknesses
Documentation	- Stable: Can be reviewed repeatedly - Unobtrusive : not created as a result of the case study - Exact: contains exact names, references and details	- Retrievability: can be low - Biased selectivity, if collection is incomplete - Reporting bias : reflects bias of the author - Access : may be deliberately blocked
Archival Records	- Same as above - Precise and quantitative	- Same as above - accessibility may be limited for privacy reasons
Interviews	- Targeted: focuses directly on case studies - Insightful: provides perceived causal inferences	- Bias due to poorly constructed questions - Response bias - Inaccuracies: interviewees say what they think interviewer wants to hear
Direct Observation	- Reality : covers events in real time - Contextual : covers context of event	- Time consuming - Selectivity: poor, unless broad coverage - Reflexivity: events may be

		processed differently
Participation/ **Direct** **Observation**	- Same as for direct observation - Insightful into interpersonal behaviour and motives	- Same as for direct observation - Bias due to investigator's manipulation of events
Physical Artefacts	- Insightful into cultural features - Insightful into technical operations	- Selectivity - Availability

Source: Yin (2009, p102)

Accordingly, this research combines semi-structured interviews, direct observation, document review and the examination of archival records, aiming to benefit from the strength of each method to obtain a wide variety of data as well as gaining an in-depth understanding of the subject.

4.9.1 Interviews

Amaratunga *et al.* (2002. p4) provide a definition of the qualitative research interview as one "whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena", while Saunders *et al.* (2007) describe an interview as a purposeful discussion between two or more people. This method provides valid and reliable data which are relevant to the research purposes. Indeed, Yin (2009) states that interviews are one of the most vital sources of information in case studies; they are a valuable technique for obtaining data, particularly in the case of a qualitative case study approach. Interviews are associated with both positivistic and phenomenological methodologies, and may be face-to-face, voice-to-voice or screen-to-screen; conducted with individuals or a group of individuals. The interview is claimed to be "the best method of gathering information" (Easterby-Smith *et al.,* 2004). As for the different types of interview, Sekaran (2003) states that unstructured ones are usually conducted to obtain definite ideas about what is and is not important and applicable to a particular problem or situation. While it is true that

structured interviews may provide more in-depth information about specific variables of interest, in a semi-structured interview the researcher can clarify uncertainties and ensure that, on one hand, the respondents understand the questions, and on the other that their responses are clear.

The use of the interview as a data collection instrument has many benefits, such as:

1. It increases certainty. In line for the direct communication between interviewer and interviewee it allows the scholar to explain the objective of the research more easily and to explain doubts or to avoid any confusion of the concepts or questions (Oppenheim, 1992).

2. It permits the scholar to enquire more complex questions and it considers non-verbal communication, such as feelings, behaviour, attitudes and the facial expressions of the interviewee. Thus it might permit a higher degree of sureness in the responses than some other methods (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

4.9.1.1 Justification for Choosing Semi-Structured Interviews

The use, in this study, of the semi-structured interview as part of a qualitative approach and case study strategy, is supported by many contributions in the literature, including that of Ghauri and Granhauge (2005, p. 86) who note that "qualitative methods use relatively more qualitative techniques, such as conversation and in-depth semi-structured interviews". This point of view is shared by Patton (2002), who suggests that the data in qualitative research might include transcripts of in-depth interviews, direct observations or document review. Of particular relevance to the present research are the assertions of Sekaran (2003) and Oppenheim (2000) that in-depth interviews can help researchers to understand the connotations of people's activities and that this allows the researcher to explain the purpose of the study and to clarify any doubt or avoid any misunderstanding. In contrast to an unstructured or conversational approach, a number of pre-determined questions have to be explored, rather than leaving the respondents to talk generally about the research problem.

The semi-structured interview is the most appropriate method for this research, since the aim is to identify and investigate the factors which influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan. This choice is supported by researchers such as Yates (2004), who consider that the interview is a good way of

exploring participants' subjective meanings. The interviewer can tailor questions to the ongoing concerns of the participants, who can talk about things the interviewer might not have thought about before; this may be of particular benefit to the study.

Saunders *et al*. (2007) also argue that semi-structured and in-depth interviews are used in qualitative research not only to reveal and understand the 'what' and 'how', but also to place more emphasis on explaining the 'why'. The present research focuses on words rather than numbers, on interactions and behaviour, on people's experiences and attitudes. Since it is sometimes complicated to deal with sociological analysis, it seems that the interview method is suitable for application to this study. According to Jankowicz (2005), the semi-structured interview allows the flexibility required for such a study, as the researcher would not be able to use the same questions at each interview. Finally, Hakim (2000) holds that in-depth interviews can also reveal the reasons for any discrepancy between stated attitudes and actual behaviour.

4.9.2 Documentation

Mason (2004) describes the study of documentation as a research method that many qualitative researchers consider meaningful and useful in the context of their research strategy. Documentary information is likely to be relevant to every case study topic (Yin, 2009). To obtain reliable data, documentary evidence will be used in this research to increase the reliability of the data produced from interviews. The documents and records relate to annual training plans, including the regulations governing the training activities, management review results, quality documents and records, quality policy, records of the organisational structure, job description documents and training files.

The researcher will examine both case studies' documents and reports including the annual training plans, as well as examining documentary records showing the ways in which the training programmes have been designed, implemented, and evaluated. All such documents and reports will be reviewed in detail in the findings, for each of the case studies.

4.9.3 Direct Observation

Sekaran (2003, p.254) recommends observational studies as a means to "provide rich data and insights into the nature of the phenomena observed", while Delbridge and Kirkpatrick (1994) list some benefits of direct observation, such as the ability to see

how documents and records are actually handled and processed, and how different processes interact. Moreover, Gill and Johnson (2002) state that the direct observation method can be divided into four types: complete participant, complete observer, observer as participant, and participant as observer. To choose among them, the following factors should be considered:

- The purpose of the study

- The appropriateness of the research questions and objectives.

- The time of the study.

- The suitability of the participant in the direct observation: personal flexibility, organisational access and ethical considerations.

The researcher will use formal direct observation such as visiting training departments in the two training centres and observe the procedures involved in preparing training programmes. He will also use less formal direct observation methods such as observing employees' behaviour in dealing with customers (trainees, employers and trainers). In addition, the researcher will join some training programmes to observe the trainers' behaviour in dealing with trainees and how they conduct the training events. In applying both formal and less formal direct observation, care will be taken to respect ethical considerations, to minimise problems and to complete the procedure of organisation of the case study.

4.9.4 Archival Records

As noted by Yin (2009), archival records are relevant in many case studies. These include organisational and personal records, maps and charts, lists of names and other relevant items, and survey data. The researcher will examine records showing the history of the organisations, their establishment and structure. Such archival records will be reviewed in detail in the findings chapter, for each of the case studies.

Based on the above discussion, the researcher will use face-to-face interviews as the main source of data; and documentation, direct observations and archival records as secondary sources of data. See Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Multiple Sources of Evidence

The Theme	Primary Data Source	Triangulation of Data Source
Designing training programmes.	Interview	Documentation, archival records
Implementation	Interview	Documentation, observation
Evaluation	Interview	Documentation
Equipment	Interview	Observation
Trainees	Interview	Documentation
Administrative factors	Interview	Documentation, archival records

4.10 Structure of the Interview Protocol

The following sections describe the process of generating and developing the interview questions, preparing the interview protocol, translating the interview questions, and conducting the pilot study.

4.10.1 Generating and Developing the Interview Questions

The main function of the questions that will be asked in the interviews is to gather in-depth information and enough data to achieve the main aim and objectives of the study. The researcher has generated and developed questions concerning the factors which influence the quality of training (Appendix 1). The literature review was the main source for forming the interview questions. The researcher will also take into account the techniques suggested by Collis and Hussey (2008, p.126) regarding the language used in interview questions, such as: "Beginning the questions with 'how', 'what' and 'where'. Reading what has been done in similar research studies. Using a single focus

and specifying the research site. Using open-ended questions without reference to the literature or theory, unless otherwise dictated by the research designs".

4.10.2 Preparing the Interview Protocol

The researcher will take some steps before conducting the case study interviews. First, he will discuss the interview protocol (Appendix 1) with his supervisor (an expert in qualitative methodology and on the subject of quality) and with other PhD students working on related subjects; this which will strengthen the validity of the interview questions and ensure that the key areas of enquiry are covered. A decision will then be made as to the management levels at which the interviews should be conducted. It was decided to interview trainers, managers and coordinators at two levels in each of the two cases in order to gain in-depth information and to collect different views about different factors. 14 interviewees were training coordinators, including two departmental directors and one assistant director, 16 trainers brought the total number to 30. The total number of training coordinators in case A is 10, two of whom were on medical leave and one excused from interview, bringing the available number to seven; in case B the total number of training coordinators is six, and all of them were interviewed. Quality issues are the responsibility of all people within any organisation; the trainers and training administrators are well educated, so the researcher is convinced that they will provide data to enrich the findings. Further, covering these parties should enhance the validity of the interview data by obtaining responses from different points of view. Data collected by the interviewer will be recorded by note-taking or tape-recording (Yates, 2004); this will enrich the outcome of the research, give confidence in the accuracy of the interview process and ensure the reliability of the research in general. Details of the levels are given in Table 4.7

Table 4.7: The Levels of Respondents

Level of Interviewees	Identification Details
Training management	* Heads of training departments * Training coordinators

Training specialists	Trainers

4.10.3 Translating the Interview Questions

Because the research was conducted in an Arab speaking country, the researcher translated the interview questions into Arabic. In order to assure the accuracy and precision of the questions, he relied on Arabic/English lecturers who also had some knowledge of the management domain. The reason for translating the interview questions into Arabic was to ensure that the interviewees could share with the researcher the objectives of the work. This method is recommended by Fontana and Frey (1994, p.371), for whom the "use of language is crucial for creating participatory meanings in which both interviewer and respondent understand the contextual nature of the interview". Then, the researcher will translate all the interview transcripts back into English. Again, the translations will be revised by Arabic/English translation lecturers as well as a number of PhD students of Arabic linguistics, to ensure their correctness.

4.10.4 Conducting the Pilot Study

Piloting interview questions is an important issue in research. Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.606) define a pilot study as: "a small-scale study to test a questionnaire, interview checklist or direct observation schedule, to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of the questions' validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected".

Many scholars mention the importance of the pilot study in conducting research. Thus, Yin (2008, p.79) considers that "the pilot case study helps investigators to refine their data collection plans with respect to both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed", while Oppenheim (2000) states that its function is not only to collect findings but also to test questions and procedures.

Gill and Johnson (1997) stated that a pilot study provides feedback to the researcher that may be used to develop more accurate and clear questions to be utilised in the real interviews. Moreover, Jankowicz (1995) stressed that the pilot study is the last opportunity before making the commitment of time and effort involved in data collection.

Three pilot studies were conducted by the researcher with the two levels of respondents (Table 4.7) to check the interviewees' understanding of the research issue and to test the interview questions. The pilot study also provides the researcher with excellent feedback on the suitability of the questions used in the real case studies, and enhances the validity of the questions which will be asked in the interviews.

Having finished the pilot interviews, the researcher spent eight days reading the transcripts and ensuring that the questions were sufficient to collect the required data. Finally, the researcher consulted two academics who are specialists in English literature and linguistics to proofread and endorse the final translated version of the interview questions.

Regarding the number of interviews required for qualitative or case study research, Patton (2002) and Oberle (2002) argue that there are no rules governing sample size, and that it depends on the purpose of the study and the time and resources available. Accordingly, the total number of interviewees was 29, determined according to:

- What was agreed between the researcher and the centres' administration as appropriate to achieve the research aim and objectives; the centres' administration determined the dates and times of interviews. The administration sent e-mails to some of interviewees and invited others by telephone, in which they explained the purpose and themes of the proposed interviews. Some agreed to be interviewed, while others refused, claiming that they did not have enough time for interviews; some said they did not want to be interviewed for personal or other reasons.

- The availability of each interviewee to attend the interviews and their ability to answer the questions. Some of the interviewees answered only some of the questions, while others answered all of them.

- The amount of repetition in the answers obtained during the interviews.

The interviews will be arranged at times convenient to the interviewees. Most interviews will be conducted on the case study organisations' premises to allow the researcher access to the appropriate documents. Subsequently, the researcher will follow the protocol to give confidence in the accuracy of the interview process and to increase the reliability and validity of the research.

4.11 Ethical Considerations

The University of Salford's ethical policy obliges researchers to apply for approval before conducting field studies. Cooper and Schindler (2008, p. 34) defined research ethics as the "norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others". The researcher had already received approval from the panel of ethics, and to ensure the complete satisfaction of the respondents, the interviews were conducted according to the following conditions:

- They were held at times convenient to the interviewees.

- The approval of interviewees was obtained before interviews took place.

- They had the right to halt them at any time.

- They were informed of the purpose of the research before the interviews.

- The confidentiality of their personal data was guaranteed in advance.

4.12 Data Analysis

As Yin (2009) observes, the overall goal in data analysis is to treat the evidence fairly, produce compelling, analytic conclusions and rule out alternative interpretations. Saunders *et al.* (2007) affirmed that because of its nature, there is no standardised approach to the analysis of qualitative data. Bryman (2004, p. 398) noted, that "Clear-cut rules related to how qualitative data analysis should be achieved have not been established". Many strategies exist in this respect, although an analytical strategy is commonly used (Hussey and Hussey 1997). Taylor and Bogdan (1984) stated that all researchers develop their own ways of analysing qualitative data, and Yin (2003) noted that analysis consists of examining, categorising, and tabulating data; however, Flick (2007) added that the objective of qualitative data analysis is to identify, examine, compare and interpret patterns and themes. As such, 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).

In this research, the researcher will begin the analysis after finishing the field work (data collection), using the following procedure:

1. Translating the interview transcripts from Arabic into the English language. The translation will be revised by some Arabic PhD students and linguists to ensure the correctness of translation.

2. Reading through all interview transcripts, notes, tapes, documents and other data, to become intimate with the data as recommended by Huberman and Miles (2002), who stated that prior to sifting and sorting data the researcher must familiarise himself with its diversity and gain an overview of the gathered material.

3. Categorising the collected data, and then classifying them further into meaningful categories. This process reveals two main categories. The first phase will be on the basis of the organisational structure, at which point the respondents in both centres are divided into two levels, training management and training specialists. By classifying respondents in this way, it becomes much easier to understand and control the raw data (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). The second categorisation phase will be mainly based on the pre-determined theoretical factors which influence the quality of training programmes. Saunders *et al.*, (2003) argued that researchers who adopt analytical strategies toward qualitative data can commence deductively, where data categories are derived from theory.

4. Unitising the data, which means attaching relevant bits or chunks of data referred to as units of data, to the appropriate category or categories as mentioned previously. A unit of data could be a number of words, a sentence, a paragraph or sometimes a complete answer to a particular question asked in the interview. At this stage transcripts will be copied, cut up and placed into files, each containing piles of related units of data corresponding to a particular category (Saunders *et al*., 2003). During this stage of the analytical process, the researcher will begin to reduce and rearrange the data into manageable and comprehensive form (Easterby-Smith *et al*., 1991; Saunders *et al*., 2003).

5. In this step, two matrices will be created, one each of the two case studies. Each matrix will be organised to contain (horizontally) the respondents, and (vertically) the factors; see Appendices 4-7.

Yin (2009) stated that five analytical techniques are used for case study analysis: *Pattern Matching, Explanation Building, Time-Series Analysis, Logic Models, and Cross-Case Synthesis.*

> **Pattern Matching:** the pattern matching method is used to compare an empirically-based pattern with a predicted one. If the case matches the predicted patterns then the case supports the theory in the same way as successful experiments support a theory. If the pattern coincides, the results can help to strengthen the internal validity of a case (Yin, 2009).

> **Explanation-building:** explanation-building is a special type of pattern matching. The goal of this technique is to analyse the case study data by building explanations about the case (Yin, 2009). Yin (2009) also suggested that in explanation-building processes, the findings are compared to any statement or proposition created.

> **Time-Series:** the time-series technique is a special and more rigorous case of process tracing, in which the researcher attempts to establish the existence, sign and magnitude of each model link expected, and the sequence of events relating to the variables in the model (De Vaus, 2002). Yin (2009) argued that if the events over time have been traced in detail and with precision, time-series analysis techniques may be possible.

> **Logic Model:** the logic model intentionally specifies a chain of events over an extended period of time. The events are in a repeated cause-effect-cause-effect pattern, whereby a dependent variable (event) at an earlier phase becomes the independent variable for the next phase. This process can help define the sequence of programmatic actions that will accomplish the goals (Yin, 2009).

> **Cross-Case Synthesis:** cross-case synthesis is a technique especially relevant to research consisting of at least two cases. This technique treats each individual case study as a separate case (Yin, 2009).

Based on the above description and discussion of different strategies used for qualitative data analysis, the researcher adopted the explanation-building strategy as a data analysis method.

After finishing the process, the researcher will continue to explore key themes and patterns or relationships among the data units. In addition the researcher will consult other sources of data collected during the fieldwork, such as training plans, design, evaluation methods and documents, statistics, and any related archival documents. This will be for the purpose of triangulation to enhance clarification of the issues and themes under investigation.

4.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the methodology applied to meet the research aim and objectives of the study. It considered which philosophical paradigm to adopt and came out in favour of the phenomenological tradition. It discussed whether to use a qualitative or quantitative approach; choice of the former, with the semi-structured interview technique, was rationalised by reference to the nature of the objectives to be realised and the character of the research population involved. A full description of the conduct of the fieldwork was presented, with and clear information regarding the data collection and analysis. The next chapter discusses the findings that emerged from the analysis.

Chapter Five

Research Findings

5.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present and analyse the data collected from the case study organisations in the University of Jordan and the Hashemite University. Interviews were conducted with targeted respondents, as stated in Chapter Four. Semi-structured interviews comprised the main source of data for the case studies, while supporting data was obtained from documents, direct observation and archival records. The findings from the triangulation of these four methods were used in addressing the research questions and thus achieved the aim and objectives set out in Chapter One. Appendix 2-3 list the interview questions used in both case study organisations. The rationale for using semi-structured interviews as the main source of data collected was stated in this chapter.

The interview questions were designed to collect in-depth information on the following factors which influence the quality of training programmes:

- Design of training programmes.
- Implementation of training programmes.
- Evaluation of training programmes.
- Equipment used in training programmes.
- Trainees' expectations, skills, knowledge and experience.
- Administrative factors.

These factors will be considered in both case studies finding in the following sections. The interview times were arranged to be convenient to all the respondents. A total of 30 interviews were held. The time allocated varied from one interview to another according to the availability of each interviewee; despite the arrangements that had been made, there were delays caused by interruptions or postponement of pre-arranged interviews either by the respondent or the researcher. The average time was about one and a half hours. The interviews were conducted on the four sites of the two case study organisations, which was both convenient for the interviewees and allowed the researcher to access the appropriate documents.

This chapter contains, in addition to the introduction, sections on characteristics of respondents; findings from interviews conducted with trainers and training administrators, and a summary of the chapter.

5.1 Characteristics of Respondents

During the field work, the researcher interviewed 15 individuals in Case A, and 15 individuals in Case B.

The interviewees represented two groups in each case: first, training administrators at two levels, the directors of training departments and the training programme coordinators. The second group comprised trainers. The researcher decided to include respondents from both groups in order gain further in-depth information.

In Case A, there was one department director, one assistant director, five training programme coordinators and eight trainers; in Case B, there were one director, six training programme coordinators and eight trainers. Table 5.1 shows the groups and number of interviewees in the two case study organisations.

Table 5.1 Interviewees in case study A and B

Interviewees	No. of Interviewees Case 'A'	No. of Interviewees Case 'B'
Trainers	8	8
Training Administrators: • Training programmes coordinators. • Directors of Training Departments.	5 2	6 1
Total	15	15

5.2 Case A Findings

This section presents the findings from case study A for the two groups, trainers and training administrators.

Trainers

5.2.1 Designing Training Programmes

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the training programme design process, the researcher asked many questions of the trainers.

The programmes implemented by the trainers cover many topics, such as: leadership skills, public relations, human resources management, accounting, office administration, communication skills, time management skills, marketing, managing higher education institutions, strategic planning, financial and accounting management, preparing and writing Managerial reports, decision making and problem solving. The total number of programmes was nearly 90. The respondents' training experience ranged from one year to twenty years.

Meanwhile, the researcher examined documents. The annual training plan for 2011 issued by the Centre of Consultation revealed that the centre offered more than 120 training programmes covering many areas of management, finance and accounting. The plan was designed to provide interested individuals and organisations details about the programmes offered, including the hours, dates, location, and fees for registration.

Regarding the preparation of the training programme plans, two-thirds of the respondents (the trainers) set the training programme plans (schedules), which include each programme's general objectives, content, sessions and breaks. They admitted to using the same plan in the case of repeated programme, and added that this kind of plan is necessary for the participants to know the topics introduced throughout the programme. Table 5.2 shows some training programmes offered by case A.

Table 5.2 List of some training programmes in case A

Training Subject	Training Hours	Duration
Advanced skills in office management	40hrs.	3 weeks
Modern trends in Human resource management	45hrs.	3 weeks
Basic skills for secretary	35hrs.	3 weeks
Decision making and problem solving	60hrs.	4 weeks
Financial analysis methods	30hrs.	2 weeks
Time management skills for mid- level managers	25hrs.	9 days

They also reported that they resort either to lists of contents in text books or to other articles and studies to help them in preparing the content of the programmes. Three of the participants said that they *"use the internet in designing these (plans) through copying the training programmes content implemented in Arabic language at other centres inside or outside Jordan"*.

In contrast, five of the respondents claimed not to make any kind of plans for the programmes they implement. Rather, they consult existing plans from the centre's archives, re-type them and put their names to them. They justify they being unable to set up their own plans either because of time constraints or because they are unfamiliar with this activity.

In this respect, one of the respondents said: *"Through my experience in this field for three years during which I have implemented seven training programmes, the issue of the training programmes plan is a secondary issue and unimportant, and I did not find a serious follow up from the centre's administration regarding this issue, so I do not care about this, the only thing that I do is copy a previous plan for a similar programme and I distribute it to the participants"*.

The researcher saw some documents containing evidence regarding formats (schedules) of previous training programmes conducted over the last two years and referred to by most respondents. These documents (forms) are similar in their design and content, in terms of the objectives, subjects, training hours, training methods, and equipment used.

All the respondents affirmed that they have no communication with the training programme participants' supervisors as they were not asked or encouraged to make contact with them. Also they think that this task is not their duty or speciality; rather, it is the duty of the centre's administration and the training programme coordinators. Nor do they perform any diagnosis or assessment of the participants' training needs because their task is implementing the training programmes, not to conduct a survey of needs.

Regarding selection of the participants, the majority of trainers confirmed that they play no role in terms of quantity or quality, because of the classic participation mechanism and the registration procedures for the training programmes. The centre announces the courses and those wishing to participate, and their employers make contact with the training coordinators to register the name(s) of participants.

In contrast with these general comments about the role of trainers, one of the respondents commented: *"Once, I was asked by the training coordinator to design a training program in the field of financial auditing, I did that and I determined the number of the participants in the programme, the minimum level of their scientific qualification and the practical experience of each of them. It is very important to do this because the nature of this programme and the lecture, case study, exercises, and group discussions as methods used to provide and communicate the content and the training material to the trainees, required a limited number of participant, and minimum levels of work experience and scientific qualification".*

He added that when a training programme is imposed on the trainer in this way, he accepts it and does not expect the right to reject it since he wants to keep in contact with the centre; this will guarantee continuity in the training and obtain extra income. At the same time it is a prestigious reward to be a trainer in the Centre of Consultation at the University of Jordan, the oldest and the most famous university in the country. In addition to the opportunity to gain good experience in the field, this means more work opportunities in training institutions in Jordan and in the Arab Gulf countries.

The documents examined by the researcher did not indicate any kind of communication between the trainers and/or training coordinators on the one hand and the trainees' supervisors and/or employers on the other.

5.2.2 Implementation of Training Programmes

As the literature explained, implementation plays a significant role in the quality of training programmes; the researcher therefore asked several questions and sub-questions to gain an in-depth understanding of the implementation of the programmes and the role of the trainers in this process; see Appendix 2.

Concerning the training methods used by trainers, most respondents affirmed that they use the lecture as the only method to introduce the training material. They prepare each topic to be introduced, write the main points on the blackboard, and then explain them in detail; each participant has a copy of the training material distributed by the training coordinator on the first day of the programme.

Two of the respondents stated that they allow the participants to ask questions at the end of each session.

The majority of respondents were used to implementing the lecture method in training, because they believe it is the best method to introduce and communicate the training material to trainees. One of them said: *"Over six years of my work as a trainer, I always use the lecture method in the training programmes. I think it is a popular and a widespread method, and easy to deal with. I did not try to learn any other method, and no one at the centre asked me to use a specific training method"*.

On the other hand, another trainer emphasised that: *"Using multi methods in the training programmes I had implemented or am implementing currently, these methods include the lecture, the case study, role playing, and brainstorming as training methods in order to increase the participants' abilities to comprehend and gain the information and the skills included in the training programme, also to increase the participants' motivation to interact and participate positively through the training sessions; this will help in developing the participants' personalities and increasing the interest in the training programme. Moreover, the internet helped me in preparing the exercises and the cases I have used in these training programmes"*. He added that he acquired these skills through attending a training programme held in a European country three years ago, and received a "professional trainer certificate" from the institute in question.

The researcher attended a training session in Case A, in the field of public relations, and researcher observed that the lecture was the only method used. He also found that the wall-fixed board was the only equipment used by the trainer to explain concepts and content of the training material.

Regarding the barriers encountered and negatively affecting the implementation of the training programmes, the reasons for these barriers, and how to overcome them, all the respondents agreed that the main obstacles that they encounter is the insufficient and old-fashioned equipment such as overhead projectors also, most of the venues are unsuitable for most programmes. No specialised technician is available to maintain and repair the equipment.

All respondents agreed that the other major obstacles encountered were the differences in the educational level, work experience, and other qualifications among participants, which negatively affect the acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities, and even interaction in the training sessions. Some of the participants were careless and not serious about the training programme, for several reasons summarised by the

respondents as: first, the absence of follow-up by the employers and/or the supervisors of the participants; second some of the participants had no confidence in the programme because they were not free to select the one that would satisfy or meet their training needs. This happens when the participation in a programme is the result of either a hasty decision to send the employee on the course, random placement of the participant, or mistaken judgments by the trainee's supervisor or even the trainee himself. Finally, there are no materialistic or functional consequences (rewards) related to and resulting from participation in the training programmes.

Another obstacle mentioned by the majority of respondents is absence or late attendance at training sessions, because of the distance from the participants' work place to the training venue, or because the timing of the programme is unsuitable, for social, family, functional or cultural reasons.

The researcher accessed documents providing evidence of the absence of participants from training sessions, which documents indicated that the absence rates were 35% on average in 12 training programmes conducted in the previous three months. The researcher also saw for himself the late attendance of some participants; for example in one session, four participants were late by 10-25 minutes and three were absent altogether, out of a total number of 11 participants in the programme. The researcher was also shown registration documents for various training programmes, indicating the clear differences in qualifications, experience, and work and education backgrounds among participants.

Regarding communication with the participants' supervisors, the majority of the respondents affirmed that there was none at any stage of the training programmes they implemented. They attributed this lack of communication to several factors, such as the lack of a specific policy encouraging communication between the trainers and participants' supervisors, and therefore the absence of appropriate mechanisms for this kind of communication.

Interestingly, only one of the respondents said*: "Communication took place between me and the supervisor of two of the participants on the last day of the programme, through a telephone call, when the supervisor asked me about the extent of those participants' commitment regarding attendance; the supervisor wanted to make sure that they (the two participants) are not absent, because he gave them a leave for four*

hours a day to attend the programme and these hours are not discounted from their vacation's account".

As part of the researcher's archival investigation, he reviewed one of the files dated from 1 January to 31 December 2010, containing formal letters sent by the administration of the centre to the employers of trainees who participated in the programmes throughout the year. The only issues covered were financial claims to be paid by those employers for their employees' participation in particular training programmes. The researcher found nothing in these letters relating to subjects such as training-needs assessment or feedback from participants.

5.2.3 Evaluation of Training Programmes

Regarding the evaluation of the training programmes, many interviews were conducted in both Case A, the researcher asked several questions in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the evaluation process in the training programmes; see Appendix 2.

Regarding determining the reactions of the participants to the training programmes, all respondents agreed on the importance of knowing and observing these reactions because this could be considered as the basis for measuring the trainers' competencies and the extent of the participants' satisfaction with the training programmes' methods and the training climate, and enables the trainer to make modifications where necessary. It also plays a crucial role for the training centres (training providers) in developing their business and enhancing their competitive advantage.

All respondents indicated that they use at least one method to test reactions. One said that he *"asks questions at the end of each training session as a method to know the participants' reaction",* while two other respondents, stated: *"we use body language as a method to know the extent of their comfort with the programme, in addition to the attendance and the commitment index as indicators to the positive reaction toward the programme, the less the ratio of the participants' absence from the training sessions, the more positive reaction is, and vice versa".* Three other respondents confirmed that they use direct questions in order to learn the participants' opinions regarding the training programme, such as "what is your opinion about what you have heard?"

Another respondent said: *"I try to know the participants' reaction towards the training programme by allocating 10 minutes at the last part of the last training session in the*

programme to discuss the participants' ideas and opinions about the programme, I write down the answers and the notes to be considered by me in the next training programmes, I try to focus on and repeat the positive aspects and avoid the negative aspects".

Regarding the procedures used evaluate the extent of the participants' acquisition of knowledge and skills from attending the programme, all respondents agreed that the only tool used is the training programme evaluation form, designed and accredited by the centre; it includes sections relating to the training content, the trainer, the services provided by the centre and the extent of acquiring skills and knowledge through the programme.

All respondents stated that the form is distributed to participants in the last 15 minutes of the last session of the programme. Each participant is required to answer the questions, and has the opportunity to write a free response at the bottom of the form giving their opinion of the programme and any suggestions they believe are important.

The aim of this evaluation is to learn the opinions of the participants toward the programme, the training material, the trainer and his or her abilities, skills and efficiency, and the services provided by the centre. It also aims to identify the programme's strengths and weaknesses, for the training administration at the centre.

All of the respondents confirmed that it is the training programme coordinator who distributes the form and collects it after completion by the participants.

The researcher attended two final sessions and observed the process of distribution and completing the form. In one session, the trainer was present throughout, but in the other he left the hall. The researcher noticed that the attitude to the form of some of the participants was careless; he saw one participant complete two forms, one for himself and the other for an absent colleague. Two other participants left early, without completing the form.

One of the interviewees said: *"The form or the list used for evaluating the training programmes in the centre of consultation doesn't make any sense, it just means nothing,*

the coordinator collected the filled forms then either put them somewhere or even shredding them".

In contrast, many of the respondents believed that the best means of evaluating the training programme and the extent of its usefulness is by tests, to measure the participants' knowledge and skills before and after the programme. Two respondents added that discussion groups and tests, and answering the questions, are the best ways to evaluate the benefit from any training programme because they actually reflect the volume and extent of the knowledge skills and abilities acquired.

Regarding communication, all the respondents confirmed that there is no communication with the participants' supervisors at the evaluation stage, because the centre does not follow this policy as they do not intend to build a relation between the supervisors and the trainers. One respondent added: *"During my cooperation with the centre over more than five years as a trainer, there was no communication with any supervisor or director of any participant in all of the nine training programmes in Office Management I have taught at the centre".*

5.2.4 Equipment

In order to achieve an in-depth understanding about the equipment used by trainers, in the implementation of training programmes, the respondents were asked a series of questions; see Appendix 2.

The majority of respondents described the equipment available at the centre as overhead projectors, fixed wallboards, data display equipment, flipcharts, tape recorders, video and television, and computers. They indicated that the equipment is relevant to their programmes, and most of them are able to deal with it.

Four of the respondents said that they always use the wallboards for writing and the overhead projectors to present transparencies that include the headlines about the topics, because this type of equipment is easy to operate; they do not want to use other equipment such as PowerPoint or computers because they are not able to handle them or because of the complexity in using them.

Two of the respondents indicated that they use the board; the data display appliances and the computer because they fit the training process and they hold the attention of the trainees. However, one trainer said: *"I only use the board for the explanation because*

it's so simple and easy to use, always available. It becomes familiar to me and I think it is the best equipment for the training programmes, basically, I do not believe in using any kind of the technological tools in training".

Concerning the operation of the equipment, the vast majority of the respondents who use the overhead projector affirmed that they are able to operate it by themselves; they do not like using other equipment such as data display, video or computer because they lack the technical skills needed to operate them. This negatively affects their performance in the training.

One of the respondents added: *"I tend to use the overhead projector because it is easy to operate and deal with, and I always try as much as I can to avoid using any other complex equipment because of the fear of the inability to operate them which causes a lot of embarrassment in front of the participants".*

Another respondent said: *"I see I am unable to deal with the advanced technology because I am not trained to use it, so I avoid using or operating them".* A group of respondents who use the data display and video equipment confirmed that they frequently ask for help from one of the participants in operating the equipment or in solving technical problems; sometimes they ask some of the centres' staff and the programmes coordinators, who are not specialised in this field and functionally not responsible for this task.

One of the respondents stated that *"On the second day of the programme, the overhead projectors lamp blew and I told the programme's coordinator about this, he said he will call the technician from the maintenance department at the university to test the appliance in order to determine the problem then make the purchase order for the defective pieces to be bought, this process took four days to fix the appliance; by the seventh day of the programme the appliance was fixed".*

On the other hand, the majority of the interviewees commented that the amount of audio-visual equipment available at the centre is small, with only three overhead projectors, three data displays, one old video, one television, two tape recorders, and no audio-visual technical assistance. In addition, the centre has no high technology equipment for training purposes, such as the computerised boards, training labs or advanced video presentation equipment.

The researcher observed during the field study that most of the existing equipment is either old or broken, a problem aggravated by the lack of a technician. Moreover, the bureaucracy surrounding maintenance of broken equipment was observed to cause long delays.

Concerning the trainers' selection of equipment, most respondents stated that they determine what they are going to use according to their needs, the availability of the equipment at the centre, and their ability to use it.

In contrast, only one of the respondents indicated that he decides the equipment according to the nature of the programme; he always uses the computer facilities because his programme focuses on electronic office management.

5.2.5 Factors Related to Trainees

According to the literature, trainees' skills, qualifications, work experience and expectations represent major components in the effectiveness of all types of training programme. Appropriate questions were asked, to extract this information; see Appendix 2.

Most respondents affirmed did not know or investigate the expectations of participants, because they were not involved in the process of selection. Also, the trainers assume that when participants register in a training programme, they are aware of the programme's goals and content.

Interestingly, one of the respondents said *"in the first half hour of the first training session and before distributing the printed schedule of the programme I ask a set of questions to find out the expectations of each participant from the training programme and I widely discuss with them and write down the notes and the ideas they propose; this greatly helped me in the training programmes that I implemented to know what the participants desire to be included in the programme, so I adopt the programme through adding topics to the programme's plan or modifying some of them or even deleting some topics with regard to the majority agreement, and I resort to this method because I'm contributing to programme designing stage and selecting the participants to know the participants' expectations; this is a personal effort and endeavour I perform because I'm convinced that it is important and one of the programme's success factors is to considers the participants' expectations and attitudes and the differences between*

them, and this is what I have learned in the training programme that I attended in the field of training of trainers (ToT)".

The researcher concludes from his observations that most trainers are unaware of their trainees' expectations and attitudes in general and their particular needs. According to the documents examined only one trainer hade any training programme related to their profession.

5.3 Training Administrators

The researcher conducted seven interviews in Case A with the training administrators: two with the training department director and assistant director, and five with training programmes coordinators.

The department director holds a Doctorate in business administration and has four years of experience in the department of Business Administration, Business School, University of Jordan. He manages the training department at the Centre of Consultation and teaches on some programmes; in addition, he owns and runs a training centre located near the university.

On the other hand, another seven interviews were conducted in Case B, one with the director of the centre, one with the director of the training department and the other five with training programme coordinators. The director of the training department in Case B holds a bachelor degree in sociology; he was assigned as a department director in December 2011 and transferred to the department of public relations on April 2012. He mentioned that he has no experience in the field of training administration.

5.3.1 Factors Related to Design of Training Programmes

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the training administrators' roles at the design stage of the training programmes, the researcher asked the set of questions detailed in Appendix 3.

All respondents stated clearly that they do not play a significant role in designing the training programmes, regarding the programmes' goals, the number of training hours, methods of training, or training materials. Most of their work is confined to repeating previous programmes with small adjustments such as dates, venues, and names of trainers. They attributed these issues to the unstable situation at the administrative level

of the centre, and the absence of a training strategy or professionalism and institutionalised procedures, or specialised training for coordinators.

Interestingly, when the researcher did access and consult the respondents' files, it was clear that none of the administrators had ever attended any kind of training programmes related to the fields of training management or human resource management.

None of the respondents conducted any survey of training needs for the programme participants, because they believe they are not responsible for this task, and are not specialised in this area.

The assistant director added: *"We accept and register the participant on the basis that he or she or even the employer already knows what they need and what they want, thus, we are not required to make such assessment which at the same time we are not qualified to do"*.

Regarding standards for the number of participants registered on programmes, most respondents stated that the main determinants were the size of the venue, and the minimum number of participants to cover the expected costs and the profit required by the university administration. The researcher examined some documents containing instructions sent by the vice presidents for administration and financial affairs to the centre's director, to cancel any training programme that does not achieve the minimum financial target: the sum of the expected costs plus a net profit not less than 40% of the total revenue for each programme.

Interviewees indicated that trainers are obtained from two sources: inside, from the university's academic and administrative staff; and outside, from the employees of private as well as public sector organisations. All agreed that it is difficult to decide which source is the best, as it depends on many variables such as the nature of the training programme, its timing, and sometimes the expected revenue from the programme (and accordingly the level of salary that can be afforded). In general, each source has its advantages and disadvantages.

The majority of respondents confirmed that the selection process for trainers is based on several factors, including: the previous experience of the coordinators in dealing with certain trainers, in the case of repeated programmes; recommendations from the department director as well as the centre's director; and sometimes personal

relationships. On the other hand, one respondent stated that he tends to use other sources to search for trainers, including the Internet, leaflets distributed by other training centres, and specialised publications such as university year books and databases.

The assistant director of the department stated: *"I have worked at the centre for ten years, eight years of them I worked as a training programme coordinator and nearly two years as the assistant of the department director, most of the time we depend on personal knowledge in the selection of trainers, and at specific times based on recommendations either from the department's director, centre's director or colleagues, our role is limited to announcing the programme, registering the participants in a number that by which we achieve the sufficient financial revenues"*.

As part of his documentary investigation, the researcher reviewed many documents related to the training programmes conducted over the previous three months; nothing was found in relation to any standards and/or criteria governing the selection of trainers. Moreover, it was observed that there is no integrated and organised database of trainers or if it exists, it is out of date and incomplete.

5.3.2 Factors related to Implementation of Training Programmes

In order to understand the training administrators' role in the implementation stage of the training programmes, all the respondents were asked several questions; see Appendix 3.

All respondents indicated that their role in implementation is limited to providing facilities such as the venue, making sure it is ready, providing the equipment called for by the trainer, distributing the registration forms and providing participants with folders containing pens, notebooks and copies of the training material.

The majority of the respondents agreed about the problems raised by both the trainees and the trainers. The most frequent ones were: inappropriate timing of the daily sessions; complaints regarding the weakness of some trainers who could not teach and used old-fashioned training methods; complaints about the venues and inadequate furniture and equipment; complaints about old equipment and the need for maintenance; complaints regarding the lack of parking space; complaints of mistreatment by security staff, at the university gates or to get access to the training centres; poor hospitality; and

complaints regarding the differences in qualifications and experience among trainees and some trainers' inability to control sessions.

The department director stated that the problem most frequently raised by trainers was the continuous complaint about low wages, especially for those from within the university. Higher wages are paid by the many private training centres in Jordan, and there is strong competition between centres throughout the country because of the growing demand for specialist trainers.

The assistant director argued that the work overload on employees in the department caused a lot of problems. The workload required 4-5 training coordinators, with a total of 10 employees; 4 of these were assigned by *wasta*, showing favouritism, rather than on the basis of real need and efficiency, resulting in conflict among coordinators.

Another respondent said: *"The most negative problem encountered is the so-called conflict of interests, some of the employees in the centre have some kinds of relations with training centres in the private sector, sometimes they direct a lot of the potential participants to register in training programmes offered by these centres rather than the centre where they work; it is unethical and affects the performance of the training department"*.

Regarding the way of dealing with the trainers' trainees' problems, most respondents indicated that they depend on their experience to solve them in the traditional way, in a friendly manner. They also listen to the problem, and try to find a solution within the available facilities; in some cases, the higher administration at the centre is informed about the problem and asked to find a solution.

One of the respondents said: *"The trainers and trainees often complain and present problems relating to inappropriate or insufficient provision of hospitality, or they complain about issues at the training hall such as bad air conditioning and heating, and sometimes unavailable equipment for training, or that it is old and inefficient. In addition to complaints relating to the training method, and the trainer's lack of sufficient competence, also we sometimes try to solve the issues that we can solve such as changing the hall, while we overlook the complaints that we cannot deal with and find solutions for them"*.

The researcher was allowed to read participants' registration forms for various programmes; they indicated the clear variations in qualifications, experience, work and educational background among the trainees. He also saw documents containing trainers' demands for increased rates of pay sent to the centre's directors. In addition, he reviewed a document entitled *Complaints from the participants in the skills of financial analysis training programme* which contained participants' notes regarding unsatisfactory hospitality, the low level of the trainer's skills and knowledge, the inappropriate venue, and uncomfortable chairs and tables.

5.3.3 Factors Related to Evaluation of Training Programmes

In order to attain deep understanding regarding the training evaluation process, the questions shown in Appendix 3 were asked.

All respondents stated that they perform the evaluation process using copies of the evaluation form accredited by the centre. This form contains items regarding the trainer, the content of the programme, and the services and logistics provided by the centre. It is distributed by the coordinators at the end of the programme; participants are required to complete it by marking appropriate boxes reflecting their opinion. Space is left at the bottom of the form for them to write any further comments about the programme, including suggestions. The coordinator collects the completed copies and places them in a pre-set file.

The majority of respondents basically agreed about the importance of evaluation for all stakeholders. One confirmed this, provided that it is used for a purpose, and is not just routine. Another respondent said: *"The evaluation is useless and it wastes time because no one in the centre considers it as a tool to get feedback regarding the training we provide, so I don't care about it and I just distribute it to the participant, collect it and then keep it on my desk, finally I cut it and throw it into garbage, and so do many of my colleagues"*.

The researcher examined the evaluation forms and also attended the last session of a training programme. He observed that some of the participants were not serious about the form; one of the participants filled in two forms, one for himself and the other for a participant who was absent from the session, and two other participants completed the form in 3-4 minutes, compared to the coordinator's estimation of 10-15 minutes.

5.3.4 Factors Related to Administrative Issues

See Appendix 3 for the questions asked under this heading. The training department director stated that the centre draws up an annual training plan, which is a handbook that includes all the training programmes the centre provided during the year. The handbook is divided into sections, with information about each programme: date, the number of hours, and the fees for registration.

The director added that preparing this plan always follows the same pattern: each department director asks the training coordinators to send suggestions for programme titles and topics that he/she thinks deserve to be included in the plan, then forwards these suggestions to the departments director or his assistant to refine and revise, before printing the information in the form of a handbook.

In fact, the director said that no handbook had been issued since he became in charge of the department, which means that no plan was set for the year 2012; his reasons were his own lack of knowledge about it, and the fact that he was not asked or alerted by the centre's administration, in his opinion because of the centre's administrative deficiencies.

He indicated that he performs many duties; in addition to acting as director he teaches in the School of Business as an assistant professor with a workload of 12 credit hours per week; he also works outside the university. He admitted to a lack of experience in training administration, and to receiving no training for the job. In the absence of a job specification, he relied on the training programmes coordinators and used the 2011 plan without any changes.

The assistant director said: *"When the director came we felt that he lacks experience in training administration, and his available time is not enough to manage the training department's activities; at most, he can devote 2-2.5 hours per week for the department. In addition to the absence of orientation and follow up it was difficult to set a new training plan for the department and for the programmes intended to be introduced, so the dependence on the old plan for the year 2011 continued without any updating or developments"*.

The assistant director, who has been working in the department for more than 14 years, said that since 1998, every year starting from June, the director of the department sent notifications to every training coordinator asking for suggestions for training programmes; within three weeks these proposals were sent to the department administration to study, revise, and discuss with the coordinator. They then selected the proposals, organising and sorting the programmes into a preliminary design of the plan; the department director called a meeting of all programme coordinators to discuss the plan's first draft; after adoption it was printed as a draft, and then returned to the department. Each coordinator was asked to edit the part he proposed, and after revision, the plan was printed in its final form.

The researcher examined documents containing proposals sent by training coordinators to the department director for inclusion in the annual training plan. One document was the training plan for 2011. While the researcher was interviewing the assistant director in her office, a man came in and introduced himself as the divisional director of human resource development of a large, well known organisation in Jordan. He told the assistant director that he needed information about the programmes that would be introduced during the coming months, as he was interested in sending groups of employees on appropriate programmes offered by the centre, and he wanted to obtain the handbook that includes programme titles and dates, to send to a group of potential participants. She gave him a copy, but when he noticed that the date was 2011 he told her that the copy was out of date. She replied that the centre had not issued a new plan for the last two years. The researcher marked his dissatisfaction and frustration with this situation.

Regarding the procedures used for the promotion of training programmes,, the director mentioned that the most common are the vice president's approval of advertising in well-known daily and weekly local newspapers, sending letters by fax to most public and private organisations in Jordan, adding a monthly advertisement to the centre's website, and phone calls from training coordinators to human resources directors in Jordanian ministries.

Regarding the structure of the department, the director indicated that it is part of the Centre of Consultation's organisation, which comprises the department of consultations, and the department of training. The latter consists of the department director, director's assistant, and nine training programme coordinators. As part of his archival review, the

researcher checked documents showing the managerial levels, jobs, and links with the university's administration; see Appendix 8.

The training department director confirmed that there are two sources from which they obtain trainers, inside and outside the university. Those from outside are from other universities, the private sector and the public sector

The director stated that each source has its advantages and disadvantages. Trainers from inside the university are highly qualified in terms of education, and more up-to-date in subject terms, and more committed to the goals and vision of the university they work at. However, outside trainers accept lower wages; they are more committed in attending sessions punctually, more experienced in terms of training methods, and friendlier when dealing with the training department staff. They are determined to keep on good terms with the centre which is a source of extra income for them.

There are disadvantages related to the inside source; for example, they are not always available at the time scheduled for the training programmes because of their academic obligations; they require higher wages; and there is an imbalance in the relationships between the academics and the administrative staff in the university. Outside trainers are usually less well qualified than academics and less committed towards the centre's goals and mission.

Regarding training programmes' capacity and fees, the director indicated that the venue and the programme's expected costs and profit are the main determinants. Also, the two directors agreed that many announced programmes could not be offered (cancelled), because the minimum number of participants was not reached.

Regarding the rewards provided to the participants in training programmes, all respondents indicated that they are limited to two types: a 20% discount given to those participants who are working at the university, and their close family; and a 10-20% discount for organisations sending more than two participants to a programme.

The director mentioned the absence of an effective system of rewards in the regulations governing the work of the centre, and the limited powers granted to the director. Interestingly, the director said: *"Despite our awareness of the importance of rewards to attract clients and increase the effectiveness of training, the irrational regulation set by*

university administration is limiting and restricting us in selecting the appropriate and a flexible rewarding system".

The researcher accessed a letter dated 15/06/2009 filed in the centre's archival folders, issued and signed by the vice president for administrative and financial affairs and sent to the director of the centre, indicating that the university administration would not approve any training programme that failed to achieve a minimum profit of 40% of the total revenue.

In addition, the researcher saw documents containing evidence regarding the authority granted to the centres' directors including the training department directors. These indicated the very limited authority granted to them, especially in financial issues including rewarding trainees, trainers, and the coordinators of training programmes. The documents indicated a high level of centralisation of power and authority in terms of the relationship between the centre and the administration of the university. The researcher concluded that the most significant decisions regarding financial issues, the human resources, and important administrative issues in the centre are taken at the highest levels of the university's administration.

The director agreed that there is no communication with participants or their supervisors after the end of the training programme, because there is no precedent for this and no policy at the centre that motivates this communication; the exception is communication with the participant's employer over financial claims. In rare events, the employers may ask for a general report about participating employees, showing their commitment and attendance, and the extent of their interaction and acquisition of knowledge and skills in the programme.

However, he believed that the training centre should encourage communication with trainees and their supervisors after the end of the programme. This communication is highly important, as a means of promoting the training programmes, enhancing trust and mutual respect, and obtaining feedback to help improve the centre's work and the quality of the training service.

In order to explain the services provided by the centre to participants and trainers, the director confirmed that they include hospitality on some days, a folder that includes a pen and notebook, a sticker for free car parking, copying, binding and distributing the training material, and an attendance certificate. Interestingly, he said: *"A free ID is*

provided to the participants that enable them to enter and to use the university library and the available information and facilities of the library during the training programme period". The researcher observed the coordinators of two programmes give the participants this package and ask them to sign that he or she had received the items.

5.4 Case B Findings

This section presented the finding from case B.

Group A: Trainers

5.4.1 Factors Related to Designing Training Programmes

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the training programme design process, the researcher asked many questions detailed in Appendix 2.

The training programmes implemented by the respondents include: customer service skills, project management, public relations, human resources management, secretariat and office administration, communication skills, time management skills, financial analysis, strategic planning, financial and accounting management, preparing and writing administrative reports, decision making and problem solving. The total number of programmes was nearly 80, and the trainers' experience ranged from one to sixteen years.

The researcher accessed the 2010 plan issued by the Centre for Studies, Consultation and Community Service, which revealed that the centre offered more than 110 training programmes covering many areas of management, finance and accounting. The plan was designed to give interested individuals and organisations details about the programmes offered, including dates, times, venues and fees. Table 5.3 shows some training programmes offered in case B.

Regarding preparation of the programmes, the majority of the respondents said that they determined the schedules, including the programmes' general objectives, content, sessions and breaks. They used the same plan for repeated programmes many times.

They also used lists of contents in text books and articles to help them prepare the content of the programmes. Two of the participants said that *they "use the internet in designing these (plans) through copying the training programmes content implemented in Arabic language at other centres inside or outside Jordan".*

Table 5.3 List of some training programmes in case B

Training Subject	Training Hours	Duration
Managerial supervision skills	30 hrs.	2 weeks
Strategic planning	40hrs.	3 weeks
Basic skills in writing managerial performance reports	25hrs.	2 weeks
Advanced skills in public relations management	30hrs.	2 weeks
Fundamental accounting basics for beginners	40hrs.	3 weeks
Educational management skills	35hrs.	2 weeks

In contrast, three of the respondents admitted to not doing any kind of planning for their programmes. Rather, they used existing plans from the centre's archives, re-typed them and put their own names on them. Accordingly, they justified this because they were not paid for preparing these plans in addition to their inability to set the plans for the training programmes either because of the time constraints or because they lack the awareness of this activity, or for other reasons.

The researcher examined some documents containing evidence regarding formats (schedules) of the previous training programmes which were conducted in the last two years and mentioned by the majority of the respondents. These documents (forms) are similar in their design and content, in terms of the objectives, subjects, training hours, training methods, and equipment used in these programmes.

Clearly, all the participants mentioned that they do not make any type of communication with the training programme participants' supervisors in the training programmes they implemented because they were not asked or encouraged to communicate and make any contact with the participants' supervisors. Also, they think that this task is not their duty or specialty; rather, it is the duty of the centre's administration and the training programme coordinators. In addition to this, they do not perform any diagnosis or assessment for the participants' training needs because their task is implementing the training programmes, not conducting a survey study of the participants training needs.

In this context, one of the respondents said: *"it is usual for us as trainers to provide the training lectures and conduct the training programmes, and we assume that only the employers or the participants themselves feel and decide that there are training needs for them, so it is possible to meet these needs through the programmes they participate in"*.

Regarding the trainers' role in selecting the participants in the training programmes they achieved, the vast majority of the interviewed trainers confirmed that they do not have any role to play in selecting the participants in the training programmes in terms of the quantity and the quality. This is due to the registration procedures applied in the training programmes since the centre announces the training courses and those wishing to participate or their employers make contacts and calls with the training coordinators to register the name(s) of participants.

One of the respondents added, when a training programme is imposed on the trainer and he or she has no role in determining the number of the participants and the minimum levels of work experience and scientific qualifications, he accepts this and does not have the right to reject it since he is trying to keep in contact with the centre. This will guarantee continuity in the training and obtaining extra income. At the same time, it is a prestigious reward to be a trainer in a public university training centre. In addition, it is an opportunity to gain good experience in the field, which means more work opportunities in other training institutions in Jordan as well as other institutions outside the country.

One respondent stated: *"I have practiced a specific role in selecting the participants regarding the number and the quality, because the training programme I have lectured in was in the field of the electronic offices management, which requires that every single participant should have a specific level of computer skills, that if they are not existed, nobody would be able to benefit from this training programme. Also, to guarantee obtaining benefits from this course, the number of participants must be matched with the available number of computers in the training class"*.

The documents examined by the researcher didn't indicate any kind of communication achieved among the trainers and/or training coordinators on one hand and the trainees' supervisors and/or employers on the other hand.

5.4.2 Factors Related to Implementation of Training Programmes

As the literature explained that the implementation as one of the training process stages plays a significant role in the quality of training programmes, the researcher has asked several questions and sub questions in order to gain an in-depth understanding about the implementation of training programmes and the role of the trainers in this process, see appendix (2).

The vast majority of the respondents stated that they prepare each training topic to be introduced, write the main headlines, discuss them on the board, and then explain these topics in details in front of the participants; each one of the participants has a copy of the training material distributed by the training coordinator on the first day (the opening) of the training programme. They also affirmed that they use the lecture as the only method to communicate the training material in all training programmes they implemented.

Two of the respondents stated that they allow the participants to ask questions and inquiries at the end of each session of the programme and then answer these questions.

The majority of respondents pointed that they got used to implementing the lecture method in training, because they believe that the lecture is the best method to introduce and communicate the training material for trainees.

Two of the respondents indicated that they use the lecture method as a major method in providing the training material, in addition to the exercises during the training sessions. After illustrating the material through the lecture method, they give them questions and specific cases to be studied and discussed by groups at the training session; these exercises and case studies are prepared by the two trainers, and they think that this diversification in the training methods will lead to the improvement of the training environment, make it more interesting and attractive, and help in delivering the knowledge, which in turn helps in achieving the training programme objectives.

The researcher attended two training sessions in the centre; they were part of a training programme in the field of public relations and strategic planning. He observed that the lecture was the only training method used by the trainers. He also found that the wall-fixed board was the only equipment used by the trainers to explain the contents of the training materials.

All respondents agreed that the major obstacles encountered were the differences in the educational levels, work experiences, and other qualifications among participants in most of the training programmes that negatively affect the acquisition of the knowledge, skills and abilities, and even the interaction at the training sessions. Moreover, some of the participants were careless and not serious enough regarding the training programme. This is basically due to several reasons as summarised by those respondents. The first of these reasons is the absence of the follow up by the employers and/ or the supervisors of the participants. Second, some of the participants had no confidence in the training programmes they participated in because they were not free to select the programme that would satisfy or meet training needs. Accordingly, this situation happens when the participation in training programmes is a result of either hasty decisions regarding the recommendations /sending of the employees to participate in training programmes, and random placement of the participants, or mistaken judgments by the trainee's supervisor or even the trainee himself. Finally, the absence of material or functional consequences (rewards) related to and resulting from participation in the training programmes.

Another obstacle mentioned by the majority of respondents is the absence of the specialised technician needed to perform the maintenance work for the equipment and the appliances at the centre, in case they are faulty. In addition, the absence of some of the participants to attend to training sessions at the specific time is due to many reasons such as the timing of some training programmes is unsuitable for many participants due to social, family, functional, and cultural reasons. For example, many of the absence cases from training sessions were due to social connections and linkages which consequently require social duties in different occasions and events like participating in family parties, funerals, weddings, and in a lot of other different social occasions.

On the other hand, the majority of the respondents disagreed to some degree with the issue of delay.

One respondent said: *"the participants in the training programmes conducted by the centre of studies at The Hashemite University rarely arrive late to the training sessions. From my point of view, this is attributed to the fact that the workplace of participants is very close to the training place, since the centre makes it available to conduct the training courses in different locations, as the centre has branches in Amman and in Al-Zarqa cities in addition to the main branch at the university campus. Also, the halls and their equipment and installations do not form any obstacles for training, because the*

buildings of the centre of studies including its branches are modern buildings designed to fit their usage as training halls, and most pieces of equipment are relatively new. Moreover, the centre contracted with one of the repair and maintenance services providers from outside the university, and there are continues periodic and programmed maintenance processes according to the need for all equipment available at the centre".

The researcher accessed some documents providing evidence about the absence of participants from training sessions. These documents indicated that the absence rates were 25% on average in 12 training programmes conducted in the past 3 months. Additionally, the researcher showed documents of registration in various training programmes indicating the clear differences and variations in the qualifications, experiences, and work and education backgrounds among participants.

All respondents affirmed that there was not any communication between them and the participants' supervisors and or employers in any stage of the training programmes they have implemented in the two centres. They attributed this lack of communication to several reasons such as the lack of specific policy encouraging communication between the trainers and participants' supervisors and therefore the absence of appropriate mechanisms for this kind of communication.

One of the respondents stated *"I believe that it is necessary and very important to have such communication specially at the training programmes design stage as well as at the implementation and evaluation stages, but no one of the administrators in the centre asked for that or at least encourage this behaviour since I started to train in the centre 3 years ago".*

As part of the researcher's archival investigation, he reviewed one of the archival files dated from 1st of January, to 31st of December, 2010 in case A, and the other one dated from 1st of January to 31st of December 2011 in case B. These two files contained formal letters sent by the administration of the two centres to the employers of the trainees who participated in the training programmes held by the centres during the above mentioned years; the only issues indicated in these letters was the financial claims to be paid by those employers as a result of their employees' participation in the particular training programmes. Nothing was found regarding the training needs assessment done by the centres or trainers.

5.4.3 Factors Related to Evaluation of Training Programmes

Regarding the evaluation of the training programmes, many interviews were conducted in Case B during which the researcher asked several questions in order to gain an in-depth understanding about the evaluation process in the training programmes in both cases, see appendix (2).

All respondents agreed on the importance of knowing the reactions of the participants in the training programmes and the necessity to observe and find out the reactions of the participants toward training programmes. This could be considered as the base to measure the trainers' competencies and the extent of the participants' satisfaction about the training programmes, methods, and the training climate. Additionally, it helps the trainer to make the needed modifications in light of the participants' reactions either in modifying the used methods in the training or the training climate. Moreover, it plays a crucial role for the training centres (training providers) in developing their business as well as enhancing the competition advantages for them.

One trainer said: *"he is asking several questions at the end of each training session in order to know the participants' opinions and reactions toward the programme"*. However, two respondents stated that they use the direct questions in order to know the participants' opinions regarding the training programme, among these questions "what is your comment on what you have heard?".

Regarding the evaluation means and procedures used by the trainers to evaluate the extent of the participants acquaint of the knowledge and skills as a result of attending the training programmes, all respondents had agreed that the only tool used for the evaluation of training programmes is the form called training programme evaluation form accredited the centre for the evaluation process which includes clauses relating to the training content, the trainer and the services provided by the centres and the extent of acquiring the skills and the knowledge through the training programme.

The whole respondents stated that the form is distributed to the participants in the training programme in the last 10-20 minutes of the last session of the programme. Each participant is required to fill the model, and has the opportunity to write a free response at the bottom of the model showing their opinion about the programme and any suggestions they believe to be important.

The aim of this evaluation is to find out the opinions and the reactions of the participants toward the training programme, the training material, the trainer and his or her abilities, skills and efficiency, and the services provided by the centre. In addition, the evaluation aims to understand the programme's strengths and weaknesses as well as the training administrations at the centre.

All of the respondents mentioned that the training programme's coordinator is the one who distributes the form and collects it after completion by the participants.

The researcher has attended two sessions in two training programmes held in Amman branch and in the main branch in campus, and he observed the process of distribution and completing the form. Moreover, the researcher observed that some of the participants were careless and not serious in dealing with the evaluation form.

One of the respondents said: *"I have been working as a part-time trainer at this centre for more than two years and 1 trained in five training programmes. I believe that the form is the same without any modification or development, and I knew from one of the coordinators with the longest service years at the centre that the form was copied from the form used at the centre of consultation at the University of Jordan. From my experience, most of the participants are not serious in dealing with the form, because they think it is only a routine thing that adds nothing"*.

The majority of the respondents stated that they believe that the best method/ means to evaluate the training programme and the extent of its usefulness in acquiring the knowledge, abilities, and skills is the tests, simply because they help in measuring the participants knowledge and skills before joining the training and the extent of improvement in their knowledge, skills, and abilities after the end of the training. This means that the pre-test and post-test should be used.

Meanwhile, one respondent said: *"I believe there is no one method considered as the best because this depends on many variables, such as the nature of training programme level, training programme level, the number of participants, the programme's duration, its goals, the participants' quality and professional levels, and the trainer's ability to use the method and his conviction in it"*.

Regarding the communication issue, all of the respondents confirmed that there is no communication with the participants' supervisor at the evaluation stage. This could be attributed to the fact that these centres do not follow this policy and they do not intend to build a relation between the participants' supervisors and the trainers.

Moreover, one respondent said: *"unfortunately, there is no communication with the trainees' supervisors and or employers although it is important and useful to have some kind of communications between the trainer and the participants' supervisors. I think that such communications are strongly important because they will enable the supervisor to know the participant's real level and the extent of his progress and development in acquiring the skills and cognitive. It is also a mean to notify the participant that his supervisor is following up his training, and this in turn leads to more interest and more seriousness from the participants' part. One more advantage of this communication is that it helps the trainers in developing work relations and in adapting the training programmes to meet the participants training needs and the work's plans at the organisations in which the participants work"*.

5.4.4 Factors Related to Equipment

This was evaluated in order to achieve an in-depth understanding about the equipment used by the trainer in the implementation of training programmes in both cases and the extent of the availability and the effectiveness of this equipment. The researcher asked the respondents a set of questions, appendix (2).

The majority of the respondents illustrated that the equipment available at the centre include overhead projectors, fixed wall boards, data show equipment, flipcharts, tape recorders, video and televisions, and computers. Moreover, they indicated that this equipment is somehow relevant for the training programmes they are implementing because most of them are able to deal with them.

The majority of the respondents indicated that they use the overhead projectors and the paper boards in the training programmes they are implementing because of the ease of dealing with them. However, two other respondents mentioned that they often use the data show and training video films in addition to the board and the overhead projector because they think that the diversity in using the equipment will enhance the training process, give the trainers the ability to make the training sessions more attractive and well organised, and increase the trainers' control over the session time.

Concerning the operation of equipment they use, the vast majority of the respondents who use the overhead projector affirmed that they are able by themselves to operate this equipment because of the ease of operating them and dealing with them; however, they don't like using the other equipment such as the data show, the video or the computer because they are unable to operate them, or they lack the technical skills to deal with them which negatively affects their performance in the training.

Accordingly, one trainer said: *"I think I cannot deal with the advanced technology because I am not trained to use it, so I always try not using or operating it"*. Additionally, a group of respondents who are using or used the data show and the video confirmed that they always ask for help from one of the participants in the programmes to help them in operating this equipment or to solve some technical problems in operating them. Sometimes, they ask some of the centres' staff and the programmes coordinators who are not specialised in this field and functionally not responsible for this task.

The researcher observed during the field study that the much of the existed equipment is in a good condition, and is shown to be sufficient. He also observed that most of training halls are equipped with data show, overhead projector, fixed board, flipchart, and a computer, but in every branch there are only one video and one television. Most of this equipment is renewed when necessary, and he was told by director of department that there is no technician specialized in repairing and maintaining the equipment. Moreover, the bureaucracy surrounding the required maintenance for the broken equipment was observed to cause the long delays for the maintenance purposes.

Concerning the method of selecting the equipment by the trainers to be used in the training programmes, the vast majority of the interviewees stated that they determine the equipment which they are going to use in the training programme according to their desires, the availability of the equipment at the centre, and their ability to use them.

Consequently, another respondent affirmed: *"I am the one who decides what equipment should be used in the programme. I use the equipment I believe it relevant to the programme I am conducting, and no any coordinator or training administrator at the centre decides what equipment I shall use"*.

During the field study in case B's branches in Amman, Zarka, and the main centre in the campus, the researcher observed that there is no specialised technician to perform

the immediate maintenance to the equipment which may break down at any time during the training sessions. Rather, he was informed that the centre signed a contract with outside maintenance providers to perform the maintenance work for these pieces of equipment; generally, the researcher was told by the training department director that the process takes two days at a minimum to fix any broken equipment.

5.4.5 Factors Related to Trainees

According to most of the authors in the field of training and the quality of training, trainees' skills, qualifications, work experience, and expectations represent major components in the effectiveness of all types of training programmes. In order to gain a deep understanding of some of the factors relating to the trainees which affect the training quality, they should be taken into account by the trainers because they clearly affect the quality of training programmes, to achieve this in-depth understanding the researcher asked the respondents many questions, see appendix (2).

The majority of the respondents affirmed that they do not know or investigate the expectations of the participants in the training programmes they implement, basically because they were not involved in the process of selecting the participants in the training programmes they are implementing, so it is impossible to be able to know what the participants' expect from the training programme, the other reason is that as trainers they assume that when the participants register in a training programme, it is supposed that he or she knows the programme's goals and contents that include the topics that will be introduced in the training programme.

Consequently, one respondent said: *"I don't care about what participants expect from the programme, and the skills and knowledge he or she has. It is not my business to make investigations about these matters, as long as the participant came and registered in the programme this means that the programme's topics and contents will meet his or her expectations"*.

The researcher concludes from his observations that the trainers in both cases have a lack of awareness of the trainee's expectations and attitudes in general and their needs in particular. According to the documents examined, no one of the trainers has been trained or attended any training programmes related to their profession.

5.5 Training Administrators

The researcher has conducted seven interviews in Case B with the training administrators including one with the training department director, five with training programmes coordinators, all involved in managing the training programmes provided by the centre through the training department.

The department director holds the Bachelor degree in sociology and has one year experience in the department of training, in addition to 10 years in department of public relations in the Hashemite University. On the other hand, another seven interviews were conducted in Case B, one with the director of the centre, one with the director of the training department and the other five with training programme coordinators. The director of the training department in Case B holds a bachelor degree in sociology; he was assigned as a department director in December 2011 and transferred to the department of public relations on April 2012. He mentioned that he has no experience in the field of training administration.

5.5.1 Factors Related to Design of Training Programmes

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the training administrators' roles in the design stage of the training programmes offered by the centre, the researcher asked the respondents about this issue. A set of questions were asked, see appendix (3).

The whole respondents affirmed clearly that they do not play any significant role in designing the training programme, mainly the programmes' goals, the number of training hours, methods of training, and the training materials. Moreover, they mentioned that most of their work is confined in repeating of previous programmes with small marginal adjustments such as dates, training halls, and names of trainers. They attributed these issues to the instability situations regarding the administrative level in the centre and the absence of a training strategy and professionalism and institutionalised procedures, in addition to the absence of specialised training for the training coordinators.

Interestingly, the researcher accessed the respondents' files, which show that none of them have attended any kind of training programmes related to the fields of training management or even in the field of human resource management. One of the training coordinator has attended a training programme in planning and another one in basic skills of English language, while another coordinator attended 2 training programmes in ICDL, and public relations.

Moreover, all the respondents stated that they do not conduct any survey about the training needs for the participants in the programmes because they believe they are not responsible for this task, and they do not have the knowledge and skills to do this task.

One respondent stated: *"we didn't used to, or asked to, make training needs assessment for the trainees participated in the programmes held in the centre of studies and community services. I think it is a task of some specialised and the experts of human resources in the trainees' employers parts or this kind of business providers"*.

Regarding the standards of the determination of the participants' number registered in most programmes, the vast majority of the respondents stated that the training hall size in which the training programmes will be held, the financial standards, that means there is a minimum number of participants must be attracted to register on the programme which enable the centre to cover the expected costs for the programme plus a satisfactory profit required by the regulations governing the centre's work procedures and goals set by the University administration. However, the respondents also indicated that the trainers are obtained from two sources; inside source: from the university's academic and administrative staff, and the outside source: trainers from the employees of the private as well as public sectors organisations.

The researcher examined some documents containing instructions sent by the vice presidents for administration affairs at the university to the centre's director informing him and the staff of the training department to cancelling any training programme that doesn't achieve the minimum financial target which is the sum of the expected costs plus a net profit not less than 35% of the total revenue of each programme.

The majority of the respondents confirmed that the selection process of trainers for training is achieved according to several factors. These factors include: the previous experience of the coordinators in dealing with certain trainers, this factor takes place in case of repeating programmes where those trainers are involved, recommendations from the department director as well as the centre's director, and sometimes according to personal relationships.

All of the respondents agreed that it is difficult to decide one source as the best one because this depends on many variables such as the nature of the training programme, and the timing of the programme, and sometimes the expected revenues from the programme. In general, each source has its advantages and disadvantages.

The director of the training department said: *"almost all of the training programmes held during the last six months, the period of my responsibility as a department director, I did not participate or contribute in designing of training program, my role was a quick reviewing of the programmes, its contents and the number of its hours based on the recommendations from training administrators, and the bureaucratic procedures at the centre for long time ago as I was told"*.

All of the respondents stated that the role of programme coordinators is limited. He or she ascribes to the department's director to agree on conducting the proposed programme, and assigning the proposed trainer for the programme ascribed by the coordinator, based on knowing him and his experience in dealing with him, sometimes assigning the specific trainers is based on the personal relationship with them, and to some degree based on the trainer reputation and qualifications.

As part of his documentary investigation, the researcher reviewed many documents related to the training programmes conducted in the case B during the last 4 months, nothing was found in relation to any standard and/or criteria governing the selection of trainers. Moreover, it was observed that there is no integrated and organised data base at the centre for the trainers, and if exist it is limited, old, and incomplete.

5.5.2 Factors Related to Implementation of Training Programmes

In order to understand the training administrators' role in the implementation stage of the training programmes, all the respondents were asked several questions about this issue, see appendix 3.

All of the respondents indicated that their role in the implementation is limited to providing particular requirements for the implementation such as providing a training hall and to make sure it is ready, providing equipment for training called for by the trainer, such as the boards, the data show, overhead projector, sometimes providing hospitality (especially on the opening and closing days) distributing the registration forms that include the participant's name, work and address in addition to providing participants with the folders containing pens and notebooks and the copied training material.

One of the respondents said: *"I do not perform any role in implementing the programme except taking the participant's names at the first day of the course, preparing the participating certificates before the end of the programme (graduation*

day) and then handing them to the trainer to distribute them to the participants, in addition to secure bringing the hospitality in some days".

Moreover, the majority of the respondents agreed on the problems raised by both the trainees and the trainers, the most raised ones by trainees include: the inappropriate timing of the daily session, complaints regarding the weakness of some trainers because of the inability to train, the complaints of mistreatment by security staff with the participants at the universities' gates of the campus to get to the training centres, weaknesses of some trainers' abilities to use the advanced technology in training, and in many cases the complaints related to the inappropriate training methods used by most trainers and complaints on the hospitality in addition to the complaints regarding the differences in qualifications and experience among trainees and the weak personality of some trainers which leads to lack of control in the sessions.

The department director stated that the most raised problems by trainers are the continuous complaining about low wages paid by the centres to them, especially trainers from within the universities (inside source). This is because the possibility of getting higher wages from the big number of training centres in Jordan and the high competitiveness between the centres all over the country and because of the growing demand on specialist trainers. Another complaint is related to the delay of payment to trainers which is due to the procedures required to achieve the financial inquiries in the University.

one respondent said: *"the most negative problem encountered is the so-called conflict of interests, some of the employees in the centre has some kinds of relations with training centres in the private sector, sometimes they directed a lot of the potential participant to register in training programmes offered by these centres rather than the centre where they work in, it unethical and affecting the performance of the training department".*

Regarding the way of dealing with the problems by the trainers / or the trainees, the majority of respondents illustrated that there is determined or formal way to deal with these kinds of problems, they depend on their personal experience to solve the problems in a traditional way, since they try to solve it in a friendly manner. They also indicated that they listen to the problem, and they try to find the solution for it within the available abilities, and in some cases the higher administration at the centre is informed about some problems to help in finding the possible solutions for them.

Two of the respondents mentioned that they do not bother themselves listening to any problems introduced by the trainers or the trainees except those concerning the training needs instruments such as the board pen, papers and pencils.

The researcher was shown and allowed to read documents of participants' registration forms in various training programmes, these documents indicate the clear variations in the qualifications, experience, work and educational backgrounds among trainees. Additionally, the researcher saw some documents containing trainers' demands sent by many trainers to the centres' directors demanding increased rates of pay.

5.5.3 Factors Related to Evaluation of Training Programmes

In order to attain deep understanding regarding the training evaluation process, a set of questions were asked about the training programme evaluation; these questions are shown in appendix 3.

All respondents stated that they perform the evaluation process of the training programmes by using copies of the evaluation form accredited by the centre. The form contains items regarding the trainer, the contents of the programme, and the services and logistics provided by the centre. The form is distributed by the coordinators at the end of the programme asking the participants to complete the form in terms of marking the appropriate boxes that reflects the opinion of the participants toward the programme, the trainer, and the centre. In addition there is a space left at the bottom of the form to let the participants feel free to write what they want about the programme; for example, suggestions, claims, and ideas regarding the training. After completing the form, the coordinator collects the copies from the participants, and then places them in a pre-set file.

The majority of the respondents mentioned that they basically agree about the importance of the evaluation of training programmes because it is necessary to all parties involved in the training programmes' processing. one respondent said: "the evaluation is useless and it wastes time because no one in the centre considers it as a tool to get feedback regarding the training we provide, so I don't care about it and I just distribute it to the participant, collect it and then keep it on my desk, finally I cut it and throw it into garbage, and so do many of my colleagues".

Another respondent illustrated that he mostly download the data in the completed evaluation forms and treat it statistically to extract the statistical result to find out the participants' reactions and opinions accurately and submitting the results to the training department director or to take a look at and to make the relevant decision.

The researcher examined the evaluation forms document used in evaluating training programmes held in the centre. Moreover, the researcher attended the last session of a training programme, he observed that some of the participants were not serious in dealing with the evaluation form, one of the participants filled two forms, one for himself and the other for a participant who was absent from the session, another two participants completed the form in just 2 minutes which was a very short period of time, comparing with the coordinator's estimation of the time required for filling in the form as to take at least 10 minutes.

5.5.4 Factors Related to Administrative Issues

Under this section, department director were asked a set of questions in order to gain an in-depth understanding regarding this issue. See appendix 3. The training director stated that the centre makes a plan annually called the "Annual training plan", it is a handbook that includes the training programmes and courses that the centre provided for the whole year, from the beginning of January till the end of December dividing this handbook into sections, each section includes the programmes' set and information about each programme regarding the date of conducting the programme, the number of hours, and the fees for registration on the programme.

The director added that preparing this plan (handbook) is done based on the usual way, which means that each department director asks the training coordinator to send suggestions about the programmes titles and names that he thinks deserve to be included in the plan, then send them to the department's director or his assistant to refine revise these suggestions, to printing them in the form of a handbook.

The director of the department sends notifications to every training coordinator to provide proposals containing suggested training programmes and within three weeks these proposals are sent back to the department administration to study, revise, and discuss them with the coordinator. Then they decide about the selected proposal, organising and sorting these programmes and preliminary design of the plan, then the department director calls for a meeting for all programme coordinators to discuss the

plan's first draft, and then adopt it to be sent for printing in its first form, then returns to the department. Each coordinator is asked to edit the part he proposed, when making any modifications, then it is printed in the final form.

The researcher examined some documents containing proposals sent by some training coordinators to the department director including suggestions of training programmes to be included in the annual training plan. One document shows the training plan for the year 2010.

Regarding the procedures used for training programmes' promotion, the director mentioned that the most familiar ways followed to promote training programmes in the two centres includes the vice presidents' approval in order to advertising in some well-known daily and weekly Jordanian newspapers, sending letters by post to most governmental and private organisations in Jordan, in addition to a monthly advertisement on the centres' websites, and some phone calls done by the training coordinators with some human resources directors in Jordanian ministries.

Moreover, the director stated that in addition to the above mentioned promotional ways, the department make some kind of flyers and signs to be distributed in the crowd areas in Zarka city and Amman city.

Meanwhile, the director added: " *in addition to the traditional procedures regarding the promotion of training programme, I asked the coordinators to make field visits to the public and private organizations within Al-Zarka governorate area, another way I do with a team of coordinator and some of the centre's staff is holding one-day workshops at the centre, we send invitations to more than 100 human resources, training, and development directors in the public and the private sectors all over the country, we held one of these workshop in November 2011 and now we are planning to organise the second one probably in October, 2012, 130 human resource, training, and development attended the work shop, it was excellent and a good opportunity to market the centre as well as the training programmes. Every one of those attended the work shop has received a sealed certificate and a folder filled with leaflets showing the coming training programmes and an introduction about the training and studies services available at the centre in addition to the centre staff's business cards*".

Regarding the structure of the department, the director indicated that the department of training is part of the organisational structure of the centre for studies, consultation and community service which includes 2 departments; the department of consultations, and department of training. The department of training consists of the department director, and 7 training programme coordinators.

As part of his archival review, the researcher reviewed the agreed organizational structures of the centre which show the managerial levels, the jobs, and the links with the university's' administration. See appendix 9.

The training department director mentioned that there are two sources from which they obtain trainers, the first source from inside the university, those working as faculty members and administrative and technician staff, the second source is outside the university, trainers who do not work at the university, some of them from other universities, some from the private sector and others from the public sector.

The director stated that each source has its advantages and disadvantages, the trainers from inside the university are highly qualified in terms of education, and are scientifically more updated, more committed to the goals and the vision of the centres as part of the university they work at. Moreover, the outsiders are less cost in terms of the wages they ask for, more committed in attending punctually for the sessions, more experienced in terms of training methods and more friendly when dealing with the training coordinators, and they always try to keep good relations with the centre which, for them, is a source of extra income.

All respondent stated that each source has its positive and negative aspects, generally, the internal source (those working at the university) are better, because of several reasons, including the high scientific qualifications and the feeling that they are part of the university, which leads to increasing their commitment to the centre's interest.

On the other hand, there are many disadvantages related to the inside source, such as, being hard for them to be always available at the time of conducting the training programmes because of their academic obligations, the imbalance in the relationships between the academics and the administrative staff in the university, due to the gaps between the two parties. They are more expensive in terms of the wages they ask for in order to agree to train in a programme. For the outsiders, they are lower qualified than

academics and less committed towards the centre's goals and mission because they don't feel they are part of the institution.

Regarding training programmes' capacity and fees, the director indicated that the programme location (the hall where the programme is held), and the programme's expected costs plus a rate of revenue which is around 35% of the programme total income, are the main three considerations for the potential number of trainees. Also, the two directors agree that they couldn't conduct many announced programmes because the minimum number didn't register. The minimum number in each programme is the number of registered persons who pay the money covering the wages of trainers, plus other costs, plus at least 35-40% as a net profit. Otherwise the centre will inform the registered candidates that the programme is cancelled.

Regarding the rewards provided to the participants in training programmes, all respondents indicated that the rewards provided to participants are limited to only two types, 20% discount given for those participants who are working at the university including their sons or wives, the other discounts given to the organisations in case of sending more than 2 participants to attend a training programme, the discount ranges from 10% to 20%.

The director confirmed that there is a lack of an effective system of rewards due to the regulations governing the work of the centres, and the limited authorites granted to the directors of the centres.

The researcher accessed a letter dated in 15/06/2009 filed in the centre's an archival folder in case B issued and signed by the vice president for administrative affairs sent to the director of the centre indicated that the university administration will not approve conducting any training programmes unless it achieve a minimum of 35% as a net revenue of the total revenue.

In addition, the researcher saw some documents containing evidence regarding the authority granted to the centres' directors including the training department directors. This indicates the very limited authority granted to them especially in the financial issues including rewarding trainees, trainers, and the coordinators of training programmes. Also, the documents indicate the high level of centralisation in the power and authority in terms of the relationship between the centres and the administrations in the two universities; it was concluded by the researcher that the most significant

decisions regarding the financial issues, the human resources, and the important administrative issues in the centres are taken at the highest levels of the universities' administration.

Furthermore, the director affirmed that there is no communication with the participants or with their supervisors after the end of the training programme because there is no custom for this kind of communication, and there is no policy at the centres that motivate this communication except sometimes the communication with the participant's employer for the financial claims. In rare events the employers may ask for a general report about his participating employee that shows his/her commitment in attending the training sessions, and the extent of his/her interaction and acquiring the knowledge and the skills included in the programme.

He added that "*they believe that the centre should encourage communication with the trainees and their supervisors and employers during and after the end of the programmes. Such kinds of communication are important for many reasons including, it is a means to promote the training programmes introduced by the centre, and will increase the trust and mutual respect between the centres and the participants, and may help in obtaining the feedback and comments that help in improving the centres work and improving the quality of the provided training service*".

In order to understand the services provided by the centres to the participants and the trainers during the training programmes, the director of training department confirmed that these services include the hospitality provided during the programmes' days, a folder that includes a pen and notebook, a sticker for free car parking, copying, binding and distributing the training material to them, and attendance certificate.

The researcher observed during the field study that the coordinators of two training programmes give the participants the package of the programme which includes notebooks and a pen, a copy of training material, a copy of the programme's schedule, a car parking sticker.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has set out the findings from the multiple sources of evidence including semi-structured interviews (as the main source), documentary review, archival records, and direct observation, providing valuable in-depth information on topic of research.

Using multiple sources of data —strengthened and improved the internal validity of the research. The chapter contains the findings of issues related to the quality of training programmes, such as design, implementation, evaluation of training programmes, the equipment used, trainee-related factors, and administrative issues related to and affecting the quality of the training programmes.

Regarding design, it appeared that the majority of respondents from group A are aware of the importance of planning, using sources such as text books and other publications. However, a significant number do not spend any time in making this kind of plan, but depend on existing plans available from the centres' archives.

The other aspect in the design of training programmes is related to communication with the trainees' supervisors. There is little or no communication between trainers and trainees' supervisors for reasons, such as lack of encouragement to do so. In addition, they have no roles in determining the participants' training needs or indeed the number, qualifications, and work experience of the participants.

Most respondents in both cases confirmed that the lecture is the main (and in some cases the only) training method used in their programmes. This is either because of the ease of this method, or they inability to use other methods. Only a small minority of respondents mentioned that they use one or more methods in addition to the lecture method.

All the respondents in case A agreed on the obstacles encountered in the implementation of training programmes, from insufficient and old audio-visual aids and equipment, to late attendance of trainees at training sessions, and the absence of the rewards. They also agreed that the variations in participants' levels of educational qualifications, experience, and work background were another important obstacle. On the other hand, Case B respondents did not mention poor punctuality and insufficient equipment as obstacles.

It was clear that the respondents in both cases were aware of the importance of evaluating the training programmes, and they believed that tests are the best tools to for evaluation. However, the only evaluation tool used in the centres is the evaluation form, because of the training administration's lack of awareness of modern tools of evaluation.

The most popular pieces of equipment used by the trainers were the wallboards, overhead projectors and flipcharts. It is clear that case A is suffering from an insufficient amount of audio visual equipment, and most of the available equipment is too old.

The majority of trainers, in both cases, pay little attention to the expectations of the participants in their programmes; they consider this duty as part of the responsibility of the trainees and their supervisors. Similarly, responsibility by the trainers for differences in participants' qualifications, experience and work background is passed on to the centre and/or the participants' supervisors.

The majority of training programme coordinators and administrators admitted that they have no actual role in designing training programmes, including checking the qualifications of the participants and the training material; their main role is marginal and not core, somewhat akin to logistics providers. However, it is their responsibility to determine the minimum number of registered participants in a training programme, according to the universities' administrative and financial regulations.

All of the respondents in both cases affirmed that they are responsible for the evaluation process. They handle the evaluation forms to be completed by trainees at the end of each programme. A minority consider the forms seriously, but the majority are careless, believing that the process is merely a routine activity and that there is no point in implementing it as conscientiously as they might.

Chapter Six

Discussion

6.0 Chapter Introduction

In this chapter, the research findings from the two case study organisations (CSOs) are discussed in the light of the literature reviewed and the factors listed in chapter two. The basis of the discussion will be the similarities and contradictions between each element found in the literature review and the corresponding findings in the case studies. The limitations of the study will also be discussed in this chapter.

In the following sections, the findings obtained from trainers, and the staff of training departments including the coordinators and administrators of training programmes in both CSOs, will be discussed. The discussion follows the categories of factors related to designing training programmes, implementation of training, evaluation of training, equipment used in training, trainees' expectations and attitudes, and administration.

6.1 Factors Related to Designing Training Programmes

Many kinds of training programme were offered by both CSOs, including managerial, financial, educational, IT and English language, although the focus of this study is on managerial and financial programmes.

6.1.1 Planning and Training Need Identification

Practitioners and theorists agree that the training process has at least four steps or phases: analysis of training needs, design and development, delivery, and follow up and evaluation (Bimpitsos and Petridou, 2012; Elbadri, 2001; Sels, 2002; Goldstein, 1993; Armstrong, 2003; Stone, 2002); however, training design and trainee characteristics were considered as the most important sets of variables influencing the effectiveness of the programmes (Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Clark *et al.,* 1993). Thus, conducting a systematic needs assessment is a vital first step in training design and can significantly affect the ultimate value of the programme (Arthur *et al.,* 2003).

Training programme design should include needs identification, clear programme goals that align the training with the interests of the organisation, the involvement of key stakeholder groups and the dissemination of information that establishes the credibility of the programme before it starts (Clark *et al.,* 1993); however, appropriate conduct of the programme depends on good training design. The respondents' feedback revealed that the majority agreed with the importance and necessity of making plans for each training programme, and the majority of interviewees (trainers) indicated that they did

plan for the training programmes they implemented. This finding was consistent with Clark *et al.* (1993) and Armstrong (2003) who argued that, if clear objectives are not set for a training programme, that programme is less likely to succeed.

However, the majority of the interviewees (trainers) pointed out that they use the same plans for repeated programmes, regardless of who was attending these programmes. This finding is contrary to what has been reported by authors such as Al-Khayyat and Elgamal (1997) and Nadler (1983) who contended that the design phase involves the creation of a training plan with a review of the training needs, writing up the training objectives and consulting various involved parties, and the selection of instructional methods and techniques including training aids to bring about a progressive training environment. Further, Schraeder (2009) and Hornik *et al.* (2007) stated that, in a training environment, learning may be enhanced by flexible design, including flexibility of content, with specific topics targeted directly at the needs and interests of trainees.

In contrast, there were many respondents (trainers) in both case study organisations who had no set plans for programmes. This finding was inconsistent with Clark *et al.* (1993) who stated that programme design should contain the setting of clear programme goals.

The findings of this research have identified a number of reasons behind this issue in both case study organisations:

The first reason revealed by the interviewees was lack of awareness of the importance of effective planning. This finding does not meet the requirements of Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012) who argued that planning is one of the essential stages of an efficient training programme, including designing the objectives of training; or of Bowman and Wilson (2008) who stated that inappropriate planning and implementation can lead to misinterpretation regarding the expectations and the achievements attained through training. Moreover, Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) stressed that planning of the training activity and setting training aims and objectives are among the major roles of trainers.

The second reason was time constraints; the time available to prepare and set a plan was insufficient, because the training coordinators confirmed the programme only a day or two before the starting date. This finding is inconsistent with the views of Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who concluded that timeliness in providing training, ease of

training planning, and complete information about the content of the training programme are basic requirements for success.

The third reason was the lack of the training coordinators' follow-up regarding the planning process and the commitment of trainers at this stage. This does not conform with the arguments of authors such as Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) who indicated that planning of the training activity and setting training aims and objectives are among the major roles of trainers, and Brown and McCracken (2009) who stated that training institutes are one of the key stakeholders in presenting successful training programmes and increasing participation in training activities.

The researcher concluded from his review of documents, that the formats of the plans for the training programmes conducted over the last three years in both case study organisations were similar in their design and objectives, training hours, training methods, and equipment used.

6.1.2 Communication and Supervisors' Follow-up

Supervisors' follow-up and support plays an important role in motivating trainees. In this regard, many authors such as Clark *et al.* (1993), Cohen (1990), Facteau *et al.* (1995), Chiaburu and Tekleab (2005) and Tharenou (2001) have stated that trainees with more support from their supervisors usually attend training sessions with a stronger belief in the programme's usefulness, and are motivated to gain the best out of the training. Additionally, this support will ensure the trainees' participation throughout the whole programme. The data gathered from the two case study organisations indicated that there was no communication between trainers and participants' supervisors and/or employers. This finding is inconsistent with Clark *et al.* (1993) who argued that training programme design should involve key stakeholder parties prior to the start.

Interviewees also commented on the absence of communication with the participants' supervisors and employers, which is due to several reasons. The first reason was the lack of the centres' encouragement for this kind of communication. This finding is inconsistent with Bennett and Leduchowicz's (2007) conclusion that there should be more contact between trainers and clients and trainees' managers. Martin (2010) stated that appropriate conduct of the training programme depends on good design, and Herschbach (1997) argued that training institutions need to define and implement new policies that will enable them to improve training. Sambrook and Stewart (2000)

highlighted the influence of referent others (e.g. managers), whose support (or lack thereof) was found to affect a trainee's participation, and Brown and McCracken (2009) contended that the trainer plays a central role in encouraging participants in effective training activities.

The second reason was that the trainers were convinced that this communication was not their responsibility; rather it was the centres' and the training coordinators'. This was because the trainers were not involved in assessing the participants' training needs. This finding is inconsistent with Turrel (1989), Newby (1992), Moon (1997) and Byrne *et al.* (2002) who all agree that the absence of training-needs analysis raises significant barriers to training, and Holton *et al.s'*. (2000) argument, that from the training design viewpoint, training-needs assessment is considered as basic to effective programmes. Moreover the finding also is not consistent with Peterson's (1992) comments on the importance of the training-needs analysis and the role of the process in ensuring that training is cost effective.

6.1.3 Trainees' Selection

The research revealed that the vast majority of respondents in both case study organisations indicated that they do not play any role in selecting participants. They attributed this situation to the participation mechanism and the registration procedures followed by the training centres which gave no role to the trainers in the selection process, including the determination of the participants' qualifications and the number of participants in each programme. This finding is not in line with Armstrong (2003), Buckley and Caple (2004), Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), Cole (2002), Arthur *et al.,* (2003) and Goldstein and Ford (2002), who argued that, in systematic training, the selection of trainees should be achieved on the basis of a shortage of skills and knowledge identified through training-needs analysis. They also pointed out that the training should be appropriate to what was expected by the participants and match their job context.

In contrast, one respondent in case B indicated that he played a significant role in determining the minimum level of work experience and scientific qualification required for a participant to register on a training programme. He added that he determined the maximum number of participants in his programmes, because of the nature of the programme in addition to the training methods used in the programme and the available

number of PCs. This finding is consistent with Yiu and Saner (2005), Linhame *et al.* (2006), Clark *et al.* (1993), Bhatti *et al.* (2012) and Goldstein (1993), who argued that training programmes should be designed according to the nature of the training and the available resources, and trainers are among the key stakeholders who should be involved in the design stage of the programme.

Another respondent indicated that, usually, the training centres imposed their programmes and the number and qualifications of participants, leaving the trainers with no right to reject them or at least offer an opinion. This finding does not support the recommendations of many authors such as Clark *et al.* (1993), Herschbach (1997), Linhame *et al.* (2006) and Franceschini and Terzago, (1998) who indicated that several parties contribute to the process of training, with trainers as one of the key actors at almost all stages of the training process including design.

The researcher believes that there are many reasons behind this ignorance of the trainers' role in these issues; however, it can be remarked that trainers in both case A and case B felt uncomfortable because there was no freedom in selecting participants in terms of quality and quantity.

6.1.4 Roles of Training Administrators

No training programme coordinators in either case A or case B reported having any significant role in the design of the programmes in terms of determining goals, methods or materials.

Moreover, the responses indicated that they usually repeated previous programmes, in other words, cut and pasted them, with small changes such as the new dates, venues, and names of trainers. This finding is not in line with Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who indicated that the training institute is part of the training programmes' design process.

Various reasons were offered for this situation. The first was the instability of the administrative level in the two centres, due to the rapid change and continuous functional movements of the centres' and departments' directors. The second reason was the absence of systematic training procedures and policy in organising and governing the process, in addition to the absence of institutionalised and professionalised procedures. The third reason was the lack of specialised training for

training coordinators. This finding is not in line with Herschbach (1997) who concluded that good training institute staff is basic to training programme quality. It confirms the findings of Halaby (cited in Atiyya 1991, p.92) who reported that the development programmes for training organisations' staff in Arab training institutes were inadequate.

This is supported by the work of Gomez-Mejia *et al.* (2001), Reid and Barrington (1997), Bardwell and Holden (1997) and Cole (1997) who all believe that a negative attitude from management or workers towards training is one of the main barriers to training.

The researcher reviewed the respondents' personnel files kept in both centres' central administration office (*Diwan*), allowing him to conclude that the vast majority of the training coordinators and the training departments' directors had never attended any training programme related to the areas of training administration, management of training programmes, training programme evaluation, marketing skills, or skills of training coordination. This finding does not meet Atiyyah's (1991) belief in the necessity of training the staff of training institutions, or Herschbach (1997) who confirmed that good training of staff was one of the bases of training programme quality.

The researcher found that two of the coordinators in case A and case B had attended three training programmes each, in computer typing skills , English for beginners, project management, and office management. Authors such as Maybey *et al.* (1998), Reid and Barrington (1997), Smith and Hyton (1999) and Pedler *et al.* (1991) argued that lack of awareness of the importance of continuous training of employees by implementing training principles indicates a lack of awareness of a training culture, which will result in failure to create the training environment needed.

Responses recorded in case A and case B indicated that none of the training coordinators conducted any training-needs assessment or identification for the participants, because they believed that this task was not among their responsibilities; they were unable to conduct this kind of task because they themselves lacked the skills and knowledge required to handle this task. Nor was there any job description or training path for the jobs in either centre. This does not support to the arguments of Herschbach (1997) who strongly believed that training administrators and the whole staff of training institutions should be well trained. Abou-Arquob (2008) indicated that

training coordinators must be qualified to participate in training-needs assessment, or at least understand the basics of the process.

The assistant director of the training department in case A confirmed that the centre is not required to conduct the participants' training-needs identification, as it is supposed that each participant and/or his or her employer already knows what the employee needs to learn. This finding is not in line with Franceschini and Terzago (1998), who argued that the training institute is part of the training programmes' design process.

The respondents in this study indicated that the major criteria used in the two centres for determining the number of participants allowed to register on most programmes were the size of the venue, and financial considerations in terms of the programmes' expected costs and returns (based on the two universities' administrations pre-determined ratio, which would be no less than 30-40% of the total revenue from each programme). This finding is not in line with Franceschini and Terzago (1998) and El-Hasan (2006) who concluded that organisation of training programmes is one of the major responsibilities of the training provider, and the number of participants is determined by several criteria such as the nature of the programme, its level, and the training methods used.

Due to centralisation in the decision-making process, all interviewees in both case A and case B confirmed that the centres have lost many of training opportunities because of financial regulations issued by the two universities' administration, related to the financial targets that the centres are required to achieve.

6.1.5 Trainers' Selection

All respondents in both case A and case B confirmed that the centres usually obtained their trainers from two sources: internal, that is the two universities' faculty staff; and external, trainers from outside the universities, originally either public and private sector employees or retired people with accumulated experience gained through their jobs. This finding is consistent with Yaghi (2008) who concluded that the diversity of the sources from which training institutes can obtain trainers is one of the best strategies in managing the training process, ensuring obtaining trainers whenever they are needed, and with a professional manner and costs.

In this research, all respondents in both case study organisations agreed that it is basically difficult to decide or determine which is the better source ,because each has its

advantages and disadvantages; it also depends on several variables such as the nature of the training programme (criteria for selection include the required skills and qualifications); and financial considerations (the expected revenue from the programme may not be enough to pay the required rate for an appropriate trainer). Franceschini and Terzago (1998) argued that fair payment is one of the trainers' requirements.

Another reason for difficulty in deciding which source is better is that the timing of the programme may not fit the schedule of trainers from a given source. This supports the argument of Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) and Tenant *et al.* (2002) that inappropriate timing of daily training sessions is one of the most frequent problems and complaints by both trainers and trainees.

Regarding the trainers' selection process, it was confirmed by the majority of respondents in both organisations that there is no formal system or process to be followed; rather, the process is usually achieved through some informal reasoning such as previous experience of the coordinators, especially in the case of repeated programmes; recommendations from either the training department directors or the centres' directors, usually based on personal considerations; and sometimes recommendations from colleagues. This finding is inconsistent with the view of authors such as Chen *et al*. (2006) who recommended that trainers have to know what they are supposed to do; their background is crucial, and they should have appropriate experience; and Towler and Dipboye (2011) who concluded that many attributes were found to be necessary for trainers such as communication skills, knowledge of content, ability to use training aids/media, learning environment, listening and questioning. Maybey *et al*. (1998) and Stewart (1999) explained that the absence of such a system can cause problems for training management.

The assistant director of the department in case A, who has 10 years' working experience in the Centre, stated that the trainers' selection process is based on personal knowledge and personal recommendations came from colleagues, directors, or even from relatives and friends. This finding supports the views highlighted by the UN report (1994) and of Terterove and Wallace (2002) that social and economic factors can generate barriers to training, and Agnaia (1997) who believes that certain social factors impose obstacles on training programmes in some Arab regions and disturb the effectiveness of the training. Also, this finding is not in line with Guald and Miller's (2004) conclusion that trainers should be selected based on their listening and

questioning skills, communication skills, knowledge of content, problem-solving skills, and ability to use teaching aids: Massy (2003) who concluded that training quality requires that trainers know how to transfer knowledge to the trainee.

In this regard the researcher had an opportunity to review many documents related to programmes conducted in both case study organisations during the four months before the field study. Nothing was found in relation to any standards, or systematic criteria for the trainers' selection; in addition, the researcher was able to observe the absence of integrated and organised databases available in both organisations.

6.2 Factors Related to Implementation of Training Programmes

6.2.1 Methods of training

Training organisations in countries all over the world have reported many methods of training; however, the decision to choose a particular method is clearly contingent on the nature of the training objectives and the availability of instructional resources, i.e. physical, financial and human resources (Al-Khayyat and Elgamal, 1997). Additionally, it is acknowledged that individuals tend to learn differently based on preferred styles of learning (Chambers, 2005). Tung and Havlovich (1996) stated that role playing, conference, and programmed instruction are the most frequent methods used in the training setting.

The majority of respondents in this study in both case A and case B indicated that the lecture was the only training method used in presenting the training material in their programmes. This finding does not support the recommendations by authors such as Burke *et al.* (2006), who stated that engaging trainees through exercises that apply the information and give feedback during a lecture allowed trainees to make adjustments in their behaviour and gain insight into the changes required. However, this finding confirms that of Atiyyah (1991) who argued that methods used in Arab training institutes were limited and conservative, and the lecture still the most frequently used method, followed by discussion groups; case studies, role playing, exercises, games and simulation are rarely used. Cole (1997) emphasised that case studies and simulation are important as training tools. Schraeder (2009) stated that many training programmes can be expanded to include some degree of active participation by the trainees, engaging them in activities that directly relate to the planned objectives of the programme.

The various reasons given by respondents for their limited methods included: first they did not use other methods during their work as trainers so they were unaware of methods other than the lecture. Similarly, Lucas (2005) found that employees prefer to perform their tasks using traditional procedures and work methods rather than new ones, and perceive the adoption of a new approach as risky and problematic. Atiyyah (1991) confirmed that most Arab trainers have limited or no experience in using advanced training methods, and Herschbach (1997) argued that, in developing countries, trainers are heavily reliant on the lecture method with few practical activities.

The second reason was that they had never attended any kind of course related to the area of training for trainers, to encourage them to develop their professional skills, capabilities, knowledge or attitudes. This finding is contrary to what has been reported by authors such as Galbraith (1998) who indicated that the efficiency of trainers in delivering a resource is important in the final return on training investment. Maybey *et al.* (1998), Reid and Barrington (1997), Smith and Hyton (1999) and Pedler *et al.* (1991) argued that the lack of awareness of the importance of the continuous training indicated a lack of awareness of a training culture, which would result in failure to create the training environment needed. Herschbach (1997) stressed the necessity of training the staff of training institutions; and Atiyyah (1991) stressed that trainers must be experienced and should be trained in the use of advanced training techniques.

The third reason mentioned was the absence of recommendations and/or direction made by the training staff at the centres regarding the necessity of using certain methods. This finding supports Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who stated that trainers require information about rules related to conducting training programmes and assistance from the training provider. Abu-Arqoub (2008) and Treven (2003) argued that the staff of training institutes can play a significant role in the quality of programmes through developing the training services in terms of making sure that trainers have the abilities to utilise different kinds of training methods and more advanced techniques.

Moreover, the respondents indicated that the copies of the training material are usually distributed to each participant at the first meeting of every programme. This finding is in line with that recommended by Diamanidis and Chazoglou (2012) that the training material should be provided to trainees prior to programme. Schraeder (2009) confirmed that the content, hand outs, and other materials should be available to participants either prior to the training programme or during it.

A few respondents from case study A and case study B reported that they allowed the participants to make enquiries at the end of each training session, the reason being that this helped to create some kind of positive interaction and ensured that the participants understood what had been presented through the sessions. This finding is consistent with Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who stressed the necessity of using good communication styles, and the importance of providing trainees with examples in order to explain any unclear subjects.

In contrast, the majority of respondents in both case study organisations revealed that they did not allow the participants to ask questions because of time constraints, which made it difficult to waste time on asking questions and answering them during the lecture. This finding is inconsistent with Franceshini and Terzago (1998) who argued that class management and working-time management are among the categories that trainers have to consider; Ghosh *et al.* (2012) indicated that the trainer must motivate the trainees to contribute to discussion and adopt a reflective listening attitude to inspire group involvement.

6.2.2 Barriers to Implementing Training

Respondents from both case study organisations mentioned several obstacles they had encountered in implementing the training programmes. The differences in the participants' educational levels and qualifications, differences in work experience, and other differences such as organisational (functional) levels was the first obstacle. This finding is in line with what has been confirmed by many authors such as Chen *et al.* (2004), Armstrong (2003), Yiu and Saner (2005), Lingham *et al.* (2006) and Kauffeld and Willenbrock (2010) who all agreed that the differences in the trainees' education, experience, levels of skills and capabilities, and other qualifications are factors that affect the success of training, and should be taken into consideration in the design and implementation of training. Chambers (2005) concluded that individuals tend to learn differently based on preferred styles of learning. Brown and McCracken (2009) identified the importance of trainee characteristics such as the individual ability/skill, personality, and motivation. Kontoghiorghes (2001) argued that training design and trainee characteristics were considered as the most important sets of variables which influence the effectiveness of training programmes.

The reason for this obstacle, according to the interviewees, was the lack of confidence of some participants in the training programmes they registered for; they had no freedom in selecting the programme and were at the mercy of inappropriate decisions made by their employers and/or supervisors. This finding is in line with Batton and Gold (1999) who argued that, if the organisation does not promote employee involvement in decision making about training and their own self-development, this may lead to reluctance on the part of employees to participate. Chen *et al.* (2006) also argued that a good training programme needs course content to be appropriate to job requirements and needs to use methods of training that can support trainees' contributions. Clark *et al.* (1993) concluded that training motivation is a direct function of the extent to which the trainee believes that training will result in either job utility or career utility.

The second obstacle stated by the interviewees (trainers) in both cases was that careless and less serious participants negatively influence the training process, leading to confusion in the class and problems for both participants and trainers. This is in line with the findings of authors such as Bates and Holton (2007) and Bhatti (2012), that many factors, like intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, training design, trainee readiness, social support, training transfer, training environment, and the trainer's attributes may all influence the participants' attitudes toward the training programme, Mathieu *et al.* (1992) and Tracey *et al.* (2001) stated that the participant's level of motivation will influence his or her preparation. Furthermore, Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) indicated that a trainee who considers the training as unimportant to his or her job will devote less time and effort to acquiring the skills and knowledge required by the job.

The reason given for this obstacle was the absence of rewards received by participants as a result of participating in training programmes. This finding is supported by Sylvie *et al.* (2001), who stressed that individuals' perceptions that their efforts in training will enable them to gain rewards at work is one of the factors that positively influences their training efforts; and Sire (1993), who stated that trainees expect two types of rewards, intrinsic and extrinsic. Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), Cheng and Ho (1998) and Holton and Baldwin (2003) all found a clear link between reward and outcome expectations from training, and observed that trainees who expect their rewards to increase as a result of their training, will show improved performance. Moreover, Clark *et al.* (1993) stated that training motivation is a direct function of the extent to which the trainee believes that training will result in either job utility or career utility (the

perceived usefulness of training for attainment of career goals, such as getting a raise or promotion, or taking a more fulfilling job).

An additional reason for this obstacle revealed by the interviewees was the absence of follow-up by participants' employers and/or supervisors. This finding is consistent with Clarke (2002), who stated that the lack of trainees' supervisors' support was a major barrier to effective training. Kontoghiorghes (2001) found that the perceived supervisory support for training affected anticipated job utility and thus motivation to learn during training. Indeed, it is necessary to identify factors that affect training success and to provide directions for training design to make sure that investment in training actually pays off (Kauffeld and Willenbrock, 2010).

Furthermore, the majority of trainers and training programme coordinators agreed that the absence of a systematic selection process for trainees is the fundamental cause of this problem.

The third obstacle revealed in the empirical study in both organisations was the lack of technical support to carry out simple maintenance work and be available for fixing broken equipment. This finding is inconsistent with Herschbach (1997) who concluded that good training of staff is one of the bases of training programme quality. Indeed, Halaby (cited in Atiyya 1991, p.92) reported that the development programmes for training staff in Arab training institutes were inadequate.

The fourth obstacle indicated by the majority of interviewees in both case study organisations was the failure of some participants to attend some of the training sessions, and/or their late arrival. They added that these behaviours resulted in confusion in the classes. This finding is in line with the arguments of Yaghi (2010) and Kirkpatrick (2006) who identified that absence from and failure to attend the training courses at the proper time are among the issues that affect negatively the training events; Tai (2006) also found that framing the training programme to the needs of job increases trainee perception regarding the importance of training and the value of attending it.

The reason for the absence and/or late arrival of some participants, as stated by respondents in case A, was that the work places of those participants were, to some degree, far from the place where the training is held; this was in addition to inappropriate timing of some sessions, conflicting with work times. Moreover, the

interviewees indicated that many participant-related factors, such as social, family, and functional, could lead to absence and the late arrival. This finding is apparently reflected elsewhere in the Arab world, as noted by Agnaia (1997) who believes that certain social factors imposed obstacles on training programmes in some Arab regions and disturbed the effectiveness of the training. Brown and McCracken (2009) described several specific inhibitors: perceived lack of opportunity to learn; and physical logistical constraints (e.g. location of training, and time constraints).

The fifth obstacle mentioned by the respondents in case A was the insufficient and old-fashioned equipment available in the centre for training activities. They indicated that most of the centre's halls were unsuitable for training programmes. Treven (2003) indicated that the facilities required for training might vary from a small, makeshift seminar room to large lecture halls, accompanied by small conference rooms with advanced instructional technology equipment.

In contrast, the respondents in case B did not indicate late arrival as one of the obstacles they encountered, because the centre's branches are located on three sites (Amman, the campus, and Zarqa city); this distribution of the branches makes the distance between participants' work and the training place more acceptable, so they arrive on time. This finding is supported by Brown and McCracken (2009) who argued that the location of training is one of the logistical constraints which affect the participants' willingness to effectively participate in training.

This research revealed that the vast majority of interviewees in both case study organisations had no communication of any kind with the participants' supervisors and/or employers, at any stage of the training programme; this is because there is no policy which encourages and organises communication between trainers and supervisors/employers, and no systematic procedures for communication between the two parties. This finding is inconsistent with Bennett and Leduchowicz's (2007) conclusion that there should be more contact between trainers and clients and trainees' managers.

On the other hand, one trainer stated that he had communicated with a few trainees' supervisors; he said *"the communication took place between me and two participants' supervisors in the last day of the programme through telephone call, when the supervisors asked me about the .... participants' commitment in attendance; they*

wanted to make sure that the participants were not absent, because he gave them leave for 4 hours a day to attend the programme and these hours are not discounted from their vacation's account".

In both case study organisations the training programme coordinators played a limited role in the implementation stage. They provide particular requirements such as:

> Preparing the training venues.
> Equipment required by the trainers (boards, data show equipment, overhead projectors, etc.).
> Hospitality, making opening and closing arrangements with the department's restaurants.
> Distributing the registration forms and folders contain training materials, pens, and notebooks.

This was confirmed by the respondents within the two case study organisations, and supports Schraeder (2009) who explained that the content, PowerPoint slides, overheads, handouts, and any other materials related to the training programme need to be well designed to reveal a high level of quality and competence. The materials used in the training should reflect a high level of quality and professionalism.

The researcher reviewed the documents and the archival material in both case study organisations and found that there is no job description in the centres, which causes many conflicts about jobs among employees.

6.2.3 Trainers and Trainees' Complaints

The majority of respondents in both case A and case B reported that the most frequently raised problems and complaints by both trainers and trainees include:

> Inappropriate timing of the daily sessions. This finding is supported by Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) and Tenant *et al.* (2002).
> Complaints about trainers' inadequate training and communication skills, and the use of old-fashioned training methods used in most programmes. This finding is in line with Atiyyah (1991).
> Inadequate venues in terms of inconvenient furniture, old equipment, and inappropriate air conditioning and heating; this is especially true in case A. Storr and Hurst (2001) who stated that appropriate facilities and resource,

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learning space, and complementary learning resources are required for good training. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) stated that training classrooms as should be functional and comfortable.

➢ Shortages of car parking spaces for participants' cars (case A).

➢ Mistreatment of the participants by some university staff, especially the security staff and some of the centres' staff.

➢ Complaints about the hospitality provided.

➢ Complaints about the variations in qualifications and work experience among trainees.

➢ Weak personality of some trainers, leading to loss of the control over the participants.

➢ Inappropriate training methods.

➢ Complaints about the wages paid to the trainers. This finding is supported by Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) and Franceschini and Terzago (1998).

Some of these findings are similar to those of Aghlia (2000), who showed that low satisfaction is evident concerning pay and benefits, training, and advancement. Further, Analoui (1999) stated that poor payment, salary, and economic incentives, certainly constitute the root of ineffectiveness at work. Franceschini and Terzago (1998) argued that participants in training programmes need to be entertained in a pleasant way. Arthur *et al*. (2003) found that the effectiveness of training appears to vary as a function of the specified training delivery method, and the skill or task being taught.

The researcher had an opportunity to review some documents in case B from many trainers to the centres' directors, demanding increased rates of pay. In addition, the researcher reviewed a document in case B entitled complaints from participants in the "skills of financial analysis training programme", which illustrated their dissatisfaction regarding hospitality, the low trainers' skills and knowledge, inappropriate venue, and uncomfortable chairs and round tables.

It was reported by department directors in both case study organisations that the continuous complaints from trainers concerned the rates paid them by the centres, especially those trainers from internal sources; they attributed this to the increasing demand for their services in both public and private sectors' training institutions in Jordan and in some Arab Gulf countries. This finding is in keeping with Kleiner and Rector (2002) and Porter and Yergin (2006) who stated that people working for public sector organisations are well aware that salaries are not individually negotiated. It is

inconsistent with Analoui (1999) who notes that poor payment, salary, and economic incentives certainly constitute the root of the ineffectiveness at work.

Another problem encountered in case study A was the surplus number of employees working as training coordinators, exceeding the number required number for the department's workload. This finding is not in line with Herschbach (1997) who considers that the selection of training administrators is needed to ensure that the most qualified individuals carry out training management.

Moreover, one respondent in case study A and another from case B claimed that there is some kind of conflict of interest in the centres as a result of the relations between some coordinators with private training institutions; these coordinators are ready to direct many of the potential trainees to register on private training programmes rather than in the programmes offered by the centres where they working in. The direct result is that the centres lose opportunities and therefore huge sums of money. The respondents added that this situation happened because of the benefits received, which include:

- ➢ Material gain as a result of working as trainers in these institutions.
- ➢ Gifts from these institutions.
- ➢ Discounts and/or free attendance on some training programmes in these institutions for their relatives and friends.
- ➢ Lack of organisational loyalty to the centres.

These are consistent with Pfeffer *et al.* (1995) who argued that higher wages send a message that the organisation values its employees; accordingly, where employees do not receive such a message, they feel under-valued and legitimate in their actions to place their loyalties elsewhere. Herschbach (1997) mentioned that administrators and trainers need incentives, so the higher pay and better working conditions are fundamental to significant enhancement in training institutions in the long term.

Other kinds of problem mentioned by the respondents in cases A and B were the complaints by trainees regarding the irrelevance of the hospitality supplied by the centres, the bad state of air-conditioning and heating, inappropriate training methods and lack of trainees' competence. This can be supported by Switzer *et al.* (2005), who stated that training course contents that are unrelated certainly produce bad outcomes in the work situation on return; and Tracey *et al.* (2001) who found that there is a strong

relationship between training environment and training outcomes. ISO 10015 requires that a full set of resources is available in the training setting.

The interviewees in both case study organisations pointed out that they depend on their personal experience in dealing with problems raised by both trainers and trainees. They attributed this to the absence of any specific formal institutional mechanism and/or systematic procedure established by the centres to determine how to deal with and solve these kinds of problems.

6.3 Factors Related to Evaluation of Training Programme

Evaluation of training programmes is nonetheless particularly important as is evident from the broad range of functions which this evaluation can fulfil (Goldstein, 1993). The crucial role of training places has put pressure on organisations to develop more effective training approaches and to conduct evaluations that demonstrate a return on their training investments (Richard, 2009). Goldstein (1993, p.65) defines training evaluation as "the systematic collection of descriptive and judgmental information necessary to make effective training decisions related to the selection, adoption, value, and modification of various instructional activities".

6.3.1 Importance of Training Evaluation

All respondents within both case study organisations agreed that the participants' reaction towards training programmes is very important and must be observed by trainers. The reason is that these reactions are the basis for measuring the trainers' competencies and the levels of participants' satisfaction with the content, training methods used, the climate of training and the administrative issues related to the training programmes.

Trainees who have positive attitudes toward training are self-assured that they can achieve well in training, in addition to the importance of trainee motivation to the effectiveness of training (Dierdorff *et al.,* 2010; and Gutherie and Schwoerer, 1994).

The respondents added that this helps trainers to make the required modifications and adaptations to their programmes. It is also critical for the training providers (centres) to develop a training service which strengthens their competitive advantage. This complies with the argument of many authors such as Goldstein (1993), Tracey (1992), and Dubinsky *et al.* (2001); indeed, Atiyyah (1991) argued that the evaluation methods used

in Arab training institutes are highly subjective and their results have limited usefulness for improving on-going programmes or designing new programmes.

6.3.2 Evaluation Methods

The respondents in both case study organisations indicated that they use one or more methods to explore and identify participants' reactions toward training programmes. The findings revealed that one of the trainers usually asks participants questions at the end of each session to learn how trainees react towards the programme. This finding is consistent with Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2008) who indicated that the trainees' reactions regarding training goals, content, material, trainers, environment and training process are crucial in evaluating training effectiveness.

Two of the respondents reported that they observe the participants' body language and attendance in gauging their reaction. This is in keeping with the findings of Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) who found that the use of a questionnaire, and observation, were the most common training evaluation techniques used by Kuwaiti organisations; moreover it was confirmed by some interviewees that they use direct questions as a method to explore participants' opinions regarding the training programmes.

Furthermore, training evaluation can be utilised to discern the achievement of training objectives and the effectiveness of trainers, as well as identify those participants who benefited the most from the programme (Dubinsky *et al.,* 2001). Responses by interviewees in both case study organisations indicated that they use an evaluation form designed by the centres for the evaluation of their programmes. The form contains sections on the trainers, programmes' content, and the services provided by the training departments.

The respondents added that this form was the only formal tool used for evaluating training programmes; the forms are usually distributed by the training coordinators at the centres in the last 15 minutes of the final session, and collected by the coordinators after completion by the participants. This finding is in keeping with Hashim (2001) and Atiyyah (1991) who argued that most training programmes are usually evaluated only at the reaction level associated with the terms happiness sheet or smile sheet, because reaction feedback is mostly obtained through a participatory questionnaire administered at the end of a training programme.

Many respondents in both case study organisations thought that tests were the best tools to evaluate the training programmes and the extent of their effectiveness, an appropriate means to measure the participants' knowledge and skills gained through the programmes. This is consistent with Birdi's (2005) observation that post-training questionnaires, which are usually completed by the trainee, are typically used to assess the quality, or effectiveness of training. Kirkpatrick's evaluation model (1996) indicated that the measurement of learning level is made through special standardised tests at the end of the training programme, such as pre- and post-tests, paper-and-pencil tests, skill practice, workshops and job simulation.

Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) found that the use of a questionnaire and observation, were the most common evaluation techniques used by Kuwaiti organisations, and ASTD (1997) reported that more than 90% of 300 US organisations used a questionnaire to evaluate training programmes. Atiyyah (1991) stated that the most widely used method is the questionnaire immediately after the programme is completed.

Some of the respondents added that group discussions and questions are good methods of evaluation in addition to the tests, because they assess ability to determine the acquired knowledge and skills. This finding is in line with that mentioned by authors such as Kirkpatrick (2006), Yiu and Saner (2005) and Linghame *et al*. (2006) who all recommended the pre-test and post-test method.

All respondents within both case study organisations confirmed that they did not practice any form of communication with the participants' supervisors and/or employers at the evaluation stage because the centres have no communication policy which might encourage this. One of the respondents stated that no communication took place between him and the participants' supervisors during his dealings with the centre as a trainer for five years. This finding contradicts the ideas put forward by authors such as Bennett and Leduchowicz (2007) who concluded that trainers should be more pervasive and perceptible and there should be more contact between trainers and clients and trainees' managers. Baldwin and Ford (1988) and Noe and Schmitt (1986) argued that support from top management and supervisors' for trainees influences training effectiveness.

Evaluating training outcomes is a crucial component of the learning process (Mann and Robertson, 1996). Additionally, Campbell (1998) places great importance on training evaluation as a major means of setting objectives for the training.

All training programme coordinators in both case study organisations confirmed that they evaluate of all their programmes through evaluation forms accredited by the centres' administration. These forms contain sections related to the trainers, programme content, and the services provided by the training departments. They added that the forms are distributed to the trainees at the end of the last sessions in each programme. This finding is consistent with Kirkpatrick (2006) and Bimpitsos and Petridou (2012), who stressed the importance of training evaluation and considered it as an integral part of training.

The researcher concluded that the evaluation forms used by both centres focused on measuring trainee reactions, but not the degree of learning, skills and abilities gained, or improvement in knowledge and attitudes. This is not in line with Tracey et al. (1995) and Kirkpatrick (2008) who indicated that training evaluation should measure the outcomes of the training and the transfer and application of what has been learned to the workplace.

The researcher was able to access the evaluation forms used in both centres, and also had the opportunity to attend the final sessions in two programmes to observe how participants dealt with the form. Some were not sufficiently serious about the forms, one participant completing both his own form and another for his friend who was absent; another two participants completed the form in just 3-4 minutes, while the coordinator expected that the process to take at least 10-15 minutes.

6.4 Factors Related to Equipment used in Training Programmes

Equipment can be considered as one of the key features in any organisation, which if adequately provided for, will play a significant role in the organisation's success (Jinks, 1997).

6.4.1 Availability of Equipment

Respondents in both case study organisations indicated that the available equipment included overhead projectors, fixed wallboards, data show, flipcharts, video and TV,

and computers; in case A, most of the equipment in the centre was reported to be old and in insufficient quantity.

The available equipment is, to a certain extent, suitable for the training programmes conducted, as it is simple to operate. However, respondents in case A commented on notable shortages of audiovisual equipment and the absence of the high-tech equipment such as computerized boards and well-equipped labs. This was in addition to the poor allocation of training venues and inadequate furniture. This finding does not support the argument of Treven (2003), described above. Appropriate advanced technology and media aids play a vital role in attracting trainees' attention and communicating content, in addition to offering a variety of training delivery methods.

In fact, during the interviews conducted in case A, the researcher had a chance to observe the lack of advanced technology equipment and the inappropriate situation of most of the venues in terms of size and design, air conditioning, and the age of the furniture.

The vast majority of respondents in both case A and case B indicated that they are the ones who select the equipment with which to present the training materials. This selection is determined by several variables such as the availability of equipment, their ability to deal with and use it, and ease of use. This finding was supported by Lucas (2005), who found that employees usually prefer to perform their tasks using traditional procedures and work methods rather than new ones, and perceive the adoption of a new approach as risky and problematic. Atiyyah (1991) confirmed that most Arab trainers have limited or no experience in using advanced training methods. On the other hand, this finding is not in line with Bimbitsos and Petridou (2012), De Cenzo and Robins (1996) and Yaghi (2008) who stressed that the media aids equipment to be used in presenting the training material are among the basic factors which should be taken into consideration when designing any training programme.

6.5 Factors Related to Trainees' Expectations

Most of the respondents in case A and case B indicated that they did not know the expectations of the participants in their programmes, nor did they make any kind of investigation into these expectations. This finding was in contrast to that of Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999), Cheng and Ho (1998) and Holton and Baldwin (2003) who all found a clear link between expectations and training outcomes. Respondents indicated

many reasons for this situation. The first reason was that the trainers basically were not involved in the selection process of the participants, and accordingly lacked the opportunity to identify the trainees' expectations.

The second reason was that the trainers supposed that the participants were themselves responsible for knowing the goals and content of the training programmes in which they registered. This finding is inconsistent with Schraeder (2009) who stressed that, if participants in a training programme are viewed as customers, and steps are taken to increase the training experience by not only meeting but exceeding the trainees' expectations, and then the effectiveness of the training may be improved. Odiorne and Rummler (1988) pointed out that the quality of the training outcomes is based on the training-needs assessment data; if the training needs have not been appropriately assessed, then the design of the programme will not meet the expectations of participants. Vermeulen (2002), Holton and Baldwin (2003) and Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) also stressed the need for the training to match what was required in the trainees' work context.

An interesting issue was highlighted by one of the respondents in case study A who claimed that he usually asks the participants many questions regarding the programme's content and the subjects they expected to be delivered through it, in the first 15 minutes of the programme. This is the best method to help trainers to design the training methods, materials and to prepare the environment. Additionally, this respondent stated that knowing and understanding these expectations helped the trainers to understand the differences among trainees; these differences affect the training process, including the design of training, methods, the evaluation tools, and other training activities. This finding is supported by Guald and Miller (2004) who concluded that listening, questioning, and communication skills are among the major attributes of a trainer.

The researcher had an opportunity to attend three training sessions in both case study organisations during the data collection process. He concluded from his observations that the respondents demonstrated a lack of awareness of the importance of the expectations of trainees, as well as of their attitudes and needs, and the necessity to understand these expectations and needs. Further, the researcher was able to access documents in the centres' files relating to some trainers' CVs; they indicated that the vast majority of respondents in both case study organisations had not attended any

training programmes related to the field of training, training skills, and training of trainers.

6.6 Factors Related to Administrative Issues

6.6.1 Planning Training Events

Respondents in case study A and case study B asserted that the centres make "annual training plans", which are in fact a handbook listing the programmes provided for the year from January to December. The handbook is divided into sections, each one containing several programmes in a particular field of knowledge. The handbook also shows the date of the programme, the registration fees, and the training hours. This finding is consistent with Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who found that the trainees' employers appreciate the training service when it is clearly described (especially in the case of a training programme sold "on catalogue"); they also appreciate fairness of selling price, precise definition of the training targets, ease of access, and timeliness.

Regarding the preparation of the handbook, the respondents in both case A and case B pointed out that they asked departmental coordinators to send their suggestions for programme titles and topics they think. Once the suggestions have been approved by the directors, they review and revise them and before sending the package to be printed.

The director in case A reported that the department had not issued a handbook for the year 2012, because he lacked the knowledge and experience to do this and because he had not been alerted by the centre's administration to prepare such a plan. He added that this situation was a result of instability in the centre's administrative level. This finding does not support the view of Schraeder (2009) who stated that training brochures, promotional materials, and communication with trainees must reflect a high level of professionalism, which permeates every aspect of training. Farnham (1994) concluded that the lack of leadership in training matters can cause barriers to training.

The director added that he is performs many tasks and duties at the same time, including those of training department director, teaching four courses at the Business School (full load of 12 credit hours/semester) since he became an assistant professor in the UJ, acting as trainer in the centre and some external training institutions, and as co-director of the private training centre which he co-owns. This finding supports Hooper and Potter (2000) and Farnham (1994) who stressed that the absence of an appropriate structure will create difficulties in training.

Additionally, the two training department directors in both case studies indicated that they have never attended any courses in the area of training, training management, or administration of training organisations. They confirmed that there is no job description or job specification for training directors or coordinators of training programmes. This situation leads them to ask coordinators to repeat previous programmes with small changes. This finding is not in line with the thinking of authors such as Herschbach (1997), Gauld and Miller (2004) and Atiyyah (1991), who all indicated the importance of training the staff of training institutions.

The researcher observed, during his visits to case study A, that the training department director had not been in his office for 16 times out of the 20 visits to case A made by the researcher; it took the researcher four further attempts to meet him.

6.6.2 Managing Training Events

The two department directors in case A and case B explained that the promotion of training programmes offered by the centres was achieved in the specific way followed by the centres over many years. The process consists of several procedures:

- ➢ Prepare an advertisement giving information about the programmes the centres are willing to offer.
- ➢ Send the document to the university vice president for administrative and financial affairs for approval.
- ➢ The centre sends the approved advertisement to one or more local daily newspapers, and sometimes to another weekly newspaper.

The above procedures reflect the highly centralized administrative approach of the universities in which these centres are located.

The centres also prepare promotional letters and faxes to be sent to most of the public and private sector organisations in Jordan, as well as phoning some organisations and utilizing the centres' websites to promote their programmes.

Each director in case A and case B revealed that their departments are part of the organisational structure of the whole centre, which consists of two departments in each: the training and consultation departments. At the top of each centre's hierarchy is the director of the centre, followed by the directors of the two departments. In case A there

is an assistant director with nine training coordinators, but in case B there is no assistant director and only seven coordinators.

In both case study organisations, the directors indicated that the programme venues and the expected costs of the programmes (expenditure on trainers' wages, hospitality and stationery, with an expected profit of 30-40% for each programme) are the major determinants of the participation fees and capacity of the programmes. In other words, they stated that these are the only criteria for determining the number of trainees and the fees, which in turn means that there is an absence of systematic and scientific criteria to determine either the appropriate number of participants for each programme or the registration. This finding is inconsistent with Francesschini and Terzago (1998) who stated that fairness of training programmes' selling price, and well organised and managed programmes, are among the fundamental requirements for successful training.

This was supported by both directors, who highlighted that many programmes have to be cancelled because the minimum number of registered participants has not been reached, whose fees will cover the expected costs and the profit target. This finding supports the conclusion of Abu-Arqoub (2008) who stated that certain social, managerial, economic and political factors imposed constraints on the management of training institutions in Jordan and in most third world countries, and hampered the achievement of training programmes. Cancellation of programmes has the following consequences:

> Centres lose the trust relationships of clients, which in turn threatens the whole picture at each centre.
> Centres lose a significant number of opportunities, resulting in wasted effort and loss of potential revenues and profit, regardless of the ratios determined by the university administrations.
> This situation will improve competitors' opportunities, especially those in the private sector who have more flexibility in financial issues in terms of acceptable profit.

Both directors indicated the absence of an effective reward system for participation in training programmes, the only concessions being 10-20% discounts to existing university staff and their families; and a 10% discount for organisations sending more than two trainees on the same programme. This absence of an effective reward system is due to the irrational regulations set by the universities' administration. This finding was

in contrast to that of Elangonovan and Karakowsky (1999), Cheng and Ho (1998) and Holton and Baldwin (2003) who all found a clear link between reward and expectations from training.

6.6.3 Communication with Clients

Moreover, the directors in both case study organisations (theoretically) agreed on the importance of communication with the trainees and their supervisors and/or employers. The departmental directors pointed out that there is no communications between them and participants or with participants' employers and supervisors at any stage.

The reasons stated by the respondents for the lack of such communication include the absence of encouragement by the centres, the ignorance of the centres' administration of the importance of such communication, and the absence of a policy of communication with trainees and employers. This finding was in contrast to that of Schraeder (2009) who argued that training could be strengthened by providing contact information on other participants, and encouraging them to communicate and network after the training. Schraeder (2009) added that, in addition to obtaining contact information, trainers could ask participants to provide information related to key knowledge and skills that would help each other.

The only communication between the centres and the trainees' supervisors and employers was related to financial claims for participants' registration fees; occasionally, employers enquired about the attendance of a participant for leave purposes.

6.6.4 Services to Trainers and Trainees

Regarding the services provided by the centres to both participants and trainers during the training programmes, the two departments' directors indicated that they include:

> ➢ Folders distributed to each trainee contain the training material, pen, typed schedule, and a notebook.
> ➢ Hospitality provided for both trainers and trainees, consisting of sandwiches and soft drinks on the first day and last days. Soft drinks were also provided during breaks throughout the programme. In case A, the centre used to give each trainer and participant 10 or 15 coupons to be used in the centre's cafeteria for tea or coffee, but this service ceased in March 2010 in order to

reduce the costs. This finding is consistent with Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who indicate that want to be entertained in a satisfying way.

➤ Stickers for free car parking given to the trainers to enable them to park on the campus. The trainees are given another form of sticker allowing them to use the students' car parking free for the period of the programme, as approved by Franceschini and Terzago (1998).

➤ In case A, IDs provided to the trainers and trainees allowing them to use the university's library facilities during the period of the programme. This is consistent with the ideas of Storr and Hurst (2001), who said that appropriate library facilities must be considered as one of the aspects of successful training.

➤ Stamped certificates given on the last day of the programme to each participants, showing the participant's name, the training programme's title, the total number of training hours, and the programme dates. This finding is in line with Franceschini and Terzago (1998) who argued that a participant likes to be given an attendance certificate.

6.7 Limitations of the Research

During the period of this research, efforts were made to ensure the collection of high-quality data to answer the research questions and achieve the research aim and objectives. Every research study is limited by the constraints placed upon the researcher (Yin, 2003), and this study is no exception. In this research work, as a result of these limitations:

- This research has been restricted to only two training centres in two public universities, so the generalisation of the findings is limited to the selected cases.
- This study was not intended to include the trainees and trainees' supervisors and/or employers, so the responses from the trainers and training programme coordinators and training administrators may provide an unbalanced picture of the overall experience.
- There was a lack of literature on the factors influencing training programmes in general and in particular within the Jordanian context.
- There was a lack of empirical studies previously conducted in this area of research.

- During the data collection period, the researcher was only able to make observations over a short time (only during the interviews).

- Some of the documents were restricted within the case study organisations and the researcher was only able to peruse them on the premises as it was not possible to obtain copies.

- It may be difficult to reconcile the differences between the respondents` answers and assess how representative they are (Saunders *et al.,* 2007). To overcome this, the researcher used other sources of information such as documents and archival material, in addition to observation.

- The research may be overly influenced by the personal views of the scholar (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin 2003), so any potential shortcomings in this study may be the result of bias (Easterby-Smith *et al.,* 2007). This limitation was considered during the data collection and analysis, and the efforts to avoid biased in the collection phase were explained in chapter 4.

- The large amount of data collected during the interviews may have led to missing important information or the over-weighting of some findings, due to focusing on particular issues and neglecting others which may have been important (Saunders *et al.,* 2007). This limitation was addressed by entering the collected data into two matrices, a strategy that minimised the risk of missing important information.

- During the interviews the researcher may give out unconscious signals/clues that guide respondents to give the answers expected by the researcher (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This was avoided as much as possible by the researcher keeping himself neutral and giving the interviewees sovereignty to answer the questions (Saunders *et al.,* 2007).

- While interviewing respondents, the researcher had no way of knowing whether they were being truthful or otherwise. Respondents may not consciously conceal information, but may have imperfect recall. This could be one of the limitations of this research as the interviewees were asked questions about experiences that occurred a long time previously. This limitation was minimised by the number of respondents (15 in case A and 13 in case B), ensuring that interviewees were different in terms of their experiences and the time period involved. Other sources of data were used for triangulation.

- Another limitation concerned the lack of ability to tape record the interviews, for cultural and personal constraints. This could have resulted in missing important information, so the researcher tried to write as much as possible during the interview and then, immediately afterwards, devoted sufficient time to record all pieces of information and ideas while they were easy to recall.

6.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the findings from the two case study organisations were discussed in the light of the literature reviewed in chapter two. Many factors which influence the quality of training programmes, related to designing, implementing, evaluating training programmes, and the equipment used, the trainees' expectations, and administrative factors, were discussed in detail. The next chapter will describe the achievement of the research aim and objectives. The limitations of this research and its contributions to knowledge will also be addressed. The chapter will conclude the thesis by offering an overall conclusion and recommendations for future research.

Chapter Seven

Conclusions and Recommendations

7.0 Chapter Introduction

This is the last chapter of the thesis in which the conclusions are drawn. This chapter includes revisiting the aim and objectives of this study, and the research questions. It also contains the contributions to knowledge and practice, recommendations for further research and practical recommendations.

7.1 Conclusions

This section demonstrates how the aim and objectives of the study have been achieved. Moreover, answers to the research questions are provided.

7.1.1 Meeting the aim and objectives, and answering the research questions

The main research questions (section 1.3) were answered by achieving the aim and objectives of this study. The aim of this research was *"to identify and investigate the key factors that influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan"*. This aim has been accomplished effectively by addressing the research objectives as follows:

The first objective of this study was *"to critically review the relevant literature on training in order to understand training philosophies theories and practices, and the factors which influence the quality of training programmes"*. This objective was achieved by synthesising knowledge through a critical literature review (chapter 3). The literature covered issues related to training, these being the concepts and definitions of training, the importance and benefits of training; types of training, factors influencing the quality of training programmes which included the factors related to designing, implementing, evaluating, equipment, trainees' expectations and attitudes, and administrative factors. All the factors influencing the quality of training were identified and summarised in chapter 2. Based on a wide ranging review of the literature, the factors were listed and illustrated, and thus, the first objective was effectively achieved. This offered the answer to the first research question *"What are the factors influencing the quality of training programmes?"*

The second objective was *"to conduct an empirical study within the training centres in the Jordanian public universities' context in order to understand the factors influencing the quality of training programmes"*. In order to meet this objective, two case studies were conducted to gather relevant and required information about the factors

influencing training programmes. The methods of data collection chosen as appropriate were semi-structured interviews with trainers and training staff (training programme coordinators and training department directors), following an appropriately prepared interview protocol (Appendices 2 and 3). Documents, archival records and direct observation were used to triangulate the interview findings, which improved the validity of this research. It should be stated that meeting this objective was highly dependent on the first objective having been achieved. This offered the answer to the second research question *"How do these factors influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan?"*

The third objective was to explore and explain how and why these factors (mentioned in chapter 7, section 7.1.1) influenced the quality of training programmes in the training centres in public universities in Jordan. These factors included those related to design, implementation, evaluation, equipment, trainees' expectations and attitudes, and administrative factors. In order to meet this objective, the findings from the case study organisations were categorised, and thereafter analysed using the narrative technique of Explanation Building (chapter 4, section 4.12) to interpret and present the findings in a meaningful form (chapter 5). Furthermore, by utilizing direct observations, various documents and archival materials were retrieved from the two case organisations, and data triangulation was achieved. Accordingly, the factors related to: design of training programmes; implementation of training; evaluation of training; equipment used in training; and the administrative factors were explained in terms of identifying reasons why these factors influenced the quality of training programmes in both CSOs, thus securing the third objective. Therefore, this offered the answer to the third research question *"Why do these factors influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan?"*

Finally, by meeting the three research objectives, the main research aim of identifying and investigating the factors that influence the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in Jordan was achieved.

7.2 Major Contributions to Knowledge

This study has made significant original contributions to knowledge at academic and practical levels as the first explanatory empirical study. The following sections present the main academic and practical contributions made by this research.

7.2.1 Academic Contributions

For scholars, these are the academic contributions made by this study:

- One main original contribution of this research is an in-depth understanding of the factors influencing the quality of training programmes. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, a review of the literature in the field of the quality of training programmes revealed the need for more empirical research, and therefore, this study integrates and extends the studies conducted in this area which addressed the issue of the quality of training in general and training programmes in particular. Accordingly, this study is the first study that has been carried out in Jordan into the factors influencing the quality of training programmes.

- Little attention has been devoted to the quality of training practices in the context of the public sector (Elhasan, 2006; Phillips, 1997; Macy and Izumi, 1993; Kirkpatrick, 1987). Moreover, no attention has been paid to this area in the context of training centres in public universities. Thus, this study contributes to knowledge as being the first explanatory empirical study carried out into the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities. Therefore, the study promotes and improves understanding of the factors influencing the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities and enhances and fills gaps in the literature.

- Previous studies that have focused on training were mainly considered from different cultural contexts from that of Jordan; therefore, another major contribution has been made. The findings of this study have added to existing theories by extending the amount of knowledge about training practices, but in a new context.

- The review of the literature in the field of quality in training programmes has revealed a methodological gap because most of the previous studies have used a quantitative approach and have lacked an in-depth empirical investigation. This study has been conducted by adopting a case study strategy and a qualitative approach, which has enabled an in-depth understanding of the factors influencing the quality of training programmes. Therefore, this study is considered to be the first to use these approaches and to provide a richer appreciation in this area.

- This is the first study regarding the factors influencing the quality of training programmes provided by training centres in public universities that provides explanations of how and why these factors affect the quality of training programmes activities. Therefore, this study has helped to bridge the gap in the knowledge in general and particularly in Jordan.

- This study has made another contribution to knowledge by emphasizing a number of factors such as cultural, organisational, and trainee-related factors that need to be taken into account when studying the phenomenon of training programmes in developing countries.

- This study has responded to the recommendations of many researchers such as Mendonca (2001), Clark *et al.* (1993), Tracey *et al.* (2001), Boints (2004) and Agnaia (1996), who have emphasised the need for more studies in the field of training in general, and in developing and Arabic countries in particular.

- It is also the first academic study of training organisations in Jordan. Additionally, no previously published case study research has examined this topic in Jordan. Therefore, it is hoped that it provides a basis for the development of further scientific research in this area.

- Kontoghiorghes (2001) confirmed that research concerned with successful training has, in many respects, been theoretical and non-empirical. Furthermore, no attention has previously been paid to the factors influencing training programmes provided by the training centres in public universities in general and the Arab world in particular (Al-Haj, 2006). Therefore, this empirical research will add a significant contribution to the knowledge in this field.

- Many authors such as Huq (2005) stated that there are very few empirical studies that concentrate mainly on quality management in the service sector. Furthermore, the studies which have addressed quality in higher education are relatively few and it is highly recommended that researchers and scholars should conduct more empirical work to expand the knowledge about this subject. This empirical study has made a contribution to knowledge by increasing understanding by way of explaining the factors which influence the quality of training programmes provided by training centres in public universities.

Some different factors which have not previously featured in the literature have emerged from the data collected which mark this study as unique. These factors which influence the quality of training programmes include:

- The absence of a systematic policy regarding communication between trainers, training administrators and trainees' supervisors/employers at any stage of the training process except for financial claims.

- The absence of a systematic institutional approach regarding the selection of trainers, additionally, that favouritism and kinship appear to be a basis for selecting the trainers.

- The absence of involvement by the trainees' supervisors and/or employers, and other key persons such as human resources managers and training managers in the design, monitoring, and evaluation stages of training programmes conducted in both centres.

- The lack of training for trainers, especially in training skills-related areas such as training design, training needs assessment, training evaluation, training methods, and the technical skills required to utilize the audio-visual equipment and advanced technology.

- The lack of quality awareness among trainers and training administrators which resulted as a consequence of the absence of knowledge related to the quality in training programmes, and the absence of training opportunities for them, especially training focused on quality standards and principles, and quality applications in training activities.

- Accordingly, the imbalance between current practices and quality considerations in the management of training programmes were existed in both centres. These practices were typically handled by training programme coordinators in a style which lacked any consideration of quality and depended on what they were used to doing in this area.

- The absence of systematic criteria for selecting participants in training programmes.

- The absence of team spirit and the poor level of commitment among workers in both centres, in addition to low morale because of the absence of effective management and the lack of an effective system of performance assessment.

7.2.2 Practical Contributions and Recommendations

The findings of this research have revealed several important implications for training professionals. Furthermore it could be argued that, from a practical point of view, this study has provided several managerial contributions. As many organisations, especially those in developing and Arab countries, have achieved poor levels of success from their training programmes; this research is valuable because it has been able to provide useful guidelines to explain the factors that could enhance the quality of training in general and training programmes conducted in training centres in public universities in particular.

Accordingly, professionals can derive a better understanding of the factors influencing the quality of training programmes and what they need to focus on in order to improve the quality of training programmes.

Understanding the factors influencing the quality of training programmes can help practitioners to develop an effective approach to changing current practices that inhibit the quality of training programmes in public universities. Investigation of these factors will help training organisations to identify weaknesses and barriers in management practices, and provide potential solutions to poor training practices and hence, the allocation of necessary resources to achieve successful implementation of quality in training practices.

Therefore, the factors identified in this study can be used as an important guide for training institutes in public universities to improve the future quality of the training services in public universities. The study provides several recommendations for these purposes (Section 7.3).

With regard to Jordanian government organisations, this study could be of help in persuading them of the significance of quality in training practices and of the need to develop workable and practical policies for the improvement of the long term performance of training institutes in public universities by effective training activities administration.

Some unique factors were identified in this study. These factors, which influence the quality of training programmes in the training centres in public universities in Jordan include:

- The lack of appropriate training for managerial skills and other critical skills for training coordinators and the centre administrators, especially skills in the field of training programme design, evaluation, planning, leadership, communication and follow up skills.

- The constraints and restrictions imposed on the management of the centres by the Universities' administration, which restricted them from offering creative policies and procedures that might strengthen their competitiveness.

- The absence of effective supervision for training programme coordinators, in addition to the lack of time devoted by the directors to their responsibilities in both case organisations.

- The failure to install complete management information systems including a detailed and updated database in both centres containing information regarding the trainers, training programmes details, details of trainees who have participated in previous programmes including their addresses, names and addresses of clients and any other related information.

- The absence of any official job descriptions and job specifications for jobs in both centres.

- The absence of effective recruitment and selection systems in both centres, which resulted in favouritism as a basis for many of the staff recruited.

- Lack of appropriate facilities needed for training such as conference rooms, sophisticated technological training equipment, good furniture and adequate classrooms, and appropriate air conditioning and heating, especially in case A.

Interestingly, this research has revealed that there is no formal body that accredits, controls, and organises the practices of training institutes as well as the trainers in both public and private sectors in Jordan.

7.3 Recommendations for Practice

The findings of this study, which have revealed several important issues related to the quality of training programmes conducted in both case study organisations, are presented in chapter 5. Due to the absence of an official body that accredits, regulates and oversees the training institutions in Jordan, there is an adverse effect on quality at the training institutions.

Accordingly, the government of Jordan should create a specialized formal body to regulate, supervise, and license training services organisations, and provide follow-up activities including the approval of trainers according to scientific and professional standards and specific rules. Such a body would contribute to organizing, adjusting, and controlling training events in particular and the overall training sector at Jordanian national level.

Training activities in general need to be considered seriously. Trainers, and training programme coordinators and administrators need to be knowledgeable, well-trained, well-educated and experienced.

With regard to the evaluation of training programmes, more attention and effort are required. There is a need to evaluate training programmes by using evaluation models such as that of Kirkpatrick, tests, and other models, rather than relying on a "happy sheet" and the final certificate from the Centres.

Both centres should generate quality awareness policies where all their members should be committed to adopting and implementing relevant quality standards at all stages of the training programmes. This recommendation could be accomplished through effective processes including systematic procedures such as building appropriate organisational structures, developing organisational cultures based on quality values, continuous development of human resources in both centres, and developing the existing work policies and procedures.

There is a need to establish clear and agreed job descriptions and job specifications for jobs in the centres, especially training programme coordinator and administrator posts.

It has been revealed by this study that the follow-up of trainees' supervisors was almost totally missing in addition to a weak follow-up action by training coordinators and administrators for the trainees both during and at the end of programmes. This issue has had a great influence on training programme in many ways. Therefore, this issue could be overcome by an effective monitoring system.

Centres should develop and adopt an effective system for recruitment and selection of training programme coordinators and administrators based on the qualifications and skills required to meet the specified tasks and duties in the job description, which should be part of the administrative system mentioned in the next recommendation. Such a

system will help in obtaining qualified staff able to manage and carry out the tasks assigned to them.

With respect to the absence of proper training activities designed to develop coordinators and administrators skills, knowledge, abilities and attitudes in both centres in order to enhance their capabilities in work place, the researcher recommends the establishment of an effective training path for coordinators and training administrators which would ensure the building of competence and would provide them with the skills, capabilities, knowledge, and attitudes required for their jobs.

Consequently, such training would enable them to understand the training process, achieve effective supervise on, manage the implementation of the training programmes offered within centres, and be professionally involved in most stages of the training process such as design and evaluation of programmes.

It could be concluded from the responses obtained by the researcher, especially those from the training programme coordinators in both centres, that the Directors of the Department of Training (DDT) in both cases should be appointed based on qualifications and fit with the requirements of the jobs to which they are assigned.

Further, DDTs should also be fully dedicated to the job rather than the current practice which depends on the part-time appointment of directors who perform several functions at the same time.

One of the obstacles mentioned by the directors in both centres was the centralised decision making practice in the two universities, so there is a need to devolve more power and authority from the universities' administration to the centres' administrations to ensure more independence and flexibility for the centres' decisions and practices.

Accordingly, the directors added that sufficient devolved powers would help in the development of work activities in addition to minimizing interference by the universities' administration into numerous decisions and practices of the centres such as the centres' staff recruitment decisions, financial rates paid to trainers, hospitality, and rewards for trainees and training coordinators.

With regard to the trainers' selection process, the centres should utilize a systematic recruitment and selection process. This process should be dependent upon formal procedures, taking into consideration educational qualifications, experience, and skills

including communication skills, training related skills such as training needs assessment, design training, training methods, training evaluation techniques, and some personality traits.

Developing an effective administrative system depends on clear job descriptions, determined communication channels, organized training paths, standardized performance evaluation, and determined responsibility and accountability; such a system would lead to improvement in the performance level of staff in both centres in order to develop employees' compliance with work standards.

Furthermore, the system should help integrate and involve the centres' external clients in the training process, including the design, implementation, and evaluation of programmes and participants.

Finally, it has also been revealed by this research that the involvement of related parties (trainers, trainees, trainees' supervisors, training coordinators and administrators, and others) in designing and evaluating training programmes was almost totally absent, and this situation resulted in poor quality training programmes. This problematic situation could be overcome by establishing a systematic approach to conducting training practices.

7.4 Recommendations for Further Research

This research has been conclusive, but has also led to some unanswered questions relating to training in Jordan in general, and factors influencing training programmes in public universities in particular and, as such, it represents a beginning rather than an end. Further studies are therefore required to extend this research and to help improve the quality of training activities in Jordan. Therefore, a number of recommendations are made for future research. They are:

- As this study was concentrated on and limited to two public Jordanian Universities, it is recommended that future efforts should involve a larger number of such organisations which could strengthen the findings of this study in order to learn whether generalisation of the findings is possible beyond this setting.
- A comparison with factors affecting the quality of training programmes in training centres in Jordan's private universities to investigate whether there is

an effect of the sector to which they belong on practices/quality of training programmes.

- A comparison of factors affecting quality in a wider range of training programmes rather than specifically managerial and financial training programmes to see whether the subject of the training has any impact.

- Replication of this study in other Jordanian public sector training institutes such as the National Training Institute, and training centres in some ministries which might yield understanding of those contexts.

- The researcher recommends further research to study the phenomenon of the quality of training from the perspectives of trainees and their employers.

- The researcher recommends further research to investigate other factors such as culture, job related factors of trainees and environmental factors which influence the quality of training programmes in public universities in Jordan.

- Research into the factors influencing the quality of training programmes in training centres in public universities in other Arabic countries.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: The Case Study Data Protection Protocol

In order to protect the data of the Case Studies (organisations and individuals located in Jordan), the Researcher, Abdel Hakim O. Akhorshaideh, a PhD student (ID @00247890) at the University of Salford Business School – England/UK, in order to meet the requirements of the University Research Governance and Ethical Approval Committee, has developed, in compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998), a comprehensive data protection protocol with the following provisions:

1) **Permission from the Potential Case Study Organisations:** Formal permission will be obtained from the potential organisations for the purposes of their participation/contribution to the case study research based on in-depth interviews, observations of relevant meetings, etc. (if any) and study of relevant documentary evidence.

2) **Research Subjects (Interviewees) Consent**: Written and informed consent of the research subjects/interviewees will be obtained on an individual basis before conducting the actual interviews.

3) **Record of Information:** The information obtained during the interviews will be recorded either via sound recorder – subject to the written permission of the interviewees – or through notes taken on paper during the interview. To maximise its validity and authenticity, the information obtained during the interview whether through voice recorder or written notes will be clearly typed and sent to each and every interviewee for his/her review and approval.

4) **Storage, Security and Confidentiality of the Information:** The information obtained during the interviews will be stored either on an audio CD or placed in a hard plastic folder in the case of written notes/paper sheets. Similarly, all documentary evidence obtained from the case study organisations in support of the interviews will be stored appropriately. To ensure maximum security of the

electronic data stored on any medium, it will be encrypted and password protected. All this stored information in electronic or written form will be kept in the researcher's sole custody at a safe place in a cabinet with no access to anybody other than the Researcher himself in order to ensure maximum security and confidentiality of the information.

5) **Protection of Identity and Anonymity of Data**: The identity of all organisations and individuals participating in the case study research will be fully protected by the Researcher.

6) **What If an Interviewee Opts to Drop Out after Interviews**: In Case A research subject/interviewee opts to drop out after being interviewed, all the information obtained through him/her will be destroyed immediately.

7) **Length of Holding Interview Recordings and Other Documentary Evidence**: The records of interviews will be kept in the safe custody of the researcher for at least ten years from the date of interviews and thereafter all the records will be destroyed in strict confidentiality. Any documents provided by the case study organisations will also be held securely for at least ten years from the date of providing these documents by the case study organisations. Thereafter, the documents will be securely destroyed as stated in section (8) of this protocol.

8) **Secure Destruction of Records after the elapse of the Holding Period:** After the elapse of the holding period (as per sec. 7), all the case study interview recordings on paper sheet and other relevant paper documents will be destroyed by the Researcher using a paper shredder. Similarly all the case study data stored electronically such as the audio recording CD, text files, documents, etc. will also be destroyed accordingly.

9) **<u>Sharing of the Recordings</u>:** There is no intention of the Researcher to share the recordings of the case study interviews and other related documents with anyone except for the extremely rare case where the examiners of the researcher's PhD thesis might demand to see original evidence of the data collected.

Appendix 2: Questions for Interviews

Group A: Trainers

Factors	Interview Questions	Related Literature Review
1.Training Programme design	A-1-1What are the training programmes(s) you are running or have run? A1-2 Do you make a plan for the training programme? If yes, How and why? If no, why not? A1-3 How do you design the training programmes you are running? And why not? A1-4 How have you gone about identifying the participants' training needs? A1-5 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training programme? How? Why? If no, why not?	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Lingham, T. *et al.*(2006); Franceschini, M. and Terzago, F. (1998); Yiu, L. and Saner, L. (2005); Dubinsky, J. *et al*. (2001); Tannenbaum, S.I. and Woods, S.B. (1992);Sternberg, R. and Lubart, T. (1996); Tenant, M. *et al.* (2002); Tan, J.A. *et al.* (2003); Daniels, S. (2003); Noe, R.A. & Wilk, S.L. (1993); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Brotherton, J. and Evans, C. (2010); Tracey,J.B. *et al*. (1995); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Baird, L. *et al.* (1983); Tracey, J.B. *et al* (2001); Colquitt, J. *et al.* (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993); Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng, E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001) Chiaburu, S.D. and Tekleab, G.A. (2005); Buckley, R. and Caple, J. (2004).

	A1-6 Are there any criteria for selecting the participants? If yes, what are these criteria? How do you deal with these criteria? A1-7 What is your role in determining the training material? A1-8 How do you decide (choose) the material in terms of the content, size, and design? A1-9 Do you obtain any information about the participants before the training programme is started? If yes, describe the information you try to obtain, how? Why? If no, why not? A1-10 Do you take the employers' (Managers, supervisors, etc.) of the participants' satisfaction into account in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the training? If yes, how and why? If no, why not? A1-11 What are the roles of the training administrators in the design, implementation and evaluation of the training programme?	

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2. Implementation	A2-1 What are the training methods you have used?	ISO10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Dubinsky, J. *et al*. (2001); Lingham, T. *et al*. (2006); Franceschini, F. and Terzago, M. (1998); Yiu, L. and Saner, L. (2005); Daniels, S. (2003); Colquitt, J. LePine, J. A., and Noe, R.A. (2000); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Brotherton, J. and Evans, C. (2010); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Cole, G. (2002).
	A2-2 How do you use these methods?	
	A2-3 Why have you used these methods?	
	A2-4 As a trainer, what are the steps you would undertake to make the training session interesting to the participants? How? Why?	
	A2-5 What barriers might impede your implementation of the training programme? Why do these barriers occur?	
	A2-6 How do you avoid or negate these barriers?	
	A2-7 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes. in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?	

3. Evaluation	A3-1 How do you identify the participants' reaction toward the training programme? Why?	ISO10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Darby, J.A. (2007); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Lingham, T. *et al*. (2006); Stuffelbeam, D.L. (2000); Daniels, S. (2003); McCoy, M. and Hargie, O.D.W. (2001); Yiu, L. and Saner, L. (2005); Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., and Noe, R. A. (2000); Hashim, H. (2001); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Baird, L. *et al.* (1983) ; Tracey, J.B. *et al* (2001); Colquitt, J. *et al*. (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993); Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng, E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001).
	A3-2 What are the evaluation methods tools you use to measure the trainees' learning? Do you follow certain criteria for choosing these tools? If yes, what are the criteria and why? If no, why not?	
	A3-3 How do you use the evaluation tool? Why?	
	A3-4 What is the best way to measure the skills and knowledge gained from the training programme? Why?	
	A3-5Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?	
4. Equipment	A4-1 What equipment (audio visual aids) is available in the centre?	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Mathieu, J. E., Martineau, J. W. and Tannenbaum, S. I.

	A4-2 Do you believe that this equipment is suitable for the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, why? If no, why not?	(1993); Mathieu, J. E., Tannenbaum, S. I. & Salas, E. (1992). Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Chiaburu, D.S. and Tekleab, A.G. (2005); Chow, A. *et al*. (2008); Buckley, R. and Caple, J. (2004).
	A4-3 Do you use (operate) this equipment by yourself? If yes, how? If no, why not?	
	A4-4 Are you able to use (operate) all of the equipment you use in training? If no, why not?	
	A4-5 Does the centre offer technical support for the trainers? If yes, how? If no, why not?	
	A4-6 How do you select the equipment to be used in the training programme you are running or have run?	
5. Trainees: Trainees' expectations and attitudes, trainees' skills, knowledge, experience etc.	A5-1 Do you take into consideration the trainees' expectations from the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	Mathieu, J. E., Martineau, J. W. and Tannenbaum, S. I. (1993). ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Mathieu, J. E. Tannenbaum, S. I. and Salas, E. (1992).

		A5-2 How do you measure or determine the trainees' expectations?	Tannenbaum, S. I., Mathieu, J. E., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (1991); Tracey, J.B. *et al.* (1995); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Tsai, P. *et al.*(2007); Baird, L. *et al.* (1983); Tracey, J.B. *et al* (2001); Colquitt, J.A. *et al.* (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993) ; Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng, E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001); Chen, C.Y. *et al*. (2007); Tai, W.T. (2006); Chow, A. *et al.* (2008); Cole, G. (2005); Chiaburu, S.D. and Tekleab, G.A. (2005).
		A5-3 Do you consider the trainees' attitudes toward the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	
		A5-4 What are the methods you have used to assess the training needs of the trainees?	
		A5-5 Do you take into consideration the differences in the trainees' skills, knowledge, and experiences? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	
		A5-6 If you find any significant differences in the trainees' skills, knowledge, and experiences, how do you deal with them?	

Appendix 3 Questions for Interviews

Group B: Training Administrators:		
Factors	**Interview Questions**	**Related Literature Review**
1. Training Programme design	B1-1 What roles do you play in the design, implementation and evaluation stages? How do you participate in these stages? Why? B1-2 How do you choose the training material? Why? B1-3 Do you investigate the expected participants' training needs? If yes, how and why? If no, why not? B1-4 Are there any specific criteria for determining the number of participants	Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A. and Noe, R. A. (20002); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Holton, E.F. and Baldwin, T.T. (2003); Brotherton, J. and Evans, C. (2010); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Lingham, T. *et al*.(2006); Franceschini, F. and Terzago, M. (1998); Yiu, L. and Saner, L. (2005); Dubinsky, J. *et al*. (2001); Tannenbaum, S. J. and Woods, S.B. (1992); Sternberg, R. and Lubart, T. (1996); Tenant, M. *et al.* (2002); Tan, J.A. *et al.* (2003); Daniels, S. (2003); Noe, R.A. & Wilk, S.L. (1993); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Baird, L. *et al.* (1983); Tracey, J.B. *et al* (2001); Colquitt, J. *et al.* (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993) ; Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng,

		(trainees) in a training programme? If yes what are the criteria? Why? If no, why not?	E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001).
		B1-5 What are the sources you depend on to obtain the trainers?	
		B1-6 What is the best source? Why?	
		B1-7 How do you select the trainer to run the programme? Why?	
2. Evaluation		B2-1 Do you evaluate the training programmes? If yes how and why? If no, why not?	Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Tsai, P. *et al.* (2007); ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Lingham, T. *et al.*(2006); Franceschini, F. and Terzago, M. (1998); Yiu, L. and Saner, L. (2005); Dubinsky, J. *et al*. (2001); Tannenbaum, S.J. and Woods, S.B. (1992); Sternberg, R. and Lubart, T. (1996); Tenant, M. *et al.* (2002); Brotherton, J. and Evans, C. (2010); Tan, J.A. *et al.* (2003); Daniels, S. (2003); Noe, R.A. & Wilk, S.L. (1993); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Baird, L. *et al.*
		B2-2 What methods of evaluation have you used to evaluate the programmes?	
		B2-3 How does the centre measure customer satisfaction? Why?	

		(1983); Tracey, J.B. *et al.* (2001); Colquitt, J. *et al.* (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993); Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng, E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001).
	B2-4 How does the centre deal with the training programmes' evaluation outcomes? Why?	
	B2-5 How does the centre deal with/manage any unsatisfactory evaluation results for a training programme?	
	B2-6 What role do you play in the design, implementation and evaluation stages? How do you participate in these stages? Why?	
	B2-7 Does the administration of the training department in the centre make training needs assessment before designing the training programmes? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	
	B2-8 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process?	

	How? Why? If no, why not?	
3. Implementation	B3-1 What are the roles you play in implementing the training programme? Please give details. How? Why? B3-2 How do you deal with problems raised by trainees and or trainers? B3-3 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Noe, R.A. & Wilk, S.L. (1993); Tracey, J.B. *et al.* (1995); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Tracey, J.B. *et al.* (2001); Colquitt, J. *et al.* (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993); Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng, E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001).

4. Administrative	B4-1 What are the procedures you follow to promote the training programmes? How? Why?	ISO 10015; Kirkpatrick, D. (2006); Goldstein, I.L. and Ford, J.K. (2002); Brotherton, J. and Evans, C. (2010); Tracey, J.B. *et al*. (1995); Sahinidis, A.G. and Bouris, J. (2008); Baird, L. *et al.* (1983); Tracey, J.B. *et al.* (2001); Colquitt, J. *et al.* (2000); Cohen, D.J. (1990); Clark, C.S. *et al.* (1993); Facteau, J.D. *et al.* (1995); Cheng, E.W.L. and Ho, D.C.K. (2001); Buckley, R. and Caple, J. (2004).
	B4-2 Could you please explain the training management structure in the centre including the work load (how many training programmes, total of trainees, trainers)?	
	B4-3 What are the sources you depend on to obtain the trainers?	
	B4-4 What is the best source? Why?	
	B4-5 Do you have a training plan? If yes what kind of plan do you have? How do you prepare it? Who participates in the planning process?	
	B4-6 How do you determine the capacity of each training programme?	

	B4-7 How do you determine the price of training programmes?	
	B4-8 Do you offer any kinds of rewards for trainees? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	
	B4-9 What arrangements do you make regarding the programmes you provide? How? Why?	
	B4-10 What contacts you do make with trainees and trainers after finishing the programmes? How? Why?	
	B4-11 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?	
	B4-12 What services are provided by the centre to trainees and trainers during the	

	training programmes? How? Why?	

Key Factors	Interviews Questions	Tr.2	Tr.3	Tr.4	Tr.5	Tr.6	Tr.7	Tr.8	Source of evidence
Designing Training Programme.	A-1-1What are the training programmes (s) you are running or have run? A1-2 Do you make a plan for the training programme? If yes, How and why? If no, why not? A1-3 How do you design the training programmes you are	1. Public relations, Communication skills. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, content of programme, programme sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participants an idea about the topic and it organises the	1. Human resources Mgt., Skills of Time management. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, content of programme, programme sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participant an idea about the topic and it organises the session.	1. Supervision Skills, Leadership strategies, Decision making techniques. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, content of programme, programme sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participants an idea about the topic and it organises the	1. Public Relations, Human resources management. 2. No, I do copy previous schedules. I think it is not necessary. 3. I use the schedules done before. The coordinator gives me	1. Managing higher education institutions. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, subjects covered by the programme, programme sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participants an idea about the topic and it organises the session. 3. Use table	1.Strategic Planning, managerial supervision. 2. No, I feel it is useless. 3. On the first day I tell the participants about the subjects which will be discussed during the sessions. I used to follow this	1. Basics for Financial Management, Preparing and writing financial reports. 2. No, I just copy the schedules existed in the centre and distribute to participants. It is the only way most trainers use. 3. Prepare the subjects depending	Documents- schedule of training programmes. Documents related to communication with trainees supervisors.

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running? Why? A1-4 How have you gone about identifying the participants' training needs? A1-5 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training programme? How? Why? If No, Why not? A1-6 Are there any criteria for	session. 3. Resort to text books to prepare the contents of the programme. For me it is an easy and quick way. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked	3. Use table of contents in text books. I am convinced of this way. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this communication 6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the	session. 3. Use some websites to prepare the prepare the contents, and subjects covered by the programme, it is good source for doing that and easy to make cut and pace and adjust it to fit with the intended programme. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this	what she has on file and I place my name on the top of the schedule and retype it without changes. I found it easy and quick. No body cares about how you design the programme. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this communication. 6. I don't	of contents in text books. I am convinced of this way. In rare cases I use some new articles to help in designing the programme 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this communication. 6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the	way, no body asked me to make any thing else. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this communication. 6. I don't know if there are	on the contents that exist in text books and some publications. It is the most easiest way for me, I have no time to spend on preparing and designing the programme. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this communication. 6. I don't	

selecting the participants? If yes, what are these criteria? How do you deal with these criteria? A1-7 What is your role in determining the training material? A1-8 How do you decide (choose) the material in terms of the content, size, and design? A1-9 Do you obtain any information about the	or encouraged me to do this communication. 6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. I determined the training material.	participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. I determined the training material. 8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration. Yes, I have received the list of the participants' names, 2 hours before the opening of the programme.	communication. 6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. I determined the training material. 8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration. 9. No, I don't know why.	know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. I determined the training material. 8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration. 9. No, I think it is due to the carelessness	participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. The training coordinator provided me with a copy of the material. 8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration. 9. No, I don't know why. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the	any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. The training coordinator provided me with a copy of the material which was previously determined by another trainer. 8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants. 7. I determined the training material. 8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration. 9. No, I think because of the lack of communication with trainers.	

	participants before the training programme is started? If yes, describe the information you try to obtain, how? Why? If no, why not?	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	of the centre's administration.	employers.		10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	
		9. No, I don't know why.			10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.		9. No, I don't know why.		
	A1-10 Do you take the employers' (Managers, supervisors, etc.) of the participants' satisfaction into account in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the training? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.					10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.		

| Implementation of training programme | What are the training methods you have used?

A2-2 How do you use these methods?

A2-3 Why you have used these methods?

A2-4 As a trainer, what are the steps you would undertake to make the training session interesting to the participants? How? Why? | 1. I always use the lecture.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.

3. The lecture is the best method.

4. Make some jokes. It is good way to change the boring | 1. I only use the lecture.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.

3. The lecture is the best method.

4. Make some jokes in order to change the mood of trainees.

5. Insufficient and old equipment, | 1. I use the lecture method in all programmes.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.

3. The lecture is the only method I usually use. Because I cannot use any other methods.

4. Bring examples from reality. It is good way to | 1. I always use the lecture.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.

3. The lecture is the best method.

4. Give trainees 3-4 short breaks it is good to change the mood of trainees.

5. Delaying | 1. I always use the lecture.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.

3. The lecture is the best method.

4. Make some jokes. It is good way to change the boring subjects. | 1. I always use the lecture.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.

3. The lecture is the best method and the easiest one.

4. during the break, I sit with trainees in | 1. I use several methods, the lecture, case studies, role playing, and exercises.

2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants. Then give them cases to be analysed.

3. Mixed methods make some kind of diversity, more attractive and | Direct observations; the lecture is the most training methods used

Documents: Participants absence. |

Questions								
A2-5 What barriers might impede your implementation of the training programme? Why do these barriers occur? A2-6 How do you avoid or negate these barriers? A2-7 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes. in which stage of the training process? How? Why?	subjects. 5. Insufficient and old equipment, delay of many trainees, inappropriate training halls, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. Ask the careless to leave the session and	inappropriate training halls, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communication.	refresh the trainees and to communicate the subjects. 5. Insufficient and old equipment, inappropriate training halls, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness and delay of some trainees.	of trainees, Insufficient and old equipment, inappropriate training halls, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators. 7. No, no body asked	5. Inappropriate training halls, delaying of some participants, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. I can't make any thing because It is a responsibility of the centre's administratio	the canteen. This is good to break barriers between trainer and trainees. 5. Insufficient and old equipment, inappropriate training halls, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. High rate of participant	effective. 4. Make some jokes and let trainees talk about their own experience. This is good to make trainees familiar to each other. 5. Insufficient and old equipment, inappropriate training halls, differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness	Documents and archive: statements of registration, details regarding the trainees' qualifications. Archival review: Formal letters from training centres sent to Participants' employers

	If no, why not?	it is not my responsibil ity; It is a responsibil ity of the centre's administrat ors. 7. No, no body asked or encourage d me to do this communic ation.		6. I have to accept the situation as it is, It is a responsibilit y of the centre's administratio n. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communicati on.	or encouraged me to do this communicati on.	n. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communicati on.	s' absence. 6. It is a responsibil ity of the centre's administrat ors. 7. No, no body asked or encourage d me to do this communic ation.	and absentees of some trainees. 6. It is a responsibilit y of the centre's administrato rs. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communicati on.	

Evaluation	A3-1 How do you identify the participants' reaction toward the training programme? Why? A3-2 What are the evaluation methods tools you use to measure the trainees' learning? Do you follow certain criteria for choosing these tools? If yes, what are the criteria and why? If no, why not? A3-3 How do you use	1. Ask participants some questions at the end of each session. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	1. Read the participants, body language and the attendance indicator. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	1. Read the participants, body language and the attendance indicator. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	Direct observation: process of evaluation. Documents: Form of training evaluation.

	the evaluation tool? Why?		4. The tests.	4. The tests.	4. The tests.	4. The tests.		4. The tests and discussion groups.	
	A3-4 What is the best way to measure the skills and knowledge gained from the training programme? Why?	4. The tests.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	4. The tests and discussion groups.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	
		5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.					5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.		
	A3-5Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?								

Equipment	A4-1What are equipment (audio visual aids) are	Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart,	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart,	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart,	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart,	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart,	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard,	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart,	Direct Observations: most of equipment available either

Questions								Direct Observation
available in the centre?	data show, tape recorder, and computer.	data show, tape recorder, and computer.	tape recorder, and computer.	tape recorder, and computer.	data show tape recorder, and computer.	flipchart, data show, tape recorder, and computer.	data show tape recorder, and computer.	old or broken. Direct Observation: Absence of staff technician
2 Do you believe that this equipment is suitable for the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, why? If no, why not?	2. Yes, I can use most of them.	2. Yes, they are easy to use.	2. Yes, I can use the over head and wall board.	2. I think the only important one is the fixed and flipchart.	2. Yes, I need just boards. and overhead projector.	2. No, centre should provide high tech audio visual aids.	2. No, centre should provide high tech audio visual aids.	
A4-3 Do you use (operate) this equipment by yourself? If yes, how? If no, why?	3. I always use the board. Sometimes I use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself. 4. yes	3. I always use the board. Sometimes I use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself. 4. yes	3. I always use the board. Sometimes I use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself. 4. yes	3. I always use the board and data show.	3. I always use the board. Sometimes I use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself. 4. yes	3. Mostly I use flipchart, data show, and computer, they fit with the programme I implement. 4. Yes, but some times	3. 3. I always use the board. Sometimes I use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself. 4. Yes.	Observation: Bureaucracy and delay of Repairing and maintenance for equipments
4 Are you				4. I need some body				

	able to use (operate) all of the equipment you use in training? If no, why not? A4-5 Does the centre offer technical support for the trainers? If yes, how? If no, why not? A4-6 How do you select the equipment to be used in the training programme you are running or have run?	5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. Based on my desire.	5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. according to my desire and the availability of it.	5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. I prefer using the board.	to help me operating the data show. 5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. according to my desire.	5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. according to my desire.	I can't deal with some problems with data show equipment. 5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. The availability of the equipment.	5. No, no technician in the centre. 6. according to the nature of programme.	
Trainees	Do you take into consideratio	1. No, I didn't contribute	1. No, I didn't contribute in	1. No, I didn't contribute in	1. No, I didn't contribute in	1. No, I didn't contribute in	1. No, I didn't contribute	1. I tried at the beginning of	Direct observations: Trainers have

n the trainees' expectations from the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	in participants' registration and/or training needs.	participants' registration and/or training needs.	participants' registration and/or training needs.	participants' registration and/or training needs.	participants' registration and/or training needs.	in participants' registration and/or training needs.	prog. to obtain some information to help in discovering participants' expectations.	lack of awareness of trainees' expectations and attitudes
A5-2 How do you measure or determine the trainees' expectations?	2. Not applicable.	2. Not applicable.	2. Not applicable.	2. Not applicable.	2. Not applicable.	2. Not applicable.	2. By asking some questions and discuss the answers with participants. 3. To some degree.	Documents: No training for trainers related to the profession
A5-3 Do you consider the trainees' attitudes toward the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, how and	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable.	4. Not applicable. It is not my mistake to accept participant with different levels in	

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why? If no, why not?							experience and skills and qualifications.	
A5-4 What are the methods you have used to assess the training needs of the trainees?	5. No, the programme was designed and I can't change any thing.	5. No, it is not my responsibility.	5. I try to use the simple language to communicate the content to participants.	5. I can't do any thing because the programme is short.	5. it is very difficult to adopt the programme for all levels.	5. No, I go my way.		
			6. as mentioned in 5.	6. Ignore it.	6. Ignore it.		6. Try to explain some of contents which are not understandable for some participants during breaks.	
A5-5 Do you take into consideration the differences in the trainees' skills, knowledge, and experiences? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	6. Ignore it.	6. Ignore it.				6. Ignore it.		
A5-6 If you find any significant								

	differences in the trainees' skills, knowledge, and experiences, how do you deal with them?							

Appendix 5: Case Study (B) Summary of Interviewees Questions and responses

Key Factors	Interviews Questions	Tr.2	Tr.3	Tr.4	Tr.5	Tr.6	Tr.7	Tr.8	
Designing Training Programme.	A-1-1What are the training programmes (s) you are running or have run? A1-2 Do you make a plan for the training programme?	1. Public relations, Communication skills. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, content of programme, programme sessions, and breaks.	1. Human resources Mgt., Skills of Time management. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, content of programme, programme	1. Supervision Skills, Leadership strategies, Decision making techniques. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, content	1. Public Relations, Human resources management. 2. No, I do copy previous schedule. I	1. Managing higher education institutions. 2. Yes, it contains objectives, subjects covered by the programme, programme	1.Strategic Planning, managerial supervision. 2. No, I feel it is useless. 3. in the first day I tell the participants	1. Basics for Financial Management , Preparing and writing financial reports. 2. No, I just copy the schedules existed in the centre	Documents-schedule of training plans. Documents

	If yes, How and why? If no, why not? A1-3 How do you design the training programmes you are running? And why? A1-4 How have you gone about identifying the participants' training needs? A1-5 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage	It is important to give participant an idea about the topic and it organises the session. 3. Resort to text books to prepare the contents of the programme. For me it is an easy and quick way. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked	sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participant an idea about the topic and it organises the session. 3. Use table of contents in text books. I am convinced of this way. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. It is the employer or the trainee's responsibility. 5. No, no	,sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participant an idea about the topic and it organises the session. 3. Use some websites to prepare the prepare the contents, and subjects covered by the programme, it is good source for doing that and easy to make cut and pace and adjust it to fit with the intended programme.	think it is not necessary. 3. I use the schedules done before. The coordinator gives me what she has in files and I place my name on the top of the schedule and retyped it without changes. I found it easy and quick. No body cares about how you design the programme. 4. No role played in identifying trainees'	sessions, and breaks. It is important to give participant an idea about the topic and it organises the session. 3. Use table of contents in text books. I am convinced in this way. In rare cases I use some new articles to help in designing the programme 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this	about the subjects which will be discussed during the sessions. I used to follow this way, no body asked me to make any thing else. 4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs. 5. No, no body asked me to do this communication. 6. I don't know if there are any criteria for	and distribute to participant. It is the only way most trainers use. 3. Prepare the subjects depending on the contents existed in text books and some publications. It is the most easiest way for me, I have no time to spend on preparing and designing the programme. 4. No role played in identifying trainees'	related to communication with trainees' supervisors just for financial climes

of the training programme? How? Why? If No, Why not?	or encouraged me to do this communication.	body asked me to do this communication	4. No role played in identifying trainees' needs.	needs.	communication.	selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	needs.	Documents : Instructions sent by the vice presidents for administration and financial affairs at the two universities to directors to cancel any training programme that doesn't achieve the minimum financial target which is the sum of the expected costs plus a net profit not less than 40% of the total revenue of each programme.
A1-6 Are there any criteria for selecting the participants? If yes, what are these criteria? How do you deal with these criteria?	6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	5. No, no body asked me to do this communication.	5. No, no body asked me to do this communication.	6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	7. The training coordinator provided me with a copy of the material which was previously determined by another trainer.	5. No, no body asked me to do this communication.	
	7. I determined the training material.	7. I determined the training material.	6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	7. The training coordinator provided me with a copy of the material.	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	6. I don't know if there are any criteria for selecting the participants. I had no role in selecting participants.	
A1-7 What is your role in determining the training material?	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	7. I determined the training material.	7. I determined the training material.	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.		7. I determined the training material.	
A1-8 How do you decide	9. No, I	Yes, I have received the list of the	8. Based on training	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	9. No, I	9. No, I	8. Based on training programme objectives, and duration.	Documents: nothing was found in relation to any

	(choose) the material in terms of the content, size, and design? A1-9 Do you obtain any information about the participants before the training programme is started? If yes, describe the information you try to obtain, how? Why? If no, why not? A1-10 Do you take the employers' (Managers, supervisors, etc.) of the participants' satisfaction into account	don't know why. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	participants' names, 2 hours before the opening of the programme. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	programme objectives, and duration. 9. No, I don't know why. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	9. No, I think it is due to the carelessness of the centre's administration. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	don't know why. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	don't know why. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	9. No, I think because of the lack of communication with trainers. 10. No, I have no idea about the needs of the employers.	standard and/or criteria governing the selection of trainers. Observation: there is no integrated and organised data base at the two case organisations for the trainers, and if exist it is limited, old, and incomplete. .

	in the design, implementati on, and evaluation of the training? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?								
Implement ation of training programme	What are the training methods you have used?	1. I use the lecture, case study, and exercises.	1. I only use the lecture. 2. Prepare	1. I use the lecture method in all programmes.	1. I always use the lecture.	1. I always use the lecture.	1. I always use the lecture.	1. I use several methods, the lecture, case studies, and	.

Questions								Documents
A2-2 How do you use these methods?	2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.	the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.	2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.	2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.	2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.	2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants.	exercises.	
A2-3 Why you have used these methods?							2. Prepare the subject, put the headlines on the board and start discuss them in front of participants. Then give them cases to be analysed.	Documents: absence of participants
	3. The lecture is the best method.	3. The lecture is the best method.	3. The lecture is the only method I usually use. Because I cannot use any other methods.	3. The lecture is the best method.	3. it depends on many variables.	3. The lecture is the best method and the easiest one.		
A2-4 As a trainer, what are the steps you would undertake to make the training session interesting to the participants? How? Why?	4. Make some jokes. It is good way to change the boring subjects.	4. Make some jokes in order to change the mood of trainees.	4. Bring examples from reality. It is good way to refresh the trainees and to communicate the	4. Give trainees 3-4 short breaks it is good to change the mood of trainees.	4. Make some jokes. It is good way to change the boring subjects.	4. During the break, I sit with trainees in the canteen. This is good to break barriers between trainer and trainees.	3. Mixed methods make some kind of diversity, more attractive and effective.	Documents: participants complaints
A2-5 What barriers might impede your implementation of the training	5. Differences in the participants' educational, work	5. Differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications.		5. Delaying of trainees, differences in the participants' educational, work experience,	5. Differences in the participants'	5. differences in the	4. Make some jokes and let trainees talk	

programme? Why do these barriers occur? A2-6 How do you avoid or negate these barriers? A2-7 Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes. in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?	experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. Ask the careless to leave the session and it is not my responsibility; It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this	Carelessness of some trainees. 6. It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communication.	subjects. 5. Differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness. 6. I have to accept the situation as it is, It is a responsibility of the centre's administration. 7. No, no body asked or	and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communication.	educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. 6. I can't make any thing because It is a responsibility of the centre's administration. 7. No, no body asked or	participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness of some trainees. High rate of participants' absence. 6. It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators. 7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communication.	about their own experience. This is good to make trainees familiar to each other. 5. Differences in the participants' educational, work experience, and other qualifications. Carelessness and absentees of some trainees. 6. It is a responsibility of the centre's administrators.	Documents and archive: statements of registration, details regarding the trainees' qualifications.

		communication.		encouraged me to do this communication.		encouraged me to do this communication.		7. No, no body asked or encouraged me to do this communication.	
Evaluation	A3-1 How do you identify the participants' reaction toward the training programme? Why? A3-2 What are the evaluation methods tools you use to measure the trainees' learning? Do you follow certain criteria for choosing these tools?	1. Ask participants some questions at the end of each session. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable,	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable,	1. Read the participants, body language and the attendance indicator. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not	1. Read the participants, body language and the attendance indicator. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable, the training	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable,	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool. 3. Not applicable,	1. Ask the participants direct question about their opinion on the programme. 2. Training programme evaluation form. No, I have no role in choosing this tool.	Direct observation: process of evaluation. Documents: Form of training evaluation. Direct observation: the participants were not serious in dealing with the evaluation form,

	If yes, what are the criteria and why? If no, why not?	the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	the training coordinator is the one who distribute and collect the forms.	the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	3. Not applicable, the training coordinator is the one who distributes and collects the forms.	
	A3-3 How do you use the evaluation tool? Why?	4. The tests.	4. The tests.	4. The tests.	4. The tests.	4. The tests.	4. The tests and discussion groups.	4. The tests and discussion groups.	
	A3-4 What is the best way to measure the skills and knowledge gained from the training programme? Why?	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	5. No, centre doesn't follow this policy.	
	A3-5Do you communicate (consult) with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in								

	which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why not?							
Equipment	A4-1What equipment and audio visual aids are available in the centre?	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, data show, tape recorder, and computer.	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, data show, tape recorder, and computer.	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, tape recorder, and computer.	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, tape recorder, and computer.	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, data show tape recorder, and computer.	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, data show, tape recorder, and computer.	1. Overhead projector, fixed wallboard, flipchart, data show tape recorder, and computer.	Direct Observations: equipment available.
	2 Do you believe that this equipment is suitable for the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, why? If	2. No, I can't use most of them. 3. I always use the board. It the easiest	2. Yes, they are easy to use. 3. I always use the board. Sometimes I	2. Yes, I can use the over head, flipchart, and wall board. 3. I always use the	2. I think the only important one is the fixed and flipchart. 3. I always use the	2. Yes, I need just boards. and overhead projector. 3. I always use the board, overhead	2. No, centre should provide high tech audio visual aids. 3. Mostly I use flipchart, data show, and	2. No, centre should provide high tech audio visual aids. 3. 3. I always use the board. Sometimes I	

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no, why?	equipment.	use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself.	flipchart board, overhead projector. I can operate it by myself.	flipchart board and data show.	projector. I can operate it by myself.	computer; they fit with the programme I implement.	use overhead projector. I can operate it by myself.	
A4-3 Do you use (operate) this equipment by yourself? If yes, how? If no, why not?	4. yes 5. No, no technician in the centre.	4. yes 5. No, no technician in the centre.	4. yes 5. No, no technician in the centre.	4. I need some body to help me operating the data show. 5. No, no technician in the centre.	4. yes 5. No, no technician in the centre.	4. Yes, but some times I can't deal with some problems with data show equipment. 5. No, no technician in the centre.	4. Yes. 5. No, no technician in the centre.	
4 Are you able to use (operate) all of the equipment you use in training? If no, why not?	6. Based on my desire.	6. according to my desire and the availability of it.	6. I prefer using the board.	6. according to my desire.	6. according to my desire.	6. The availability of the equipment.	6. according to the nature of programme.	
A4-5 Does the centre offer technical support for the trainers? If yes, how? If no, why								

	not? A4-6 How do you select the equipment to be used in the training programme you are running or have run?								
Trainees	Do you take into consideration the trainees' expectations from the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, how and why? If no, why not? A5-2 How do you	1. No, I didn't contribute in participants' registration and/or training needs. 2. Not applicable.	1. No, I didn't contribute in participants' registration and/or training needs. 2. Not applicable.	1. No, I didn't contribute in participants' registration and/or training needs. 2. Not applicable.	1. No, I didn't contribute in participants' registration and/or training needs. 2. Not applicable.	1. No, I didn't contribute in participants' registration and/or training needs. 2. Not applicable.	1. No, I didn't contribute in participants' registration and/or training needs. 2. Not applicable.	1. I tried at the beginning of prog. to obtain some information to help in discovering participants' expectations. 2. By asking some questions and discuss the answers with	Direct observations. Documents.

	measure or determine the trainees' expectations ?							participants. 3. To some degree.
	A5-3 Do you consider the trainees' attitudes toward the training programme you are running or have run? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable. 5. No, the programme was designed and I can't change any thing.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable. 5. No, it is not my responsibility.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable. 5. I try to use the simple language to communicate the content to participants.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable. 5. I can't do any thing because the programme is short.	3. No, I don't know what they expect. 4. Not applicable. 5. it is very difficult to adopt the programme for all levels.	3. No, I don't care about this. 4. Not applicable. 5. No, I go my way.	4. Not applicable. It is not my mistake to accept participant with different levels in experience and skills and qualifications .
	A5-4 What are the methods you have used to assess the training needs of the trainees?	6. Ignore it.	6. Ignore	6. as mentioned in 5.	6. Ignore it.	6. Ignore it.	6. Ignore it.	6. Try to explain some of contents which are not understandabl e for some participants during breaks.
	A5-5 Do you take into							

	consideratio n the differences in the trainees' skills, knowledge, and experiences? If yes, how and why? If no, why not?		it.						
	A5-6 If you find any significant differences in the trainees' skills, knowledge, and experiences, how do you deal with them?								

Appendix 6: Case Study (A) Summary of Interviewees' Questions and Responses. Training administrators

Key Factors	Interviews Questions	Ad. 1.	Ad.2	Ad.3	Ad.4	Ad.5	Ad.6	Ad.7	Source of evidence
Designing Training Programme.	B1-1-1What roles you play in the design, implementation and evaluation stages? How do you participate in these stages? Why?	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	Documents-schedule of training programmes.
	B1-2 How do you choose the training material? Why?	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	
	B1-3 Do you investigate the expected participants' training needs? How? Why? Why not?	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can be	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	Documents and archive, related to communication with trainees Emploers. Formal letters

		don't know how this can be done.	be done.	be done.	be done.	done.	be done.	be done.
	B1-4 Are there any specific criteria for determining the number of participants in a training programme? If yes what are the criteria? Why? If no, why?	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.
		5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.
	B1-5 what are the sources you depend on to obtain the trainers?					6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.		
	B1-6 what is the best source? Why?	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantag	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.		6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.

		es.				7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues			
	B1-7 How do you select the trainer to run the programme? Why?	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues.	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues. Or personal relationships	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues.	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues		7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues	
Evaluation	B2-1 Do you evaluate the training programmes? If yes, how and why? If no, why?	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	.1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	Direct observations; attending training seesions, evaluation process.
	B2-2 what methods of evaluation have you used to evaluate the programmes?	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	Documents: evaluation forms.
	B2-3 How does the centre measure the		3. Not	3. Not	3. Not	3. Not	3. Not	3. Not	

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customer satisfaction? Why?	3. Not applicable.	applicable.	applicable.	applicable.	applicable.	applicable.	applicable.	
B2-4 how does the centre deal with the training programmes' evaluation outcomes? Why?	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	4. The centre doesn't care about this.	
	5. I don't know.	5. I don't know.	5. I don't know.	5. I don't know.	5. I don't know.	5. I don't know.	5. I don't know.	Documents and archive: statements of registration, details regarding the trainees' qualifications
B2-5 How does the centre deal with any unsatisfactory evaluation results for a training programme?	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	6. No role, this is not part of my job.	
B2-6 what role do you play in the design, implementation and evaluation stages? Why?	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	

	B2-7 Does the administration of the training department in the centre make training needs assessment before designing the training programmes? If yes, how and why? If no, why?	8. No, there is no policy for this communication.	8. No, there is no policy for this communication.	8. No, there is no policy for this communication	8. No, there is no policy for this communication	8. No, there is no policy for this communication	8. No, there is no policy for this communication	8. No, there is no policy for this communication
	B2-8 Do you communicate with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why?							Archival review: Formal letters from training centres sent to Participants' employers

Implementation	B3-1 What are the roles you play in implementing the training programme? How? Why? B3-2 how you deal with problems raised by trainees and trainers? B3-3 Do you communicate with the trainees' supervisors? If yes in which stage of training process? How? Why? If no, why? B4-1 what are the procedures you follow to promote the training	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communicatio	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communicatio	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communicatio	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communicatio	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communicatio	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this communicatio n, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communicatio	Documents regarding regulations of the university's administration . Archival review: formal letters sent to the participants' employers.

	programmes? How? Why?	n.	encourage this communicatio n.	n.	n.	n.	n.	n.	Document review: Organizationa l structure of the centre.
	B4-2 Could you please explain the training management structure in the centre including the work load (how many training programmes, total of trainees, trainers)?	1- Advertisement s in some newspaper, faxes, the centre website. It is the University's regulations. 2. See appendix6.							
	B4-3 do you have a training plan? If yes, what kind of plan do you have? How do you prepare it? Who participates in the planning process?	3. Yes, annual plan,(every year). 4. The halls' size, and the financial standards are the main standards.							Document: the annual training handbook.
Administrati	B4-4 how do								

v	you determine the capacity of each programme? B4-5 how do you determine the price (fees) of training programmes? B4-6 Do you offer any kinds of rewards for trainees? If yes, how and why? If no, why? B4-7 what arrangements do you make regarding the programme you provide? How? Why? B4- 8what contacts you	5. The costs of the programme in addition to the minimum ratio determined by the university's admin. 6. Discounts. 7. As we used to. Ads. Registering names of participants, contact with the trainer, opening the programme. 8. Not applicable. 9. No, no policy for							Archive: formal letter from the vice president for administrative and financial affairs.

	do make with trainees and trainers after finishing the programmes? How? Why?	that.						
		10. Hospitality, free car parking, ID to use the library.						
	B4- 9 Do you communicate with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process? How? Why? If no, why?							
	B4-10 what services are provided by the centre to trainers and trainees during the training programmes? How? Why?							

Appendix 7: Case Study (B) Summary of Interviewees' Questions and Responses. Training administrators

Key Factors	Interviews Questions	Ad. 1.	Ad.2	Ad.3	Ad.4	Ad.5	Ad.6	Ad.7	Source of evidence
Designing Training Programme.	B1-1-1What roles you play in the design, implementation and evaluation stages? How do you participate in these stages? Why? B1-2 How do you choose the training material? Why?	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	1. No role played. Because I have not been asked to do these, and not trained to do these tasks.	
	B1-3 Do you investigate the expected participants' training needs? How? Why? Why not?	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	2. No role in this process.	Documents related to communication with trainees supervisors.
	B1-4 Are there any specific criteria for determining the number of participants in a training programme?	3. No, it is not	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this can	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this	3. No, it is not of my tasks, I don't know how this	

If yes what are the criteria? Why? If no, why?	of my tasks, I don't know how this can be done.	don't know how this can be done.	be done.	can be done.	be done.	can be done.	can be done.
	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.	4. The halls' capacity, and the financial standard.
B1-5 what are the sources you depend on to obtain the trainers?	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.	5. Inside source (the university) and outside source.
B1-6 what is the best source? Why?							
B1-7 How do you select the trainer to run the programme? Why?	6. Each source has advantages and	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.	6. Each source has advantages and disadvantages.
			7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some	7. Sometimes recommended by	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some	7. Sometimes recommended by	7. Sometimes recommended by

		disadvantages. 7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues.	7. Sometimes recommended by directors and some time by colleagues. Or personal relationships	time by colleagues.	directors and some time by colleagues	time by colleagues	directors and some time by colleagues	directors and some time by colleagues	
Evaluation	B2-1 Do you evaluate the training programmes? If yes, how and why? If no, why?	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	.1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	1. Yes, to know how react toward the programme.	Direct observations.
	B2-2 what methods of evaluation have you used to evaluate the programmes?				2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	
	B2-3 How does the centre measure the customer satisfaction? Why?	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.	2. The form accredited by the centre.					Documents and archive: statements of registration, details regarding the trainees' qualifications.
	B2-4 how does the centre deal with the training programmes' evaluation outcomes?	3. Not applicable.	3. Not applicable.	3. Not applicable.	3. Not applicable.	3. Not applicable.	3. Not applicable.	3. Not applicable.	

	Why? B2-5 How does the centre deal with any unsatisfactory evaluation results for a training programme? B2-6 what role do you play in the design, implementation and evaluation stages? Why? B2-7 Does the administration of the training department in the centre make training needs assessment before designing the training programmes? If yes, how and why? If no, why? B2-8 Do you communicate with the trainees supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training	4. The centre doesn't care about this. 5. I don't know. 6. No role, this is not part of my job. 7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment.	4. The centre doesn't care about this. 5. I don't know. 6. No role, this is not part of my job. 7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment. 8. No, there is no policy for this	4. The centre doesn't care about this. 5. I don't know. 6. No role, this is not part of my job. 7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment. 8. No, there is no policy for this communication	4. The centre doesn't care about this. 5. I don't know. 6. No role, this is not part of my job. 7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment. 8. No, there is no policy for this communication	4. The centre doesn't care about this. 5. I don't know. 6. No role, this is not part of my job. 7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment. 8. No, there is no policy for this communication	4. The centre doesn't care about this. 5. I don't know. 6. No role, this is not part of my job. 7. No, no ability to do this kind of assessment. 8. No, there is no policy for this communication	Archival review: Formal letters from training centres sent to Participants' employers

	process? How? Why? If no, why?	communication. 8. No, there is no policy for this communicatio n.						
Implementation	B3-1 What are the roles you play in implementing the training programme? How? Why? B3-2 how you deal with problems raised by trainees and trainers? B3-3 Do you communicate with the trainees' supervisors? If yes in which stage of training process? How? Why? If no, why?	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems.	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems. 3. Not applicable, no policy for this	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems.	1. provid the trainees and trainers with the required items such as the folders, the copies of training materials, and hospitality. 2. Depending on my personal experience, try to solve problems in a friendly manner. There is no formal procedures to deal with the problems.	.

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		problems.	deal with the problems.	communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.	3. Not applicable, no policy for this communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.	communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.	3. Not applicable, no policy for this communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.	3. Not applicable, no policy for this communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.	
	B4-1 what are the procedures you follow to promote the training programmes? How? Why?	3. Not applicable, no policy for this communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.	3. Not applicable, no policy for this communication, and no one of the administration levels encourage this communication.						
	B4-2 Could you please explain the training management structure in the centre including the work load (how many training programmes, total of trainees, trainers)?								
	B4-3 do you have a training plan? If yes, what kind of plan do you have? How do you prepare it? Who participates in the planning process?	1- Advertisements in some newspaper, faxes, the centre website. It is the University's regulations, visits, and workshops.							
	B4-4 how do you determine the capacity of each programme?	2. See appendix8.							

Administrativ	B4-5 how do you determine the price (fees) of training programmes?	3. Yes, annual plan,(every year).						
	B4-6 Do you offer any kinds of rewards for trainees? If yes, how and why? If no, why?	4. The halls' size, and the financial standards are the main standards.						
	B4-7 what arrangements do you make regarding the programme you provide? How? Why?	5. The costs of the programme in addition to the minimum ratio determined by the university's admin.						
	B4- 8what contacts you do make with trainees and trainers after finishing the programmes? How? Why?							
	B4- 9 Do you communicate with the trainees' supervisors? If yes, in which stage of the training process? How? Why?	6. Discounts. 7. As we used to. Ads. Registering						

		If no, why? B4-10 what services are provided by the centre to trainers and trainees during the training programmes? How? Why?	names of participants, contact with the trainer, opening the programme. 8. Not applicable. 9. No, no policy for that. 10. Hospitality, free car parking, ID to use the library.							

Appendix 8: Organisational Structure Centre of Consultation – University Of Jordan, agreed by the Deans Council.


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                      Vice President for Administrative &
                              Financial affairs
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                             Director of the Centre
                                     │
        ┌────────────────────────────┤
   Acting Director                    │
        │                             │
   ┌────┼────┐                        │
 Diwan  Administrative  Typeset       │
                                      │
        ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
  Department of training                        Department of Consultation
  Director of the Department                    Director of the Department
        │                                                  │
  Assistant Director                          ┌────────────┼────────────┐
        │                              Consultations   Consultation    Studies
  ┌──┬──┬──┬──┐                        coordinator     Administrator   Administrator
 Training Training Training Training Training
 coordinator (x5)
  │  │  │
 Training Training Training
 coordinator (x3)
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Training coordinator — Training coordinator — Training coordinator — Training coordinator — Training coordinator

Training coordinator — Training coordinator — Training coordinator

Consultations coordinator — Consultation Administrator — Studies Administrator

Source: The General Organisational Structure. The University Of Jordan, 2012

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Appendix 9: Organisational Structure, Centre for studies, Consultation & Community services – The Hashemite University

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                        │ Vice President for Administrative │
                        │            affairs          │
                        └─────────────────────────────┘
                                      │
                        ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                        │     Director of the Centre   │
                        └─────────────────────────────┘
            ┌──────────────┬──────────────┬──────────────┐
            ▼              ▼              ▼
      ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────┐
      │  Diwan   │  │Administrative│  │ Typeset  │
      └──────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────┘
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Department of training Director of the Department	Department of Studies Director of the Department

Amman Branch, Training Administrator	Zarka Branch, Training Administrator

Consultations coordinator	Studies Administrator

Training coordinator	Training coordinator	Training coordinator	Training coordinator	Training coordinator

Training coordinator	Training coordinator	Training coordinator

Source: The General Organisational Structure. The Hashemite University, 2012

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