

**Perception on Training Programs in Family-owned Firms in the Kingdom of Saudi
Arabia**

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by

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Abstract

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (the KSA) has a rapidly growing and diversifying economy that has made significant progress in manufacturing, construction, and agriculture. However, the KSA remains a difficult place for the practice of human resources management (HRM) because of, among other factors, a large non-native workforce and a majority of family-owned firms. These complicating factors mean that, in Saudi firms, HRM practices are adopted in a gradual manner and specifically, training programs are conducted with a view to develop talents and improve worker performance. The study explored the current state of HRM practices in KSA, perception on the training programs conducted and training effectiveness captured as 'Intent to participate'. The study primarily used qualitative as well as quantitative data collected from family-owned business firms. It helps to gain a deeper understanding of how perceptions on training programs vary across different organisations and demography of the trainees that include age, qualification and experience. A framework predicting intent to participate by the perception on training programs was developed based on the review of extant literature. In order to capture the differences in the perception on training programs across different organisations, age, qualification and experience, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used. Results show that perception differed across organisations, age, qualification and experience. In order to predict intent to participate by perception on training programs, multiple regression analysis was used. Results show that perception on identification of training needs, clarity of objectives, training design, behavioural modification and performance improvement predict intent to participate.

The researcher also explored perception on training programs in family-owned business firms by conducting an interview with 33 HR managers using a semi-structured interview schedule. The HR managers belong to those companies where the employees hail from. The schedule was developed and standardised using content validity and reliability. The study also

gained insights into various areas of training required by the employees in order to achieve their business results. It further provides inputs in terms of HR concerns and suggested HR Interventions to make the management training function better aligned and integrated. The study concludes with a set of recommendations for firms on implementing management training effectively. Ultimately, the study proposes a model of training for family-owned businesses in the KSA.

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Table of Contents

Abstract.....	1
Acknowledgements	2
CHAPTER ONE.....	11
Introduction.....	11
The Economy of the KSA.....	11
The KSA and the Gulf Cooperation Council.....	14
Human Resources Development Plans in the KSA.....	16
Family-Owned Businesses in the KSA.....	17
Training and Development in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.....	19
Models of Training and Development.....	21
Problem Statement.....	28
Research Objectives.....	29
Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	30
Significance of the Research Study.....	31
Research Roadmap.....	34
CHAPTER TWO.....	36
Literature Review.....	36
HRM Practices in KSA.....	38
HRM issues in Family Businesses.....	53
Summary.....	55
Training and Development.....	56
Training Need Analysis (TNA).....	89
Training Program Effectiveness.....	102

Summary.....	113
Perception on training programs and intent to participate.....	114
Summary.....	122
Research Gap and need for the study	123
CHAPTER THREE.....	127
Research Methodology.....	127
The Mixed-Methods Approach.....	127
Instrumentation.....	131
Validity test.....	132
The Pilot Study.....	141
Results of the Pilot Study.....	141
Reliability Test.....	142
Sampling Frame.....	143
Sampling Technique.....	143
Administration.....	145
Respondent Profile for the HR Managers’ Survey.....	145
Demographic Profile of the Surveyed Employees.....	151
Statistical Techniques Used.....	151
Summary.....	151
CHAPTER FOUR.....	152
Data Analysis & Results.....	152
Analysis of Employee Data.....	152
Testing for Multi - Collinearity and Common Method Variance.....	154
Objectives 1: To examine the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA.....	159

Objective 2: To study the difference in the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA.....	160
Hypothesis Testing.....	160
Testing of Hypothesis One.....	160
Testing of Hypothesis Two.....	166
Testing of Hypothesis Three.....	172
Testing of Hypothesis Four.....	178
Objective 3: To study the relationship between the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA and intent to participate in the training programs.....	181
Semi Structured Interviews with HR Managers.....	183
Aligning Management Training with Strategic Goals.....	184
Aligning Training with Customer Needs.....	186
Job Requirements and Shareholder and Owner Interests	188
Matching Applicants and Job Descriptions	190
Training and Development Programs and Job Requirements	192
Re-evaluation of Managers Based on Job Requirements	194
The Influence of the Competitive Environment	195
Clearer and Stricter Job Specifications.....	197
Meeting Job Demands	198
Summary of Results and Findings.....	200
CHAPTER FIVE	202
Discussion and implication.....	202
Robust TNA.....	202
Lack of Emphasis on Managerial Training	206
HRM & Training	209

Barriers to Management Training Practices	213
Interventions for Training Effectiveness.....	216
Operational Role of Management Training.....	216
Aligning Management Training with Business	219
Discussion of Qualitative Results	221
Implications for HR.....	231
Limitations and Scope for Future Research.....	236
Conclusion.....	238
References	241
Appendices	282
Appendix I: Questionnaire for Employees.....	282
AppendixII Semi - Structured questionnaire for Human Resources Managers.....	285
AppendixIII.Forms and Arabic translation.....	286

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 List of words / concept and themes derived.....	135
Table 3.2 Content validity ratio for employee questionnaire.....	140
Table 3.3 Content Validity Ration for HR managers.....	144
Table 3.4 Reliability tests for employees.....	148
TABLE 3.5 Age, gender and nationality of the HR managers.....	152
TABLE 3.6 .Position and number of years of experienced in the current role.....	153
Table 3.7 Organisational size, company geographic region, age of the organisation, management structure where the HR managers are employed	154
TABLE 3.8 Age, size and the use of TNA by the HR departments.....	156
TABLE 4.1. Background characteristics	159
TABLE 4.2 Means, standard deviation and inter-correlation	161
TABLE 4.3MANOVA between age groups and perception on training programs	167
Table 4.4 Tests of between-subjects effects for perception on training programs	169
Table 4.5 comparision of means between age and perception on training programs.....	170
Table 4.6 MANOVA between education attainment and perception on training programs	173
Table 4 .7 Tests of between-subjects effects for perception on training programs and education attainment.....	174
Table 4.8 Comparison of means between education attainment and perception no training programs.....	175
Table. 4.9. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) between experience and perception on training programmes.....	178
Table 4.10 Tests of between-subjects for perception on training programs and experience	179
Table 4.11 Comparison of means across experience and perception on training programs.....	181
Table 4.12 MANOVA between organisations and perception on training programs	185

Table 4.13 Tests of between subjects effects for perception on training programs among employees of different organisations.....	186
Table 4.14 Regression results showing perception on training programs predicting intent to participate.....	187

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1.1 COMPONENTS OF STUFFLEBEAM’S (2003) CIPP MODEL.....	29
FIGURE 2.1 THE TRAINING GAP (SOURCE: ARMSTRONG, 1996).....	100
FIGURE 2.2 LINK BETWEEN ANALYSIS AND TRAINING NEEDS (SOURCE: SLEEZER, 1993).....	102
FIGURE 2.3 TRAINING NEEDS IDENTIFIED IN A SURVEY (SOURCE: LINDLEY <i>ET AL.</i> , 2005).....	105
FIGURE 2.4 FRAMEWORK LINKING PERCEPTION ON TRAINING PROGRAM AND INTENT TO PARTICIPATE.....	127
Figure 4.1 Model linking perception on training programs and intent to participate.....	189
Figure 4.2 Proposed Model for Training in Family-owned Firms in the KSA.....	207

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) has historically played a significant role in the economics and politics of the Middle East. A country of great wealth, material resources, and geographic size that governs a strategically important geo-political hub and position among other countries in the Middle East, the KSA is expected to continue its important role as it pursues new avenues of economic expansion. A key area of economic expansion at present is the private sector, which consists primarily of family-run businesses. However, despite the centrality of family-run businesses to this strategically crucial country, the high-level managers at these firms have done little, as of yet, to develop their most valuable resources: their employees.

The Economy of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA)

The KSA, as the largest country in Arabia, occupies 80% of the Arabian Peninsula. The country covers approximately 2, 240, 000 square kilometers (1, 400, 000 square miles) and is bordered on the north by Iraq, Kuwait and Jordan; on the east by the Gulf, Qatar, United Arab Emirates and Bahrain on the south by the Yemen and Sultanate of Oman and on the west by Red Sea. According to Al-Farsy (1992), Saudi Arabia is strategically situated close to the Suez Canal and between mainland Asia and Africa. It has frontiers on both the Arabian Gulf and the Red Sea. Its extensive coastlines on the Persian Gulf and Red Sea provide great leverage in shipping (especially crude oil) through the risen Gulf and Suez Canal (Ministry of Information 1992). Besides its commercial significance, the KSA also has a crucial enlivened religious importance. It houses the two holy pilgrimage centers the Medina and Mecca and hence, be considered to be the geo-centric and heart of the Muslim world.

Combined with the commercial and religious centrality lent by the Kingdom's geography, Saudi Arabia also occupies a position of central financial importance, as it is a powerful player in the global oil market. The KSA is situated in an oil-centric region, and oil is the country's main financial resource. Large sectors of the oil industry remain heavily dependent on state sponsorship. For more than 75 years, the KSA has had a national oil company that has met challenges by accelerating the development of professional staff, applying unique company-specific inventions for oil and gas technologies, and providing leadership with tools to proactively manage the technological development of the workforce.

Oil was first discovered in the KSA in 1938, during the reign of King Abdul Aziz. As a result of this newly discovered glut of natural resources, a stream of developmental activities began as many foreign companies started taking an interest in the economic activities of the KSA. As per the information available on the website of the Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, Washington, DC (n.d.), the process of development continued unabated during the rule of King Abdul Aziz's successors, King Saud (1953-1964), King Faisal (1964-1975), King Khalid (1975-1982), King Fahd (1982-2005), and now King Abdullah (since 2005). For the past several years, the KSA, as holder of approximately 25 percent of the world's oil resources, has been undertaking multi-directional development with the aid of monetary resources gained through international oil exports.

During the rule of H.H. King Abdul Aziz, the government undertook the construction of crucial modern infrastructure, including roads, basic communications systems, and other modern technology, as well as improved agricultural, health care, and educational systems. This modernization continued with the introduction of economic and social development plans; private enterprises and investments and construction activities to provide accommodation facilities for the millions of pilgrims who visited holy sites across the kingdom. These

activities provided the infrastructure for industrial growth, leading to rapid economic expansion. H.H. King Abdullah, who ascended to the throne in 2005, has declared his determination to continue the “development of the Kingdom’s road, rail and telecommunications networks,” projects that began in the mid-twentieth century. Through all these recent efforts, Saudi Arabia has accumulated resources, created infrastructure, and developed economic activities that have earned it a key place in the Middle Eastern economy. The KSA has also been able, during the rule of the present king, to acquire membership in the World Trade Organization (WTO). Since the membership began on 11 December 2005, this membership in the WTO has provided the KSA with greater access to global commerce and trade through the possibility of more wide-ranging direct trade negotiations and the possibility of multilateral trade treaties (WTO, 2012).

While the public sector has played an important role in the economic growth of the KSA over the past century, there has been increasing attempts to increase the size and role of the private sector. Indeed, Saudi Arabia has recently committed itself to an ambitious economic development plan and has identified its private sector as a major driver in creating both wealth and jobs for Saudi citizens. A significant part of the Saudi Arabian business sector is family-owned and private. Saudi Arabian businesses, in particular those in the family-owned private sector, are the primary focus of this study; they were selected due to their unique and individualistic history, their primacy, dominion and eminence in the economy of the KSA, and perhaps most significantly, their historical resistance, confrontation and defiance to the practice of modern Human Resources Management (HRM).

As this report will later discuss in detail, the field of HRM is a crucial component of business management. HRM is an organizational function that is concerned with the management of the people within the organization, from recruitment and hiring, to training and

development, to rewarding or terminating employees according to their job performance. However, despite the centrality of HRM as a pivotal focal point in many business settings, in the KSA's many family-owned business, HRM has, for various reasons been considered merely an underpinning support function. The frequency of HRM functions such as training and management is on the rise, but the field still has much room to grow. At present, Human Resources managers often opine that one of their greatest challenges is the issue of training and developing employees (Stavrou, Brewster and Charalambous 2004). The present study will contribute to the growth of this important field, particularly with respect to the increasingly globally significant economy of the KSA.

Whether an organization is a small enterprise or a large multinational corporation, the success of that organization depends upon the skill and talent of its workers. In any type of organization, productivity is a key requirement to succeed in the era of competitive advantages. As such, the survival of any organization depends upon various characteristics of the work force, such as the knowledge and social and personal attributes, including the creativity of individual employees. The combination of all such competencies (adroitness, skill and prowess) is rarely found within a singular labor market. Worldwide, the past three decades have been characterized by an increasing shift toward economic globalization, which entails cultural diversity and an attempt to utilize the best talent, abilities, skills and knowledge for the betterment of the organizations. No doubt this also brings benefits to individual employees as well. The growth of multinational companies and international cooperation has resulted in an extension of businesses across national boundaries. This immensely holds true in the KSA.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the Gulf Cooperation Council

One cannot discuss the economy of the KSA without positioning the country within the context of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). In recent decades, the economy of Saudi

Arabia has become increasingly intertwined with those of neighboring countries. Notwithstanding the KSA's inhospitable relations with Iran and Iraq, the Kingdom's relations and ties with the adjoining small Islamic and Arab oil-producing states have been warm, affable and pleasant nevertheless quite cordial. In 1980, in response to the Iran-Iraq war, the KSA took the lead in bringing the adjoining Islamic and oil-producing Arab countries together with the common aim of collective security. Meetings of representatives of Saudi Arabia and five other countries, Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates (UAE), led in 1981 to the formation of an alliance, which evolved into the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). According to the Library of Congress Country Studies and the CIA World Fact book, "In 1992 the Kingdom was allied with its fellow monarchies and the Sheikdoms of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), are regional collective security and economic organization" (www.photius.com). This alliance had had profound implications for the KSA's economy.

The decision to form the Council was not driven by geopolitical dynamics; rather, the Council is an institutional embodiment of a pre-existing historical, social, and cultural reality (GCC website). Deep religious and cultural ties link the six states, and strong kin relations prevail among their citizens. All these factors, enhanced through the construction of a singular geo-political entity extending from sea to desert, have facilitated contacts and interaction among member states, and have created a sense of unified values and cultural characteristics. According to Saif (2009), several common features characterize the GCC economies: high dependency on oil; a dominant public sector with a significant fiscal surplus; a young and rapidly growing national labor force; and high dependency on expatriate labor. As a result of the dynamics of economic development, GCC countries feel an urgency to address their common challenges: "diversifying their economies; addressing low productivity and labor market setbacks; developing the non-oil private sector; and improving the capacity of

administrative and public sector institutions” (Saif, 2009). All of these challenges are more relevant to the present investigation of HRM practices in the KSA.

Human Resources Development Plans in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Over the past four decades, the Saudis have constructed a series of development plans to guide their efforts at developing the country’s human resources. Since the first developmental plan in 1970, each plan has had a clear set of objectives for enhancing people’s skills and employability so that they can meet the current and future skill requirements in a rapidly changing economy. In the Eighth Development Plan, priority was given to the following: expansion of education, training, health and social services, both quantitatively and qualitatively (source: Ministry of Planning); improving productivity, and boosting the competitiveness of the national economy. The most recent plan, the Ninth Development Plan (2010-14), focused on improving citizens’ standard of living and promoting their quality of life; on developing the Saudi labour market and increasing employment; on increasing the competitiveness of the country’s economy; on balancing the development among varied regions of the Kingdom; and on the structural development of the Saudi economy.

It is clear that the KSA faces major problems pertaining to Human Resources Development (HRD), and notably, the government of the KSA has realized the importance of making human resources development a top priority. Since the introduction of the first five-year plan in 1970, the investment in HRD has considerably increased. Due importance has been assigned to human resources development, and development has increased steadily through the end of the seventh five-year plan in 2004. In August 2000, the KSA established a Human Resources Development Fund (HRDF) (by Resolution of the Council of Minister No.107 dated on July 2000 and in the Royal Decree No. 18M dated on August 2000). The

Fund has been endowed with a legal personality and is organized to be administratively and financially independent. As per the guide on Human Resources Development Fund, “training and preparation of Saudi human resources and the development and enhancement of their skills has become the first priority in the development policies of the government of Saudi Arabia (Report on Ninth Plan, MEP, 2010-14).As per the guide on HRDF, the fund was established with the following general objectives in view: (1) to offer grants to those involved in the preparation, training, and employment of a national work force, especially in the private sector; and (2) to share the expenses of preparing, training, and employing the national workforce in the private sector.

In recent years, many governments have begun to make it a priority to promote policy that will encourage the skill development among the members of the workforce. The resultant interventions in labour market as a response to concerns over the need to be competitive in a global economy, and the benefits of lifelong learning have been implemented (Curtis and McKenzie, 2001; Encel, 2003; Sambrook, 2003).

Family-Owned Businesses in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

The private sector is in the process of becoming a primary backbone and baseline of the Saudi economy due to profitable investment opportunities. Along with this growth has come the advancement of growth of family dominated entities. According to recently released statistics from the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA) referred to, in the 6thInternational Conference paper of King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM) on “HRD in Saudi Family Business, ” the total number of such family dominated firms had reached 621.4 thousand companies, which constitute 90% of the total companies in Saudi Arabia (Said and Hassan, 2012). As per Al-Yafi (2003), as quoted in the aforesaid paper, although most of the said companies could be considered small and medium enterprises

(SME), at least 45 percent of the largest Saudi companies can be recognized as family business, e.g., Al-Zamil Group, Al-Rashid Group, Al-Rajhi Group, National Commercial Bank, and BinLadin Group (Achoui, 2009).

Family and business activities are closely interconnected in Saudi Arabia, and the family firm model is prevalent, making up approximately 90% of the private sector elsewhere (Boxall and Purcell, 2007). In a recent list of the top 100 businesses in the KSA, 45 of these businesses can be considered family-owned or family-run businesses. Among the rest of the business in the KSA, the percentage of family-owned businesses are much higher. Currently, around 90% of businesses in Saudi Arabia are classified as family-owned or family-run type of its kind. Only about 5% of family-owned businesses have survived to the third generation of the family, meaning that the most successful businesses classified as family-owned are no more than 65years old. In 2009, according to certain calculations, the total number of family-owned businesses in the KSA was 763, 589 (Ministry of Economy &Planning, 2009). (Even within the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the family business sector is widespread; nearly 85% of all companies in the United States are family-driven.

While these data illustrate the growth of the private sector in the KSA, this growth has not been without bearing and suffering complications. As the Saudi government is well aware, family-owned businesses can suffer serious harm when family dynamics impact business operations. It has been demonstrated that within family-owned businesses in the KSA, loyal family members tend to appoint close family members to positions within the management and executive teams even when the appointees lack experience and training. The inter play of family dynamics and business interests can cause serious losses of resources and opportunities due to a lack of training, drive and experience among family-affiliated persons who occupy management positions. With 90%of the private sector being owned and operated directly by

families, this phenomenon could have a profoundly negative impact on the Saudi national economy. The Saudi government appears to be struggling to address this potential negative influence on economic growth and efficiency in recent years.

The family businesses structure has particular strengths and weaknesses, which have implications for, how employees can and should be trained (Debicki, Matherne, Kellermans & Chrisman, 2009, Sharma, 2004). The classic management literature tends to dismiss the family firm as an archaic and inefficient organizational form. In particular, it is held to limit its skill set by preferring lineage and genetics over competence, and the blurring of ‘family’ and ‘firm’ leads to decisions being made in the family’s interests rather than those of the firm. On the other hand, some researchers argue that the adherence to the family business structure in certain countries is a defensive response to those countries’ relatively weak legal and corporate protection (Chrisman, Chua, Kellermanns, Matherne, & Debicke, 2009; Chrisman, Chua & Litz, 2004), and that the structure ensures that key assets are held and decisions taken within a group that can trust each other. In any case, the family business’ reliance on a narrower talent pool than what is available to other company forms necessitates a careful consideration of staff training and development. Related to this is the question of training and career development for non-family members of staff (Chrisman, Chua, & Sharma, 2005).

Training and Development in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

While the government sector in the KSA consists of approximately 1.2 million employees, the number of employees in the private sector is about 9.7 million. These comparative figures clearly indicate the important role of the private sector in generating employment as well as the private sector’s integral role in the KSA’s developmental activities. However, as of 2013, 85.3% of the workers in the private sector were expatriates, while the percentage of Saudi employees was only around 14.7 %. With the KSA’s economic boom, the

country has enjoyed major development, including the creation of many high-level jobs in business, industry, and domestic services. The KSA's international connections are further enhanced by its large foreign workforce. The recent job creation has attracted a labour force of foreign nationals who are non-skilled, skilled and highly skilled. As per 2013 figures from Central Department of Statistics and Information, 29,99 million of the total population of Saudi Arabia consisted of 9.98 million expatriates. This statistics suggests that there is a need to train native Saudi workers to fill management and skilled roles in the private sector.

Businesses in the KSA need training materials and programs that are specific to the Middle Eastern context. Although there is no shortage of financial resources to meet the need for trained workers in both the public and private sectors, there is a distinct lack of training focused on improved skills in a Middle Eastern context. The few management development programmes run by institutes locally use materials mostly translated from foreign sources. These materials are written to cope with the work environments of the western countries rather than being oriented to the training of workers to deal with the idiosyncrasies of the Middle Eastern business environment.

Indeed, trainers in the Middle East often complain that the available textbooks, exercises, and case studies have little relevance to their actual working environments. Most training films are imported. The Saudi Arabian Institute of Public Administration has staff actively involved in the adaptation of programmes and equipment to the local needs, but this work is not complete. Moreover, the best way to prepare future managers in the Arab world is through on-the-job training. This is more appropriate than investing large sums of money in training programmes that do not raise develop their skills and knowledge and hence, meet their needs (Atiyah, 1993). The on-the-job training approach, although valid on a methodological

level, has its limitations, including the rate of development, the structure of the family business, and the import of foreign skilled workers.

Given the history of development and the organizational culture of the family-owned private business in the KSA, HR practices around staff selection, staff development, and performance monitoring are holding this back and must be modified for this ambitious development plan to succeed. (Fasano and Goyal, 2004, ILO, 2009). Management training is widely seen as a tool to enable greater operational efficiency in companies (Camps and Luna-Arocas, 2012, Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, 2011, Ray, & Goppelt, 2011). Essentially, the assumption is that most organizations carry out their HR function more or less well enough to support their operations. However, they suggest there are “significant relationships between strategic HRM effectiveness and employee productivity, cash flow and market value” (Huselid., Jackson., & Schuler, 1997).

Training and development are often identified as key elements in organizational improvement (Camps and Luna-Arocas, 2012) with this forming a critical element in sustaining a programme of organisational change (Burke and Litwin, 1992, Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009, Ray and Goppelt, 2011). Overall, training is widely acknowledged to be a valuable tool for enabling an organization to realize its strategic goals (Reed and Vakola, 2006) and as a critical means to create and sustain competitive advantages. However, there is a need to ensure that what is delivered is appropriate or any impact will be limited (Huselid., Jackson., & Schuler, 1997).

Models of Training and Development

There are four models used for training and development. In chronological order of publication, the models are as follows: Kirkpatrick (1959), Stufflebeam (1974, 2003), Bushnell

(1990), and Fitz-enz (1994).

Kirkpatrick's (1959) widely accepted model, which focuses on training evaluation, characterises four different levels of measures of training effectiveness: learning, reactions, behaviour and results. Learning refers to the facts, principles, and techniques understood and absorbed by the trainees. Reactions relate to trainees' appreciation of a training program. Behaviour captures the use of learned principles and techniques on the job"; results indicate "ends, goals" (Alliger & Janak, 1989). Twenty years after Goldstein's review of the Kirkpatrick's model, the quest for research on individual and hierarchical structure did not quench and many researchers tried to understand the individual levels, composition of two / more consecutive and/or non-consecutive levels, interaction between the individual levels, and the hierarchical structure proposed (Alliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver, & Shotland, 1997). However, gaps existed in the study of the role of training in small and family-owned businesses.

In the late 1960s, Stufflebeam, D (1974, 2003) developed, a four-level evaluation model for training that was based on Goldstein's view. The key elements were represented by the CIPP acronym (Context, Input, Process, Product). According to decision-oriented approach, evaluation of program is defined as the "systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs to make judgments about the program, improve program effectiveness, and/or inform decisions about future programming" (Patton, 1997, p. 23). The CIPP model, (see figure 2.1) is a guiding framework for evaluations of projects, programs, institutions, personnel, products, and evaluation systems (Stufflebeam, 2003).



Figure 1.1 Stufflebeam’s (2003) CIPP Model.

This model was developed to assist administrators to make informed decisions. It is a popular and much accepted training evaluation approach in an educational setting (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). This approach was developed to achieve and improve accountability in educational programs through a “learning-by-doing” approach. Its core concepts are context, input, process, and product evaluation, with the intention of not to *prove*, but rather *improve*, the program itself (Stufflebeam, 2003). An evaluation following the CIPP model may include a input, context, process or product evaluation, or a combination of these elements (Stufflebeam, 2003).

The *context evaluation* stage of the CIPP Model suggests that the practitioner envisions the larger picture of fitness of the program and its evaluation (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). It enables the evaluator to identify assets, the needs and resources of a workforce so that a beneficial training program shall be provided (Fitzpatrick et al., 2012; Mertens & Wilson, 2012). It also helps in planning in training and identifying the climate that influences the success of a training program (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). To achieve this, the evaluator assesses and compiles background information, and conducts interview with program leaders and stakeholders. Further, goals of the programs are assessed, and data relating to the program

environment was collected. Data was collected using multiple formats such as summative and formative measures, analysis of existing documents, profiling of programs, developing case studies and conducting stakeholder interviews (Mertens, & Wilson, 2012).

The second stage called as the *input evaluation* stage complements the first stage context evaluation. Information relating to the mission, goals, and plan of the program are collected. This stage is aimed to assess the training program's merit, strategy, and work plan against research, the responsiveness of the program to client needs, and alternative strategies offered in similar programs (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). The purpose of this stage is to resolve programme problems by identifying an appropriate strategy (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011).

Besides context evaluation and input evaluation, reviewing the quality of a program is an important feature of CIPP. The third stage called the *Process evaluation* stage assists in investigating the quality of implementation of the program. The evaluator monitors, documents and assesses the program activities in this stage (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Feedback on the extent to which activities that are planned are carried out in this stage. This stage also guides the staff in modifying and improving the plan, and assesses the degree to which the participants carry out their roles (Stufflebeam, 2003).

The final stage in the CIPP framework is the *product evaluation*. It assists the evaluator in assessing the positive and negative impact of program on its target audience (Mertens & Wilson, 2012) with respect to short and long term intended and unintended outcomes (Stufflebeam, 2003). In this stage, stakeholders and relevant experts were judged and analyzed based on the outcomes that affect the group, subgroups and individuals. A combination of methodological techniques employed assist in verifying evaluation findings. (Mertens & Wilson, 2012; Stufflebeam, 2003).

In addition to Kirkpatrick's and Stufflebeam's models, two other models are relevant here: Bushnell's (1990) IPO model (input, process, output) and Fitz-enz's (1994) Training Valuation System (TVS) model. Bushnell's IPO model helps to monitor the progress of employee is used by IBM. It sets performance indicators at every stage of evaluation. The stages include Input (such as the trainee qualifications, instructor experience, and resources), Process (the plan, development, design, and delivery of the training), Output (the trainees' knowledge and skills gained, reactions, and improvement in job performance), and Outcomes (customer satisfaction, profits, and productivity.)

The fourth and most recent model is a four-step process (situation analysis, intervention, impact, and value) called Training Valuation System (TVS) developed by Fitz-enz (1994). This model has been categorized as "system-based" and similar to Kirkpatrick's framework at steps 3 and 4. Step 1 is an in-depth training analysis which is called "situation analysis". This demands continuous investigation of manager's answers until some visible and tangible outcome is revealed. Investigation focuses not on the training but rather on the work process. The "intervention" stage at Step 2, diagnoses the problem and accordingly, the training programme is designed. The 'impact' stage at Step 3, examines the performance and the the variables that influences it. Finally, in Step 4, "value" the changed performance is given a monetary value. Fitz-enz's model of training is, like the others described above, a potentially powerful for training within organizations, even though questions have been raised about the validity and generalizability of these models (Kraiger, 2003; Alkin, 2004; Chen, 1990; Cousins and Whitmore, 1998; Kirkpatrick 1994).

Any training program is successful depending only on how well the organisation ensures that it is well aligned to corporate strategy and is appropriate. According to HRM

literature this process is called Training Needs Analysis (TNA). This involves identifying the gap between employees' current knowledge and skills and the knowledge and skills they need in order to deliver the strategic plan. The conventional approach to conducting the analysis (Iqbal, 2011, Moore & Dutton, 1978) involves taking account of organizational analysis (i.e., strategic goals of the firm), task analysis (i.e. the specific needs for the job), and personnel analysis (i.e., the skills and aptitudes already possessed by the staff). In practice, though, a great many reported applications (Bryan, Dweck, Ross, Kay, & Mislavsky, 2009, Golding and Rubin, 2011) rely on simply identifying the gap between task requirements and staff competence. This may reflect a distinction drawn by Taylor (Taylor & O'Driscoll., 1998) between task and results-focused TNA. The former is appropriate when the need is to address a particular weakness, such as, for example, handling customer complaints or the leadership skills of managers; in effect, the organizational analysis element can be seen to be redundant. On the other hand, result-focused TNA is the process of seeking to build ample capacity within the organization for future needs (ie., the development of staff for promotion or the creation of a culture of learning and continuous improvement). In these cases, organizational analysis is clearly a critical element of the analysis. The three types of analysis ensure that the training need is accurately identified, the program has relevance to the need identified, the objectives are aligned appropriately to the need identified, the program gives enough space for the participants to interact, the content of the training program possesses credibility, the training methods are meritoriously chosen, the training design is scrupulously done, the program is designed to bring in behavioural modification, develop competence and improve performance. A training program designed painstakingly covering the above aspects will result in encouraging the participants look for more such programs. This may perhaps be, used as a non financial indicator that measures the effectiveness of the training program.

TNA has become an increasingly popular tool for identifying management development needs. The tool is principally used for determining how a given training regimen can bring current capacities up to desired capacities. As such, a well designed training program requires the practitioner to consider the type and style of training that will be most effective in addressing any disparities (Bartram and Casimir, 2007). Some studies have shown that HR managers in charge of designing these training courses and programs actually have little concrete knowledge about which educational methods work favourably for learners in the corporate environment (Björkman *et al.*, 2007). Thus, even though the purpose of training programs is to impart the required skill, organisations fail to identify accurately the employee - specific relevance of such program and hence, bound up with questions of how effectively the identified training is delivered. In short, the TNA is inadequately done.

Identifying the need for and the conduct of the training program falls into the 'hard school' of HRM. This school believes that identification of the need involves measuring a quantifiable gap between current capacity and needed capacity (Gill, 1999). TNA assumes that this gap can be closed by specific measures (Kaufman and Watkins, 1996). As such, TNA is vulnerable to the criticism that it is less effective than traditional models of strategic planning, which approach this process as a form of problem solving with well-defined goals that are rooted in a clear understanding of the current situation (Johnson and Busemeyer, 2010, Kleinmuntz, 2000, March, 1994). On one hand, TNA is arguably an elegant means of conceptualizing the training needs of an organization (Boxall and Purcell, 2008), but on the other hand, the tool may be reliant upon a reductive model of organizational strategy (Weick, 2001) that is embedded in an older model of strategy development and implementation.

Despite the purported flaws of TNA, a recent trend in the TNA literature (Iqbal and Khan, 2011) has been to stress the fact that TNA is about far more than the identification of

training needs. It also lays emphasis on aligning the organisation's strategy with development of competence, improvement of performance, designing an effective program, increasing the credibility of the content, enhancing the clearness of the objectives and increasing the significance of the program. It can, in fact, be used to access a range of HR approaches to perceived shortfalls such as recruitment, pay, grading, and promotion as well as broader tools for staff development (Ruona and Gibson, 2004). This perhaps suggests that there are two forms to TNA that focused on the development of measurable skills and that with a focus on wider organizational development, its design and delivery as well as business alignment (Taylor *et al.*, 1998).

Of primary importance to achieving the targeted goals of an organization is the training and development of the skills of employees. This role is further enhanced by the incorporation of employees into the organization and its key interests in meaningful ways (Stone, 2002). The training of employees is widely considered to be an important force in internal innovation and in the incorporation of new and effective ideas for organizational management. Through a combination of rising employee satisfaction, increased aptitude in achieving organizational goals, and increased efficiency internal training, focused on the development of employee skills, has been shown to be an important factor in increasing profitability and achieving competitive advantages (Richard Chang INC). Training is one of the key tools of HRM (Boxall and Gilbert, 2007; Chang and Huang, 2005; Huselid, 1993, 1995; Jacobs, 2011, Reilly *et al.*, 2006, Yang, 2006). Training and development act as a key driver to both company performance and the overall effectiveness of a wider economy.

Problem Statement

The economy of the KSA has been studied by researchers in many fields, but there remains a lack of reliable literature on best practices for Human Resource Management and

training in the KSA, especially for private, family-owned businesses. Given the growing importance of this sector to the Saudi economy, the need for analysis in this area is apparent. There is strong indication that weaknesses in HRM practices are a primary factor preventing this improvement in performance (Achoui, 2009). This study is particularly interested in the finding the perception on the current training programs in family owned organisations in KSA as this analysis is crucial to the development of appropriate and continuous training programs. The improvement of private sector performance requires accurate analysis of the needs that are to be addresses; only then can the adoption, integration, and alignment of training hope to address an organization's inherent weaknesses.

Research Objectives

This study investigates Human Resources Management practices in family-owned businesses in the KSA in order to assess the effectiveness of these HRM practices and develop a model for HRM that is uniquely suited to the Saudi context. The principal goal is to explore and understand the current state of training in the KSA's family-owned firms. The researcher aims to fill a significant gap in the research on the KSA by providing a background for the development of HRM. In particular, the researcher will focus on capturing the effectiveness of the training programs calculated in terms of the extent to which the participants intent to participate in future programs.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The researcher formulated the following research questions based on the objectives stated above, to guide the qualitative component of this study:

1. What is the current state of training in family-owned firms in the KSA?
2. What are the key concerns HR professionals consider with respect to training

programs in family-owned companies in the KSA?

3. How perception on training programmes differ across different demographic groups?
4. What factors influence the employees' intent to participate in future training programmes?

This study investigates the perception on management training in the family-firm-dominated Saudi private sector. The key objectives of the study are as follows:

- I. To examine the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA.
- II. To study the difference in the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA
- III. To study the relationship between the perceptions on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA and intent to participate in the training programs.

In order to discover HR challenges and interventions, and ultimately to improve the effectiveness of management training in the KSA's family-owned firms, the researcher tests an instrument that measures the perception on training programs and intent to participate in the family-owned firms in the KSA.

The following hypotheses are proposed for the quantitative component of this study:

H₀1: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different age groups.

H₁1: There is a significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different age groups

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training programs among

the employees belonging to different levels of education attainment

H₁₂: There is a significant difference in in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different levels of education attainment

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different years of experience.

H₁₃: There is a significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different years of experience.

H₀₄: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different companies

H₁₄ There is significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different companies

H₀₅: There is no significant relationship between the perception on training programs and intention to participate in future programs.

H₁₅: There is a significant relationship between the perception on training programs and intention to participate in future programs

Significance of the Research Study

This study is significant both practical and theoretical. The main contribution is to explore the current state of training practices, which can have implications for policy-makers as well as academic researchers. This study is important to the discussion of how to improve private-sector performance in the KSA, particularly with regard to the country's ambitious development goals (Al-Dosary and Rahman, 2009).

In terms of practical implications for policy, the study's key potential significance is that it is uniquely positioned to provide status details to KSA's Ministry of Labour with policy and program suggestions that will facilitate effective Human Capital Management (HCM) in

development programmes. These suggestions are explicitly structured to aid in the Saudization of the labour force and the transformation of leadership styles in order to develop a performance-oriented, nationally indigenous labour force and to utilize the fund flow towards the developmental needs of the country. Although the primary importance of the research is not as a policy document, it does offer the opportunity to expand knowledge in this area.

In terms of theoretical significance, the contribution of this project is multi-faceted. First, it considers whether training is universally applicable by looking at its usage and applicability in the family firm-dominated Saudi private sector. This means looking both at differences that may arise due to the organizational style of the family firm in the KSA and whether or not these either invalidate the appropriateness of training or necessitate changes in how it is applied and received. From this, it becomes possible to explore whether issues in the application of training could be linked to problems with the method or to the particular nature of that business environment. This will help to determine whether the rigorous application of training in the Saudi private sector might help to address current weaknesses in terms of staff recruitment, development, and training (Achoui, 2009, Al-Dosary and Rahman, 2009). More information about training practices will help to improve productivity in the private sector overall. Furthermore, it may also provide a pattern for systematically assessing the training requirements within the Saudi private sector generally (Boxall and Purcell, 2007).

This research will serve to address two specific shortcomings in the current academic discussion. First, this study serves as a contribution to the very limited research linking HR and performance from a Saudi perspective, and is, therefore, uniquely positioned to address questions of Saudi private sector performance from a perspective that is not often heard. Secondly, it offers an evaluation of whether or not training strategies would be a useful tool to address the weaknesses that currently appear in the Saudi private sector, specifically in the

large segment of the private sector that is classified as family-owned (Cascio and Aguinis, 2008).

If training does indeed offer a potential solution to the KSA's need for stronger management practices in the private sector, then the related question to explore is, how can HRM practices be used most effectively given the weaknesses identified in some studies (Chang and Huang, 2005). Answering this question will allow the present study to bridge the space between the practical and the theoretical: the study will reveal the connections among HR, management training, and employee performance, and it will also lead to the design and delivery of effective training programs (Ford *et al.*, 2010, Ford *et al.*, 2012, Learmonth *et al.*, 2012, Maclean *et al.*, 2002, Mohrman *et al.*, 2001).

Due to the creation of an increasingly global labor market, cross-cultural diversity within the work place has become common. Although there are both advantages and the disadvantages of increasing cultural diversity in the workplace due to cultural and linguistic differences, it has been argued that this is a sign of increasing international cooperation. A new international culture was heralded after the World War-II and establishment of the UN system. The 1940s was, thus, the inauguration of a great revolution to construct international law based on the world consensus. The main objective was peace and development through the construction of mechanisms to assist in the avoidance of international level conflicts and wars. Policies aimed at these objectives were to be based on the common values and principles supported by the voluntary will of countries. In his *Geert Hofstede Lecture of 21 May 2008*, Jan Pronk states,

“The sewer partially enshrined in international law, charters, treaties, agreements and declarations, and partially in frame work of world bodies dealing with social and

economic issues. The sovereignty of the nation state, non-intervention in internal affairs, national development, international development cooperation, international free trade and, last but not least, various concepts of human rights were the most essential newly agreed principles. Other new values such as social welfare, basic human needs provision, human development, sustainable development, sustainable human development, humanitarian intervention, the precautionary principle, the responsibility to protect, adjustment with a human face, the right to development were negotiated during the decades thereafter” (Pronk, 2008).

Research Roadmap

This study explores the current state of Training in family-owned firms in the KSA. It investigates how training is perceived by both employees and HR managers in family-owned Saudi businesses. It assesses perception on training programs in family-owned private sector of business in the KSA as preparation for further exploration in the fields of Human Resource Development and Management, specifically research that will study economies that are comparable to Saudi Arabia. The researcher investigated the current state of training by comparing family-owned business firms *vis-a-vis* employee strength as well as existence or non-existence of HR as a separate function. The study yielded useful insights into how HR heads and business owners design interventions to make the management training better aligned and contribute effectively to the overall business goals.

The remainder of this thesis develops these issues in more detail. Chapter Two provides a comprehensive literature review, which begins with an overview of Human Resources Management (HRM). The chapter will discuss the connection between business development and employee training, the necessity of training for individuals and organizations, and the connections between HRM and organizational development and strategy. The chapter

will review the relevant literature on these subjects, as well as on HRM challenges in family businesses. The chapter will summarize the main themes to construct a model that can be used to structure the empirical work and to help understand those findings (Easterby- Smith *et al.*, 2008, Gerring, 2007, Goertz, 2006, Yin, 2009).

Chapter Three describes the study's mixed-methods approach. First, the chapter will describe the theory of mixed methods research and why the approach was selected. Then, the chapter will explain the assumptions underlying both qualitative and quantitative research. After that, a detailed description of this study's methods will be provided that includes data collection, sample selection, and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data.

Chapter Four presents a detailed analysis of the empirical findings. First, the chapter describes in detail the analysis of the quantitative data from the questionnaires filled out by employees and then the semi-structured interviews with HR professionals.

Finally, the findings, implications, limitations and direction for future research are discussed in Chapter Five. The findings will be related to the existing literature described in the literature review, and the researcher will evaluate the overall effectiveness of the training programs. This discussion will pay particular attention to HR interventions that have the capability to improve the effectiveness of training programs.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

There was serious concern on training at all levels however training is considered to be relatively new compared to that of other countries. It was found that until the year 1963, training was not a concern of the government's actions and the government's intention to train the employees in the country translated into action when the first training center was opened at that time. Despite this not much of intensive and continuous action at the organizational level took place. In the beginning, the government showed serious concern to facilitate the establishment of training centers and programs. The government felt at that time that the number of training programs was far beyond the number required for development.

Few decades ago, HRM was not a well-established function and training and development was not instituted in organizations in an organized way. Then new Millennium has brought significant changes in the way HRM function has been viewed, in particular, the training and development. A dramatic change in HRM practices that increasingly replaced the once traditional setting of HRM is evident. Published literature suggested that there is an over-dependence of performance on HRM practices. In the previous chapter, the researcher provided the objectives, hypotheses and significance of the research study, as well as a brief introduction to the work currently being done in this field. This chapter presents the review of the literature published in the area of study.

HRM has grown exponentially out of the earlier focus on personnel (that include matters such as pay, leave and disciplinary arrangements meet the agreed rules) and industrial relations (Martin-Alcazar, Romero-Fernandez, & Sanchez-Gardey, 2008, Bratton, 2001). This was mostly concerned with structured negotiations with recognized staff representatives

(usually in the form of Trade Unions). Globalisation has thrown open many challenges and HRM as a field has effectively adapted to this challenge by developing two related strands of HRM, the 'hard' and the 'soft' (Huselid *et al.*, 1997). The hard approach to HRM emphasizes the calculative, quantitative and strategic aspects of managing the workforce in a reasonable way as any other economic resource. It is primarily based on the assumption that the work force is constructed of inert entities that are incapable of creativity (Lashley, 2009). The 'hard' HRM model places primary importance upon the interests of management and incorporates business strategies, such as added value from the workforce, through human resource development and performance management, creating a robust company culture that is articulated in the mission and vision statements and is strengthened by constant communication, training, and performance management (Armstrong, 2004).

The soft model, on the other hand, is based on the human relations school of thought, which emphasizes communication, motivation, and leadership. The workforce in this model is viewed as being constituted of proactive individuals who are competent, and who work most effectively when seen as partners in the company's performance (Kaye, 1999). Under this model, people management involves hiring of only the finest people, implementing appropriate and high-quality employee training and development plans, using compensation schemes that exhibit the importance of each employee, and in these ways obtaining employee loyalty (Druker, & White, 1996).

Both models focus on ensuring that the organization has staff who fit into a wider strategy and who has an understanding of their roles. Taking account of these differences is important for determining the role of human resources within a firm and how these differences affect HRM policies and practices. Understanding the role of HRM as perceived

by the firm's HR managers and other managers is a key aspect of determining the training needs. In view of the expatriate-dominated work force, so far as the basic HRM needs of the family firm dominated Saudi private sector is concerned, the researcher believes that HRM has to function within a universalistic approach. The chapter presents the review of extant literature on Human Resources Management practices in KSA, challenges faced by family-run business enterprises and employee training and development in businesses at the National level as well as few from other Islamic countries.

HRM Practices in KSA

Family businesses play a significant role in countries in the Middle East especially, KSA. A rough estimate suggests that family-businesses constitute over two-thirds of all the business in KSA. They also play an important role in developing countries. Despite the fact that they are the backbone, the exact definition and conceptual understanding of the term family business still found to be elusive and open to interpretation. Many have defined it in their own perspective, however, it is in general viewed as one different from non-family businesses and management issues need to be considered separately. Surprisingly, only few authors have examined the practices in such businesses.

Al-Rajhi, Altman, Metcalfe, & Roussel, (2006) reported that issues with expatriation were at the core of human resource management practices at the global level and discussion whereas impatriation (hiring foreign nationals for fixed-term temporary employment) was as yet, sparingly researched. Literature is also sparingly available. From the sparingly available literature, it is evident that several economies of the Middle Eastern countries relied heavily on impatriates to build up and sustain their economies. This study proposed a model of

impatriate adjustment by presenting the issue of the KSA as an example of such an economy derived from impatriates. This was followed by a case study with specific reference to HRM practices and implications in KSA. The authors proposed a model of impatriate adjustment and highlighted the ignored aspects in the International HRM literature and addressed the key features and characteristics of the Middle East labour markets.

Mellahi, (2007) reported that since the early 2000s, the government in Saudi Arabia had undertaken steps to develop the HRM function in the private sectors through the legislation of a comprehensive framework. An extensive review of extant literature and interviews conducted with Saudi managers revealed that the implications of the emerging legal framework for HRM practices in the private sector. It evaluated how adequate the changing paradigm of HRM practices through laws and regulations were relevant. The author has suggested sector specific implications that would help private sectors as well as government to frame policies that strengthen the HRM function.

Albugamy, (2010) reported that in KSA the eventual goal of recruitment and selection is to hire and place the right people on the right jobs. They suggested that qualifications and skills are the two predominant factors that determine the fitness of the candidates in the jobs. These factors were considered to dominant factors over nepotism or any other cultural elements. The Saudi Arabian people like the other Arab countries are deeply rooted in their culture especially the prescriptions of the Koran. For example, *Wasta* an Arabic term that refers to connections for personal gains, describes the characteristics and the influence of culture on people's life and businesses. *Wasta* describes the desire to obtain a job. Currently, going by this prescription, employees with strong family and tribal connections in Saudi Arabia were

often promoted to senior positions. The Saudi social-value system is based on three major subsystems: (1) Religion which is Islam for all Saudis, (2) Family and kinship, (3) Traditions.

Altarawneh, & Aldehayyat, (2011) examined the associations between certain organizational characteristics such as size, ownership, classification and the implementation of SHRM in certain Jordanian hotels. Data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire from HR/personnel managers in hotels operating within the two most important tourist areas of Jordan (Petra and Aqaba). Data collection started by informing in advance the CEOs in the targeted hotels either over phone or through a formal letter. This was done to gain their support so that the personal biases and prejudices could be eliminated. The purpose of the study was conveyed to them and permission obtained to conduct the study. An appointment was sought to discuss about their responses. The study revealed that HRM practices in Jordanian hotels were affected to some extent by the constituent SHRM elements except, on the issues concerning corporate culture relationships, line management partnerships and cost effectiveness evaluation. Strong statistical association between organizational size and SHRM adoption also existed. These factors were considered as significantly vital for a strategic approach to HRM. The respondents highly rated the level of commitment of the management in developing the human resources is high. This was evident from the considerable investment made on HRM. But the extent to which the investment produces returns is not assessed. However, the commitment on developing human resources slightly overshadowed by the absence of line management support and their commitment to HR issues and a lack of integration of organizational culture with HRM strategies and policies.

Elamin, & Alomaim (2011) examined the relationship between perceptions on organizational justice and self-perceived performance and job satisfaction in the Saudi Arabia. Data were

collected using a self-administered questionnaire developed and administered to 793 foreign and native Saudi workers working in different organizations in Saudi Arabia. The employees were selected through a random process and a survey was conducted. Predictive techniques were used to determine the effect of organizational justice perceptions on job satisfaction and self-perceived performance. The study revealed that perceptions of organizational justice influence job satisfaction for both Saudi employees and foreign workers. However, results differ on the relationship between justice dimensions and self-perceived performance. Justice dimensions do not influence self-perceived performance for Saudi workers while, all the justice dimensions significantly influence self-perceived performance for the foreign workers. Self-perceived performance is negatively influenced by procedural justice for foreign workers and distributive justice predicted positively. This study contributed to the extant theory on organizational justice in a non-western context by providing empirical proof on the role of organizational justice in developing positive work outcomes. Again within the framework provided by the organization justice theory, this study throws more light on the influence perceptions of justice have on job satisfaction, though, the strength of predictors was varied. The findings suggest that the managers in Saudi Arabia should use 'justice card' while managing their employees. Special attention should be paid on interpersonal treatment at the work setting, social aspects of employees' treatment, particularly, support and respect. Level of performance may be improved with a shift in the justice-thinking of the policy makers, managers and employers in Saudi Arabia and by creating more optimistic work environment. Optimistic work environment could be developed by handling employees with equity and fairness and reorienting the systems, policies and procedures that govern employment practices.

Forstenlechner, (2010) identified HR-specific issues that could help emerging Gulf economies to localize their workforce. Localisation is commonly called as ‘Emiratization’. Existing research captured the level of commitment or the influence of stereotypes on recruitment or retention whereas this paper suggests concrete measures that help organizations develop a process of full scale localization. Data were collected from HR managers from private sector mostly through in-depth, semi-structured interviews. The interviews resulted in two opposing approaches that characterized localisation but no agreed definition of what Emiratization really means emerged. Interviews reported tokenism is rampant and localization would positively happen if the need for it is realistically felt by the organizations. Mental resolution at the employer and employee level towards this process would drive organizations to provide with meaningful and suitable work that increases the returns on human capital investment at the same time. Localization suffers hurdle at the recruitment stage. A strong and sufficient database replete with details of the nationals interested in applying for open positions or with nationals sending in a sufficient number of unsolicited applications does not exist. Few may exist, but, identification of suitable candidates with differentiated skills is difficult as applications mention very few differentiating points in the CVs. This is particularly true of fresh graduates as Gulf countries do not have the culture of running skill-based internships or summer jobs that would help applicants distinguish different expertise and skill sets. This study suffers from few limitations. Generalizability is limited due to the smaller sample size and difficulties encountered by the authors in accessing relevant personnel and propensity toward socially acceptable responses.

Khan, (2011) reported that in Oman, the role of human resource management function is at the crossroad, and on the one hand it is facing the difficulty whereas there also exists an

opening to redefine and refocus the HRM function to influence its trustworthiness in organization. HRM is in its infancy in Oman and in this paper, it was attempted to understand the dynamics of HRM and to evaluate the various models of HRM which have evolved over a period of time. It is not always easy to prescribe a HRM model without examining the regional and socio-contextual factors. Both convergence or pure divergence provides no solution to this end. The HR function has attracted the attention of corporate managers, consultants and researchers alike in GCC countries and in Oman as well. HRM is in nascent stage in Oman and the inadequacy of HR knowledge and competency to understand the socio-contextual factors have generated a confusion in dealing with the change. The development of various approaches and models has further confused the HR constituency. Which one of the models such as the Soft or a hard model, contextual model or culture bound HRM model, best fit or best practices HR model, convergence or divergence model is suitable for Omani context is the moot question being raised by HR practitioners, academicians and researchers. Convergence approach labeled as the best practices approach is based on the normative statements of what HR practices should look like and it is highly influenced by American researchers and commentators whereas the divergence approach advocates that the HRM model must be embedded with culture-oriented elements. It can be concluded that the purpose of HRM constituency which is so diverse and global at the same time can be served by neither convergence nor divergence model.

Moideenkutty, Lamki, & Ramamurthy, (2011) tested the relationship between high-involvement human resource management practices and organizational performance in the Sultanate of Oman. Companies enlisted in the Muscat Securities Market in the Sultanate of Oman were surveyed and the final sample consisted totally of 87 companies. Survey responses were subjected to statistical analysis. Financial measures of organizational

performance were also used in the analysis for a subset of the sample for which these data were available. Results of the statistical analysis indicated that, after controlling for size, type of firm (publicly traded or closely held) and average industry price-earnings ratio, high involvement human resource management practices were positively related to subjective organizational performance and an objective measure of performance, ratio of market value to book value. The results encouraged HR managers who argue for an internal development approach to managing human resources in the Arabian Gulf. It provides them with evidence to counter the arguments of cynics who favour a more instrumental, skill acquisition approach. This study assumes that HRM practices are uniform across organizational levels the results of our study suggest that organizations in the Arabian Gulf can enhance their performance by implementing high-involvement HRM practices research limitations include measuring high-involvement HRM practices and subjective organizational performance from the same source, with the assumption that HRM practices are uniform across organizational levels and using a composite measure of high-involvement HRM practices. Future research should address these limitations. The results of the study suggest that organizations in the Arabian Gulf can increase their performance by implementing high-involvement HRM practices in spite of the unique national culture and special features of the labor market in the region. This is the first study of high-involvement HRM practices and organizational performance in the Arabian Gulf using both subjective and objective measures of organizational performance. This study was based on data collected from private-sector organizations.

Zin, & Talat (2011) examined the relationships among the use of IT by organizations, HRM performances on its functional tasks on productivity, efficiency, and cost-effectiveness, organizational performances, the IT implementation gap, HRM transformation gap, and

organizational performances gap. The HRM practitioners who are registered as members of Arabian Society of Human Resource Management (ASHRM) were selected at random as respondents to give response to the questions in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed and consisted of four main sections: (a) several dimensions on utilization of IT; (b) several dimensions to determine the HRM's functional performances; (c) several dimensions of organizational performances (d) demographic data. The researcher developed four hypotheses which were statistically supported. The use of IT had significant correlations with the HRM functional performances based on efficiency, productivity and cost-effectiveness. Also, the IT implementation gap proved to be momentous to the overall performances of HRM functional task. The authors argued that HRM practitioners need to concentrate in their new roles as “strategic architect” in order to sustain a compellingly competitive workforce with diversity of cultures, countries and platforms (Fujimoto, Bahfe, Femelis & Haurtel, (2007). Knowledge management and the human capital are the new focus. These two are management enablers that work hand in hand. If the human capital is the framework, knowledge management brings in valuable content. Human capital emphasizes the fact that people should be deemed as assets that should be valued and developed, not resources that just be consumed.” Thus, human capital is the end result of maximizing the value of human resources.

AlGassim, Barry, & McPhail, (2012) explored the application of human resource management (HRM) practices used in multi-national corporation (MNC) hotels in Saudi Arabia. It also considered which HRM practices were used in Saudi hotel corporations that were more preferred by employees and management to assist their staff for better performance. This was the first study that investigated the issues within the Saudi hotels and Interviews and questionnaires were conducted in the four Saudi cities of Makkah, Jeddah, Al

Madinah and Riyadh. The study attempted to answer three questions: i) what are the most important HRM practices used in hotels, ii) Are HRM practices provided by the parent company or changes made to them to meet the Saudi context, iii) which HRM practices are more preferred in MNC hotels by Saudi employees? The study found that HRM practices used in MNC hotels are more developed in terms of application and implementation than other organizations and sectors. The results suggested that, despite the challenges facing the application of HRM practices in Saudi Arabia, the status of practices used in the hotel sectors were more appropriately implemented than in other sectors, and were similar to those practices used in the international context. The results showed that in the Saudi hotel sector there was no fixed list of HRM practices used. The hotels were allowed to modify the practices received from parent companies to fit their own context. The employees were slightly aware of the HRM practices used in their hotel which confirms the appropriate implementation of those practices in the Saudi hotels. However, those practices most preferred by managers and employees were job planning, performance evaluations, training, salary and wages and recruitment. To improve HRM practices utilization in Saudi organization in general and hotel sector in particular; the Saudi Government needs to set strict and obligatory HRM legislation and laws for all corporations, either multinational or domestic. In addition, the Government must pronounce their own HRM practices, with consideration of their culture and employees' satisfaction.

Alharthey, & Rasli, (2012) investigated the current Human Resources (HR) systems in Saudi Arabia using a survey conducted among 100 organizations. They studied the following HR functions: payroll, work time, benefits administration, recruitment and training. A self-reported questionnaire was used. Sample respondents included HR and IT experts and eight hypotheses were developed. It was found that companies used extra resources for HR

management apart from HR automated systems, were satisfied with the level of HRM systems' performance; were ready to implement new, were using more effective systems in their practice. It also found that Saudi market was not ready for SaaS model however, had high development potential. The results had shown that the Saudi market was ready for implementation of the new technologies. New developments, preferably on the basis of SaaS model, are required to improve the situation and make a step towards successful future. Surprisingly, the study found that there were still many people in the Saudi companies who did not use HRM systems optimally, and thus had to combine them with other tools and resources, the majority of which were already outdated and not used around the world. Possible reasons for such reality could be inconvenience of the HRM systems; insufficient software localization—incompatibility of the programs' functionality with the peculiarities of the Saudi business needs and requirements; inadequate functionality; too high prices, etc. It is necessary to develop and implement campaign that will show advantages of the HRM systems in order to change and improve this situation.

Jehanzeb, Rasheed, Rasheed, & Aamir, (2012) examined the impact of rewards and motivation using perceived amount of rewards on job satisfaction in both public and private banks of Saudi Arabia. In this study 568 employees were participated from both sectors. To conduct the study to test the relationship between rewards, motivation and job satisfaction, regression analysis was developed. Results indicate that (1) rewards have positive significance on motivation, (2) motivation is positively related to the job satisfaction (3) rewards have a positive significant effect on job satisfaction. The results are inconsistent with previous studies conducted to analyse the relationship of rewards, motivation and job satisfaction in different contexts. The article concluded that the degree of rewards,

motivation and job satisfaction of employees had a strong relationship in the banking sector of Saudi Arabia. An increase in reward led to incremental variance in employees' motivation for public and private banks. In organizations with emphasis on autonomy and co-workers, strong relationship were practiced with high job satisfaction. Rewards must be strategically readjusted to attain the organizational goals, boost employee's motivation to perform their job better and enhance satisfaction with their jobs.

Ramlall, Amri, & Ffar, (2012) reported that HR becomes more entrenched in business strategies, and comparative strategies as companies look for ways to compete more effectively. This paper provides a comparison of HR practices in Saudi Arabia and the United States. HR is more established in the United States and using the extant literature on HR in the United States, the authors surveyed HR leaders in Saudi Arabia. The sample data was collected from human resources managers, and personnel managers and their assistants in a variety of Saudi organizations. A total number of 180 questionnaires were distributed to about fifty, randomly selected, Saudi companies. The final sample size stood at 165 questionnaires. The results highlighted existing practices and also where importance could be placed in aligning HR strategies to core business practices. The authors concluded that HR professionals in Saudi Arabia viewed HR as a core strategy for improving organizational performance. The results indicated similar views on HR practices as compared to the United States and showed the willingness to utilize HR in a more integrated manner. Culture and religion provide more explanation on many of the workforce practices.

Torofdar, & Yunggar, (2012) reported that Saudi Arabia (SA) is one of the richest nations in the Middle East as the world's leading exporter of petroleum and with major economic and political influence. Saudi's efforts in economic reform led the way to its ascension to the

World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1999. Saudi has a very young population and with a massive 60% of the population under the age of 40, the youth are the voice of the country. Today, KSA is faced with the paradox of high wealth and high unemployment. Unemployment among the nationals in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) is driven by a number of key factors: lack of skills, low motivation to work, and high salary expectations, SA and the wider GCC share a number of unique challenges. As always, reform is challenged by obstacles and restraints. Can Saudization help assist the country's plan for economic reform? They concluded that investing in human capital is a major focus for any developing nation. To address the challenges faced by the Saudization policy, a holistic approach is required. The approach includes three fronts, consisting of expansion of the economic base and creation of additional jobs in strategic sectors in which Saudi Arabia has a competitive advantage and can provide sufficient income for nationals, develop the workforce by reforming the education system and upgrading; labor skills to create a generation of skilled nationals to match economic requirements and put in place effective labor and immigration policies by remaking the system and increasing national labor participation

Al-balussin, & El-garaihy, (2013) used the concepts of human resource management practice, knowledge management, organisational culture, organisational innovation, and organisational performance in his study. Although the results of literature were important, no studies were released in order to conduct a study about the purpose of human resource management practices in enhancing the organizational performance with interfering organisational culture, knowledge management, and organisational innovation. This study identified the relationship between organisational culture, knowledge management, and organisational innovation. The research utilized causality models and developed a conceptual framework based on thorough understanding of the extant literature in HRM. A sample of 203 human

resource directors working in large organisations in the Saudi Arabian Eastern Region were used. The confirmatory factor analysis [CFA] and SEM were used to analyze the data collected to test the framework. The study found that human resource management practices is an important predictors of organizational culture, knowledge management, and organisational innovation, which have in turn is positively link to organisational performance. The research attempts to draw inferences on how HR manager play the role of an arbitrator and how his or her role enhance organisational performance. The study is unique because it is conducted to establish the impact of human resource management practices on organisational culture, knowledge management and organisational innovation, and organisational performance.

Qureshi, Ansari, & Sajjad (2013) attempted to find out the modern-day issues of Human Resource Management in the retail sector of Saudi Arabia. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has a robust economy and a stable market and without doubt oil is the backbone of the Saudi economy. But in addition to that the kingdom has invested tremendous effort in diversifying its economy to include industry, trade, service sector's especially the retail sector to boost its economy. In this study, the researcher shall critically examine contemporary developments in human resource, like new challenges in the recruitment and selection of human resource, developing human resource skills and capabilities in the retail sector. The retail sector is set for extensive growth due to the higher domestic spending power. The study concludes that because of the growth of retail sector, human resource management has also become more eminent in relation to other managerial initiatives. Although human resource management activities in the retail sector in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is on the right track but at the same time due the dynamics of the sector, some of the activities of human resource

management like recruitment and training & development have become the contemporary issue in human resource management of Saudi Arabia. The recruitment and training & development of the Saudi professionals is important, so that the young Saudi graduates from Saudi Universities find suitable jobs in the retail sector and are able to deliver. The study further recommends that the requirement of the hour is that the retail sector in partnership with the education sector of Saudi Arabia design industry specific programs for the young Saudi graduates.

Alotaibi (2014) in his doctoral thesis had explored 4 factors using a qualitative study. They include the current unemployment crisis in Saudi Arabia, evaluated the efficacy of the human capital development model as it relates to the current unemployment problem, evaluated the efficacy of the human capital development model within the existing Saudization policy and explored the possibilities of a collaborative approach to reduce unemployment in Saudi Arabia. This research proposed a human capital theory approach to developing a system that invests in Saudi Arabian nationals. The research also proposed network governance theory to prompt stakeholders such as the Ministry of Labor, the Ministry of Education, and private organizations to work as a single entity in developing human capital within Saudi Arabia. A qualitative method was used to analyze past literature regarding Saudization to provide insight into the current unemployment problem, and secondary data from Saudi government documents were used to evaluate the efficacy of individual qualifications and skill levels of those involved in efforts to curtail unemployment. In addition, the researcher conducted several interviews with stakeholders, decision makers and managers to explore opportunities for and barriers to collaboration in establishing a program that develops Saudi human capital qualifications within the Saudi education system. This study's findings were based on four elements: the impact of legitimacy (sharing authority and power), the influence of the current

human resources system, incentives for stakeholders, and sharing operational processes to achieve effective collaboration. The results supported developing human capital skills and creating opportunities for nationals to gain experience and practical skills through their educational journey. This researcher recommends expediting job creation mechanisms and promoting a collaborative model for stakeholders to establish a mandatory occupational regional (internship) program to develop human capital qualifications in order to diminish the unemployment rate.

Azeem, & Akhtar, (2014) investigated the level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction among employees working in public sector organizations in Saudi Arabia. The study further investigated the relationships among demographic variables (Age and Tenure), job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The sample consisted of 210 employees from different government offices located in Yanbu City. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Organizational Commitment questionnaires were used to collect data on the variables under study. The variables studied are nature of work, pay, supervision, promotion, co-workers, Organisational commitment, relationship with immediate supervisor, tenure and age. Correlation analyses and multiple regression analyses were used to analyze the data. Pay as a key human resources practice affects employee satisfaction and commitment. Promotion was found positively related to organizational commitment due to the opportunities for the public sector employees to advance their career. Relationship with immediate supervisor was an important antecedent of employee's job satisfaction. Findings show a moderate level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among the respondents the findings of the present study indicate that Saudi employees working in public sector organizations are moderately satisfied with the nature of the work they do, the supervision they receive, and the co-workers they work with. They are less satisfied with the pay they receive and promotional

opportunities to grow. Employees in the sample show moderate level of organizational commitment with organization they currently work with. All the job facets are found significantly related to organizational commitment. Tenure is also found to be positively related to organizational commitment of the sample in the study. The results cannot be generalized as they are specific to the sample that was selected from the government organizations located in Yanbu city only.

HRM issues in Family Businesses

In the past, various researchers have tried to study, explain, and analyze the importance of family businesses to the economy as a whole. Most researchers have agreed that family businesses have a serious impact on domestic economies and greatly impact the opportunities for investments, job opportunities for skilled workers, concept and organizational innovation, and profitability (Carlock & Ward, 2010). There is no definition of the “family business” upon which all researchers have mutual agreement, but it could be inferred that family business involves the participation of more than one individual of one family in the ownership of private capital company, with controls mechanisms that help to keep the company active and closely monitored across generations. It is the firm whose operations/management decisions are affected by leadership succession of the family members managing the business.

One can conclude that there are three basic concepts that characterize family businesses (Yilmazer & Schrank, 2006). First, a family business can be characterized as one in which the ownership structure is such that at least 50% of the organization’s shares are owned by an individual family. Second, a family business is characterized by the emotional attachment a family shows towards a business or organization. Third, a family business is characterized by

a management structure centered on a central family structure. Within this structure, close family members are typically hired to serve in executive and other managerial positions; their hiring is based on a sense of family loyalty. Some are qualified for their respective posts, but many are not. This is no doubt a serious threat to economic output as well as the future orientation of the organization for which they are hired. In light of the potentially negative impacts of the family business structure on economic output and growth, there is a strong need for HRM within these organizations.

Thus far, relatively little research has looked at how a family firm may adapt HRM to its particular culture and purposes. This may partly due to the extent that the family firm as a business form runs the range from large multinationals to small local firms, operating across a wide range of legal and corporate cultures, and, therefore, spans a significant range of organizational variance (Chrisman *et al.*, 2008, LaPorta, Florencio, Shleifer, 1999, Peng and Jiang, 2010). However, from the wider literature on the strengths and weaknesses of the family firm (Chrisman *et al.*, 2005, Chrisman *et al.*, 2009, Debicki *et al.*, 2009, Sharma, 2004) it is feasible to assume that two features may be relevant to the analysis of the role of HRM within the family business.

First, in a family business, there is a general expectation that a number of senior posts will go to family members, and thus managers lose some of the ability to suggest different recruitment strategies. In effect, the desire to recruit on the basis of genetics rather than competence (Debicki *et al.*, 2009) makes it harder to suggest a shift in recruitment profile as a solution to revealed problems. Because family businesses are limited in their ability to use recruitment as a tool to address possible deficiencies in organizational performance, they may find in-firm training to be the best method of addressing skill gaps.

The second problem with HRM in family business is the relatively frequent finding (Chrisman *et al.*, 2009) that assessment of the performance of family members is more generous than that applied to non-family members. In effect, the basic data for a TNA may be distorted due to skewed perceptions of performance. In turn this may lead to limits as to what a TNA can investigate or suggest if it is perceived to challenge the interest of family members of the firm. Both of these issues might potentially distort the usage of HRM in a family firm and may have an impact on the usage and constraints of a TNA. In effect, the information may be skewed due to intra-firm dynamics and the relative inability to recommend a change of recruitment policy to bring in workers with relevant skill sets.

Sound Training and Development plans have been shown to contribute to increased quality and productivity of work. The development strategy reduces staff turnover and absenteeism and helps in motivating the employees. In order to achieve competitive advantage, training and development plans must take account of innovation and reinvention, which is only possible when training encompasses a wide range of learning actions. Therefore, ideally, training should be a part of a company-wide strategy and it must be linked to business goals and organizational performance.

Summary:

The argument that there is a need to develop employees is compelling because of a desire to localise employees in Saudi companies. A review of the current literature shows that HRM practices in KSA contribute to increased organisational performance. On the other side, few companies did not have a full fledged HR department yet, HR in an informal way proved to develop the employees and thus help organisations motivate the employees. There are indications in the HR literature published with respect to KSA, that development of

employees could be done by instituting training and development plans that encompasses a wide range of learning actions. Therefore, ideally, training should be a part of a company-wide strategy and it must be linked to business goals and organizational performance. This was done, generally out of the belief that such training improves the attitude of employee, job satisfaction, productivity, and work quality; improves overall perception of an organization by the customer; and increases profit levels by reducing labour turnover and associated costs.

Training and Development

Forbes in its 2014 Corporate Learning Factbook reported that US spending on corporate training grew by 15% last year (the highest growth rate in seven years) to over \$70 billion in the US and over \$130 billion worldwide. (Conrade, Woods, and Ninemeier, 1994).

Many authors have defined training in their own perspective. Goldstein (1980) described training as “the acquisition of skills, concepts, or attitudes that result in improved performance in an on-the-job environment. It comprises of a massive enterprise and a powerful instrument for change. Abiodun (1999) defined training as a methodical development of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes essential for employees to perform sufficiently on a given task or job. It could take place in a number of ways, on the job or off the job; in the organization or outside organization. Adeniyi (1995) observed that staff training and development is a work activity that can make a very significant contribution to the overall efficiency and productivity of an organization. He provided a systematic approach to training that encompassed the main elements of training. According to Pitfield (1982), the objectives of training are to provide the skills, knowledge, and aptitudes needed to undertake the required job efficiently, develop workers so that their potential is utilized, and increase efficiency by reducing spoilt work and misuse of machines as well as by lessening

occupational risk. The section below presents the review of the published literature on training and development.

Alsamani, (1997) assessed the effects of the management development program in Saudi Arabia on the job performance of the public managers. To help meet the objective of this study, there were two groups. One was the test group that consists of public managers who attend the MDP offered by the Institute of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia. As a result, they should be more effective in their job than the other group, the control group, who do not participate in any MDP. To collect the data for this study, a questionnaire was administered to 69 Saudi public managers and 201 subordinates of the managers of both groups in four Saudi Arabia's ministries. These ministries included the Ministry of Higher Education, the Ministry of Agriculture and Water, the Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, and the Ministry of Planning. A structured interview with 15 of the managers' immediate superiors also was conducted. The purpose of the interview was to provide additional support to the findings and help to establish the cause effect relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variables. There were 11 hypotheses presented in this research. The results showed a considerable difference between the two groups. This indicated that the MDP has positive impact on the managers' job performance. Structured interview was conducted with the managers' immediate superiors. The results of the interview ensured that work improvement within the test group was influenced by participating in the MDP and not by other factors. It was concluded, therefore, the majority of the respondents-the managers, their subordinates, and managers' immediate superiors agreed that the MDP in the country of Saudi Arabia is effective in training employees to be better managers. Based on these findings, a number of policy implications for Saudi Arabia MDP as well as for the Saudi Arabia bureaucracy and recommendations for future research were made.

Bukhary, & Abdulkarim, (1986) reported that administrative training of government employees is increasingly an integral part of any administrative development effort in developing countries that aimed to solve the dilemma of manpower shortage by improving the performance and upgrading the performance and productivity of public servants. This is a wide advocacy, however, administrative training efforts have been criticized as falling short of the expectations, largely due to the problem of discrepancy between the context of training efforts and the actual training needs to be fulfilled. This also extends to the content and the lack of relevance to the real world. This study was aimed to study the in-service administrative training programs in Saudi Arabia within a broader context of development in general. This also extends to the context of national development and development administration in Saudi Arabia in particular. This study had two major purposes: first, to explore and examine the status of the in-service training in Saudi Arabia, and second, to assess the effectiveness of the administrative in-service programs in terms of their adaptation and relevance to trainees' actual training needs. The study included the following factors: selection of trainees, the placement of trainees into training programs, the content of training, training methods and training staff. The study involved a survey of related literature on the field of development administration and administrative training, a review of national development, development administration and administrative training in Saudi Arabia, and a development and administration of two survey questionnaires to two categories of trainees and staff of the in-service training programs of the Institute of Public Administration. The results identified several limitations concerning the administrative training policy and organization, in general, and the particular areas of selection and nomination of trainees, placement of trainees into training programs, content of the training programs, choice of training methods, and the staff. The study recommended that there were serious concerns on

the training programs and that the training programs needed improvements and modifications in the general areas of administrative training policy and organization, and the particular areas of training programs addressed by the study.

Cromie & Sullivan (1999) compares the perception on career experiences of managers who were members of the family who owned the organizations and managers who were not. Results of the survey reported that family managers enjoyed increased status, job security and flexibility. Many could take advantage of this flexibility to combine and balance between child rearing and career roles. It was found that non-family managers perceived themselves as competitive and independent people because they have better academic qualifications and were less likely to be married and have children. Significantly, it was found that both groups were not enthusiastic about their training, personal contact and mentors and considered that progress in career was easier for them. All managers, in general, felt they lacked power and opportunities to make progress in their respective functions.

Yavas, U. (1999) examined the extent to which the commerce/management education provided by Saudi universities was aligned with the needs of the Saudi private sector. In particular, the study first identified the degree of importance attached to a set of executive training/skill areas by the management of Saudi private sector companies, and then sought their opinions regarding how well the present educational system satisfies those needs. Results indicated skill/training areas that matched the expectations of the private sectors and those that did not match. Results indicated several bright spots in the performance of local colleges in imparting training to the students that match the expectations of the private sector organizations. On the other side, specifically, the colleges were expected to keep up the good work on communication skills, decision-making, and production management. These

skills were essential to the private sector, and it seems to be that local colleges were doing an effective job with them. Currently managers were also satisfied with the preparation levels of the students in finance and accounting. These strong showings, however, should not lead to complacency; college administrators must continuously monitor industry demands and make adaptations to their course offerings and curricula. Few areas of concern for training by the local colleges were economics, marketing, organizational behavior, statistics, export and import, business law, and computers. Then, the executives did not consider skills in these areas as very salient, nevertheless felt that students were not well prepared in them. Therefore, while taking actions to improve skill on these areas, administrators must be vigilant about changes in industry perceptions of the importance of these skills

Assad (2002) reported that economic development programs initiated in Saudi Arabia has swiftly enlarged organizational size and complexity. New organizations at all levels have been created to execute the objective of the developing nation. Yet in its quest for quick economic progress, Saudi Arabia continued to face challenges that emerged from the ways in which cultural values influenced administrative structures and behavior in organizations. It is apparent that Saudi Arabia is undergoing changes due to the influence of working cultures brought both from the Western and Eastern countries. Recent problems in organization could be understood in the context of an ongoing encounter between forces of change and forces of stability. This study examined Saudi management problems, explored alternative models for reform, importance of running training programs, areas of compatibility between Saudi Islamic tradition and Western management practices, and made recommendations to integrate the various systems.

Harris, Reid & McAdam (2004) nationally represented data on family businesses available in

the 1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey, alongside comparable information for other types of firms. This data was used to compare differences in consultation and communication procedures. Such practices were used as direct communication schemes (e.g. briefings, the provision of information on financial performance to the workforce) as opposed to indirect methods such as the use of joint consultative committees. There was an anticipation in the literature that family-owned businesses were either more likely to use direct forms of communication (vis-a`-vis indirect forms) or that they will not be involved in direct communication or consultation with their employees. This was tested using multivariate techniques. Finally, it was considered that the type of consultation/communication structure mattered in terms of establishment performance, and differences existed with respect to family-owned businesses. In particular, it was reported that firms that consult directly with staff, as opposed to those that consult through joint consultative committees or trade unions, had higher productivity and/or other measures of performance.

Grohmann and Kauffeld (2005) evaluated psychometrically sound evaluation measures that were vital for examining the contribution of professional training to organizational success.. As training evaluations tended to be both time-consuming and labor-intensive, there was an increasing demand for economic evaluation inventories. Simultaneously, evaluation measures had to meet psychometric standards. This article developed a time-efficient training evaluation questionnaire that had psychometrically sound properties, measured more than the participants' reactions, thus allowing for comparisons of training programs within and between organizations. The Questionnaire for Professional Training Evaluation was primarily developed for use in practice but was also applicable to field research and covers short-term as well as long-term training outcomes. Analyses based on a sample size of 1134 employees showed the stability of the factor structure and hinted at the questionnaire's

differential and discriminant validity.

Kotey (2005) examined the differences between family and non-family SMEs in business goals, management practices and performance. The study was based on 233 small non-family and 362 small family firms. Medium firms comprised 305 family and 341 non-family firms. Chi-square tests and t-tests were used to investigate the hypotheses formulated. It was found that non-family firms had more growth than similar family firms. Although medium family proprietors desired growth, their actual growth was lower than similar non-family firms. Management practices were less formal in family firms and the gap between family and non-family firms in this area widened with growth. Small family firms achieved greater profits than their non-family counterparts, although this disparity disappeared at the medium level. Exports were low for both firms at the small level. However, medium family firms were less likely than similar non-family firms to export. Firms in the various size groups examined were independent of one another. The findings should assist policy makers, advisers, owners and management in designing policies and programs, providing advice and managing the two types of ownership. Informal management procedures and the associated flexibility might enhance performance of small family firms but might impede their performance at larger sizes. It was demonstrated that the relationship between goals, strategies and performance varied between family and non-family firms and the variations change with firm size.

Sloman (2005) highlighted the importance of helping people to learn and look for techniques that help people learn. This study concluded that the domination of the classroom-based training course in workplace learning was no longer appropriate for a global economy where change happens so quickly. Such classroom-based, fact-dominated learning soon becomes out of date/not suitable for everyone. This paper recognized the need for training and help

organizations think about what type of training is best for their organization and employees.

Aqarni, (2006) in his doctoral thesis analysed the relationships between characteristics of trainer members and their level of implementation of information technology at the Institute of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia. The implementation of information technology (IT) deals with a wide variety of issues, it has both the challenge of and opportunity for addressing the educational, psychological, behavioral, and lifestyle issues of individuals attending schools. A quantitative survey research design was used to explore the connection between the trainer members' gender, age, years of experience, rank, computer access, training fields, the number of workshops taken, and job satisfaction, and their level of IT implementation. Finally, the question was whether there would be any combination of variables predicting IT implementation in training, research, and service. The results demonstrate that specialty field, computer access in the classroom, workshop sessions, age, and job satisfaction are statistically momentous as predictors of IT implementation. Likewise, the variables specialty field, computer access in the classroom, younger age, intrinsic job satisfaction, and computer experience significantly combine to predict the level of IT implementation in research. Finally, computer access in the classroom, younger age, and high intrinsic job satisfaction significantly come together to predict the level of IT implementation for the service sector.

Birdthistle (2006) examined the training and learning strategies handled by family businesses. Prior to the study a database of family businesses was compiled generated from a large number of sources. Primary data was collected from a stratified random sample of independent unquoted businesses. Data were collected from 121 family businesses using a questionnaire collected through mails. The findings of this study were that family SMEs appeared to prefer an informal learning strategy than a formal strategy while they were

hindered by the lack of financial resources in order to enable learning and training to occur within the business. Data was collected using a single-respondent, self-administered questionnaire. The research suggested that research in future should include analyzing other members of the family business – family and non-family members – so as to get a wider understanding of learning and training in family businesses in Ireland. It also presented that research on training programs in family businesses was under-researched.

Kotey and Folker (2007) examined the main and interactive effects of size and firm types on a variety of informal and formal training programs in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Using a samples of 448 family and 470 nonfamily SMEs, the sample was separated into four size groups and differences were assessed using multivariate analyses of variance. The results pointed to prevalence of informal training for all sizes and an increase in adoption of formal, structured, and development-oriented training with increasing firm size (especially for firms with 20–99 employees). This pattern was apparent for nonfamily but not for family firms. For family firms, formal training programs increased significantly during the critical growth phase only (20–49 employees). Gaps in employee training between the two types of firms were greatest at 50–99 employees but narrowed thereafter at 100–199 employees. The approach to employee training in family SMEs was in consonance with their slower growth, informal management styles, limited financial resources, and greater importance on efficiency compared with nonfamily SMEs.

Al-Ahmadi (2009) identified factors that influenced performance of hospital nurses in Riyadh Region, Saudi Arabia. Specific objectives were to estimate self-reported performance, and decide whether differences in employee demographics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, influenced performance. Altogether, 15 hospitals were randomly selected.

The questionnaire was sent to all nurses (1, 834) working in these facilities and 923 nurses responded yielding a response rate of 50.23%. Statistical techniques employed were correlation, t-test, and regression analysis. The study found that job performance was positively correlated with organizational commitment, job satisfaction and personal and professional variables. Both job satisfaction and organizational commitment were strong predictors of nurses' performance. Job performance was positively related to personal factors such as years of experience, nationality, gender, and marital status. Level of education was negatively related to performance. The findings of this study had a limited generalisability due to the fact that all measures used were based on self-reports. Future research might be directed to other measures of performance. Emphasis should be placed on effective supervision, empowerment, and a better reward system. Cultural diversity was a reality for most health organizations in Saudi Arabia; therefore, they needed to adopt effective human resources strategies aimed at improving commitment and retention of qualified workers, and build a high performance organizational culture based on empowerment, open communication, and appreciation of impact of national culture on work attitudes. The authors suggested that future research should be undertaken in the area of nursing performance, and its relationship with work attitudes in Saudi Arabia. The impact of national culture on job performance and work attitude among nurses in Saudi Arabia, and other countries facing the issue of multi-national work force is also highlighted.

Dragoni, Tesluk, Russell & Oh (2009) integrated work experience, leadership development, and learning literatures into their study and developed and tested a model of managerial development linking experience in highly developmental assignments, a learning goal orientation, and access to developmental assignments. Based on multisource data on early-career managers, the results demonstrated that the developmental quality of managerial

assignments had a positive association with end-state competencies that exceeded the association explained by tenure. Furthermore, they found that managers with stronger learning orientations, especially those with access to growth assignments, were more likely to be in developmental assignments and achieved higher levels of competence based on those experiences.

Thassanabanjong, Miller & Marchant (2009) profiled small-medium enterprises (SMEs) and filled a research gap about their investment in training and approaches to training. A quantitative descriptive design with a drop-off survey was used among 438 SMEs. The study revealed a relatively young, highly-educated cohort of SME owner/managers, with greater business longevity than other countries. They did not invest a great deal of time or money in training and prefer informal, unstructured on-the-job (OTJ) training. Most SMEs trained a few or none of their members for two hours a week and thus were “low” or “tactical” trainers. However there were strategic trainers particularly in contemporary industries such as IT and services as well as larger and higher-earning SMEs. The study focuses on urban SMEs and thus may not represent rural or regional areas, or SMEs in other countries. The quantitative approach did not explain why investment in training was relatively low. This paper encouraged debate on the presumed universality of training and argued to understand training in family run SMEs, particularly in developing nations.

Rodríguez and Bontis (2010) attempted to develop a model of knowledge transfer that considered kinship ties and emotions in family-based firms. There existed several models, which showed how information flows among individuals and within organizations. One school of thought was known as Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT), which was initially formulated by Lev Vygotsky, the Founder of the school. However, when analyzing

CHAT within the family business context, the model no longer holds true. The authors examined knowledge-transfer mechanisms through the lens of family firms. Family traditions, ties, and emotions, which were not considered in the original learning framework, affect knowledge transfer, commitment, and the motivation of family members. Based on CHAT and subsequently on other social networks theories, a more suitable next generation learning model was developed which explained how intergenerational knowledge transfer takes place within family firms. This study enhanced the understanding of how family members' shared knowledge (i.e. traditions) might become sources of competitive advantages for the family firm (i.e. long-term survival). This paper also was among the first known to examine knowledge-transfer mechanisms specifically for family-based businesses.

Bertolino, Truxillo and Fraccaroli (2011) reported that based on changes in motivation age would moderate the relationship between proactive personality and three training-related variables such as training motivation, perceived career development from training, and training behavioral intentions. A sampling survey was done with 252 municipal government employees. As hypothesized, participants' age moderated the relationship between proactive personality and these outcomes. Specifically, there was generally a more positive relationship between proactive personality and the outcomes for younger participants than for older participants.

Ghosh, Joshi, Satyawadi, Mukherjee and Ranjan (2011) aimed to deal with assessment of different parameters of an induction programmer conducted by a transmission and distribution major in India. The study aims to indicate which aspects of the training programmer need to be emphasized when devising induction programmers for managers and non-managers, and to ascertain whether there was any significant difference in their reactions.

Evaluation had been done with the help of trainee reaction measured by a questionnaire. The statistical tools used include factor analysis to generate factors that influence trainee satisfaction and a t-test to test the hypothesis that there will be a significant difference between managerial and non-managerial levels in their satisfaction with different aspects of the programmer. Factor analysis generated six factors, namely clarity of trainer, other facilities, venue of the programmer, food served, practical application, and communication of trainer. The t-test ran on these factors showed a significant difference in means for only one factor, namely communication of trainer, which implied that managers could relate better to the trainer, given their intellectual superiority. The findings could help in developing an induction programmer customized to meeting the needs of managers and non-managers. Practitioners could use the findings to plan for a common orientation programmer for the healthy integration of managers and non-managers and to make sure that there was a least gap between the satisfaction levels of the two groups.

Ismail, Noor, & Awang (2011) reported that training was an important component of human resource development and was emphasized in the Malaysian economic development process. The Malaysian Government had established the Human Resource Development Fund (HRDF) managed by the Human Resource Development Limited (HRDL) to enhance and monitor the aspect of workers' training. The HRDF had managed to increase the workers' training activities. However, the issue raised here was to explain whether the training had adversely encouraged the workers' mobility. The research attempted to analyze this issue based on 817 workers in a selected services sub-sector, namely, the information and communication technology (ICT) and the hotel subsector. The results showed that the HRDL training has a positive and significant influence on workers' mobility.

Iqbal, (2011) argued that the creativity and innovation concepts were often used interchangeably in the literature. However, some of the authors might distinguish between the two concepts. Such authors usually consider creativity as an internal and rational process of creating new ideas, while innovation refers to the implementation of such ideas. As the global forces become increasingly inevitable, many business experts are predicting that workforce creativity and innovation would be the most vital factors in establishing and maintaining a competitive advantage. Because of its theoretical and practical significance, how to foster innovation in organizations had become a fast-growing research area in the field of management. According to the Global Innovation Index Saudi, Arabia was ranked at 42 ahead of Italy, Poland, Turkey and China. However, its innovation output index was low at '98' place. This article examined the current efforts towards organizational creativity and innovation predominantly in the context of Arab world especially Saudi industry. This theoretical paper also aimed to identify and comprehend the barriers towards creativity and innovation in terms of organizational effectiveness. This paper had found that Saudi Arabia was doing well in attracting and retaining innovation factors (such as human skills, government support and investment in R&D, and increasingly knowledge through education-industry linkages). Still, there was a need for grouping of right policies and good human capital to improve 'creative outcomes'.

Latif, Jan, & Shaheen (2011) conducted a study to find whether the Training received by employees contributed to job satisfaction. Data from the respondents was subjected to analysis using the statistical software SPSS. Independent Sample T-Tests, One Way Anova, Correlation, and regression analysis were used to test the research questions. Various facets of overall job satisfaction were found to have a significant positive association with each other that results in a significant association between overall training satisfaction and

employee development aspect of job satisfaction. The Study identified a necessary ingredient to the creation of Job Satisfaction among employees in a business world driven by Learning and Sharing of Information. The Research highlighted the needs of business to concentrate on building employee capacity and focusing on Employee Development to achieve job satisfaction and creation of Competitive advantage for the business organization. Much of the research was focused on training and its effects on overall job satisfaction, but modest research had been focused on the employee development aspect of job satisfaction.

Mahmood & Akhter (2011) reported that training and development activities in Bangladesh had to be systematic and able to fulfill the needs of the economy and industry. The national educational and training system failed to provide adequate knowledge and skills to the workforce. However, private sector organizations were undertaking different initiatives to cope with the industry skill requirements and are trying to develop their own employees. Recent government initiatives seemed to be encouraging for future training and development activities in Bangladesh.

Ahmad (2012) shed light on the problems and constraints faced by micro, small and medium-sized entrepreneurs (MSMEs) in the KSA. To attain the above objective, the study employed a mixed methodology research design where both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. A survey method was used to gather data from 177 MSMEs located in selected cities in Saudi Arabia (i.e. Riyadh, Jeddah, Jubail and Al-Khobar), and, in addition, 15 of these entrepreneurs were purposefully selected and interviewed. Statistical analysis was conducted to identify the factors constraining the growth and survival of MSMEs in the country. The relevant literature reviewed pointed towards most important issues in the environment of the small business enterprises. The results showed that the difficulties in obtaining financial

support, bureaucracy, lack of credit options and unfriendly business environment were the key problems and constraints faced by the analysed MSMEs. Other important problems included unfriendly business environment, inadequate government support, unpredictable policy changes, and lack of training. These barriers varied according to the field of activity of the enterprises. The instruments used for this study needed to be subjected to more statistical tests in order to establish a more robust validity and reliability. In addition, replication of this study using larger samples with more types of business sectors and a broader geographic base was suggested for cross-validation purposes. Policy makers – such as governments (federal, state, local), NGOs, and other stakeholders – can strengthen their MSME entrepreneurs by launching promotional schemes that could lead to entrepreneurial success and design targeted policies and related support programmes that would actively stimulate the development of MSME businesses. The study served to enhance the understanding on the subject of entrepreneurship in an Arab country and would specifically help to fill the lack of academic research available about MSMEs businesses in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The understandings gained from this study contribute to the future development of this line of research, particularly in a non-Western context. Proper attention to the issues raised and recommendations made could give a noteworthy boost to entrepreneurial activities in the region.

Chatzimouratidis, Theotokas, & Lagoudis, (2012) stated that human resource training and development methods and techniques had different qualitative characteristics that required a multi criteria and multi scenario framework for their assessment. This study includes also the AHP to review the nine most important human resource training and development methods and techniques, under five criteria and six scenarios. The methods considered were on-the-job training, mentorship, apprenticeship, vestibule training/simulators, web-based learning,

instructor-led classroom training, programmed self-instruction, case studies/role playing and systematic job rotations and transfers. Vestibule training/simulators and mentorship have the average best scores, and they should be among the first priorities especially when efficiency, the motivation of employees and minimization of the duration of training time were the most important factors. Web-based learning was ideal for minimizing training costs or when ease of application was the first priority. On-the job training was a very good alternative when the cost of training should be reduced while the motivation of employees should be increased.

Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi, Ranjan and Singh (2012) determined the predictors of training effectiveness with special reference to trainers' characteristics. Training effectiveness was captured using seven independent factors explored from the extant literature. These factors were measured in terms of trainee satisfaction. A structured questionnaire was developed and respondents were sampled using simple random sampling method. 80 usable responses were obtained and the data was subjected to multiple regression analysis. Regression results show that trainer's comfort level with the subject matter and trainer's rapport with trainees are two significant predictors of trainee satisfaction. Hence, two hypothesis developed to predict trainee satisfaction were proved and the remaining were not supported. The researchers suggested that the design of the training programmes knowledge should consider the level of trainers and their interpersonal skills.

Ghufli, (2012) reported that there was an increasing interest in training and development in the world in general and in countries in the Arab world. In particular, countries such as United Arab Emirates are showing interest to improve the performance of human resources to achieve the desired level of effectiveness and to remain successful. The author argued that In most of Arab countries, training was not conducted in a professional manner. Training

need analysis, nominating the trainees, implementing, the programmes and evaluating the programmes were not meritoriously done. TNA comprehensively includes all the factors and hence it should precede any training intervention program. This study sought to understand the role of existing training needs analysis process of Abu Dhabi Police, and the factors that affect the process to identify the needs and the impact of this on improving organisational performance. A questionnaire and interview schedule was prepared and administered to the Abu Dhabi Police. Moreover, this study threw more light on the current TNA methods and practices in Abu Dhabi Police and thus contributed to more understanding of TNA in Arab countries.

Jia, Huang, Liuc, Zhu & Cai (2012) investigated both the direct and moderating influence of employee training on firm performance. Considering the institutional demands in environmental protection prevalent in the modern society, the authors hypothesized that employee training consistent with the demands should have a positive and direct impact on firms' performance in sustainable development. Further, employee training should also play a moderating and positive role explaining the relationship between the firm's environmental attitude and performance in sustainable development. The study was conducted among manufacturing firms. Results indicate empirical evidence on the relationship between a firm's environment attitude and performance in sustainable development. The authors argued that this relationship could be well understood by accounting for human resource management practice such as employee training. Employee training, would improve the environmental attitude which in turn, would improve its performance in sustainable development. Results also suggested that employee training also have a positive direct effect on firms' performance in sustainable development.

Lambert, Vero & Zimmermann (2012) discussed that lifelong learning is the key to make employee's career paths more secure in both the studied countries – France and other European countries. However, several delicate issues pertaining to sharing of vocational training among employees, employers and public institutions so delicate were raised. The authors used capability approach in order to explain the relationship between responsibility and freedom characterized by French training reforms in 2004. The authors used quantitative and qualitative surveys consulting both employers and their employees. It was found that more than the employees' previous training and career paths, the environment provided by the company contributes more decisively to building capability and develop professionally at work. The authors proposed that a scheme for building capability based on conceptualization of professional development.

Raj (2012) discussed that public sector companies in India are emerging as an important contributor to the economy and their contribution to the overall growth and development of various sectors of the economy remains unparalleled. These companies contributed to economic growth as well as social and regional developments. The economic reforms brought forth in the year 1991 exposed them to globalization forcing to reestablish themselves in a new form. They are in a situation where they have to adopt to newer global trends and compete with global product or perish in the competition posed in the global environment. On this sideline, the author examined training and development facilities provided by the Central Public Sector firms. Specifically, it analysed the perception of the employees towards training and development programmes and the effect of these programmes in enhancing the employees' workplace performance. Data was collected from 199 respondents using survey method. Results indicated that training and development programme enhanced performance and productivity.

Sandhu, Hussain and Matlay (2012) investigated the entrepreneurship education and training (EET) needs in small family-owned businesses operating in India's most important sector, the agricultural sector. A survey method was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data from 122 agricultural family firms in the so-called 'rice bowl' India – the Indian state of Punjab. Data were analysed using descriptive and causal statistical methods. It was found that relationship exists between key variables and EET needs in these family firms. Owner of small family firms have low levels of EET and hence higher needs for training. However, training becomes unaffordable due to insufficient funds and low awareness about the importance and availability of training. These reasons appeared to be most noteworthy challenges for the family firms in accessing financial education and training. Agriculture based family-firm owners have low level of education and hence training of the owners were the major determinants of these firms' taking up EET. This research was found to be noteworthy as contributes greatly to training and developed in an under-researched sector. The authors argued that EET was a prerequisite for economic growth in the agricultural sector of the Indian economy.

Skilled workforce and quality management was critical to the successful performance of any organisation and a contributing factor towards the increase or decrease in a company's profits respectively (Shiryan, Shee, & Stewart, 2012). They presented a substantial review of literature on organisational training in Saudi Arabian context and identified a number of dimensions relevant for their study. They studied the important aspects of staff training, leadership qualities and change management and their ability to drive organisational objectives. They hypothesised that relationship exists between desired training outcomes and the nature of training, executive involvement in training, and executive motivation. They

again hypothesised that firm performance is related to nature of training, executive involvement in training and executive motivation. Data were collected from 268 SMEs. This study gained significant as employee training is an important issue in emerging non-oil sectors of Saudi Arabia's SMEs, as many of the managers of small firms follow traditional control practices and do not have adequate requisite skills. The study found that managers in these firms needed skill development in team leadership, finance, marketing and administration. Further research on policy and technical training to meet environmental changes are required.

Stefanie, Garrison, Hernez-broome, Fleenor, Steed (2012) examined the relationship between goal setting and transfer of training. A 360-degree survey was done 3 months after a 5-day leadership development program. Leaders set personal goals for behavior change during the program. In this study, three competencies were measured. It was found that leaders who set a goal for change on two of the three competencies namely: developing others, building and maintaining relationships professed to have improved more on that competency than those who did not. Those who set more than one goal professed to have improved more across competencies than those who set only one goal.

Wan, Compeau, & Haggerty (2012) focuses on employees' e-learning processes during online job training. A new categorization of self-regulated learning strategies, that was, personal versus social learning strategies, was proposed, and measurement scales were developed. The new measures were tested using data collected from employees in a large company. Our approach provided context-relevant insights into online training providers and employees themselves. The results suggested that learners adopt different self-regulated learning strategies resulting in different e-learning outcomes. Furthermore, the use of self-

regulated learning strategies was influenced by individual factors such as virtual competence and goal orientation, and job and contextual factors such as intellectual demand and cooperative norms. The findings would help e-learners obtain better learning outcomes through their active use of varied learning strategies, provide useful information for organizations that were currently using or plan to use e-learning for training, and inform software designers to integrate self-regulated learning strategy support in e-learning system design and development.

Alquaiz, Abdulghani, Karim & Qureshi, (2013) investigated the views of family medicine trainees on Family Medicine (FM) training program. A qualitative focus group discussion was used to collect data. The discussion was organized with thirteen trainees, eight from final year of FM training program and five from third year of the same program. A previously distributed and completed questionnaire that contained three sections was used. The first section evaluated the satisfaction of trainees in different hospital specialties rotations. The second section captured the reasons for rating the different rotations. The third section measured the deficiencies in training for those rotations. The discussions were facilitated by two facilitators. Qualitative analysis was employed on the data and emergent themes and subthemes that described the trainees' views were generated. The trainees reported that training in the hospital was not relevant to the needs of Family Medicine trainees. Duration of the hospital posts should also be reviewed and emphasis should be laid on out-patient clinics rather than in-patient. Focus should be on procedural skills, minor surgery and teaching in clinical contexts. A review of the hospital training programmes should be conducted as the structure and its implementation did not reflect its relevance to day to day practice.

Training is an important aspect in building the profitable performance of the organization (Ameeq-ul-Ameeq & Hanif, 2013). In their paper, they reported that most of the organization run training section schedule on a normal basis without considering the training needs whereas the main purpose of any training programme is to develop specific employee skills that eventually make the organization perform profitably. The study was aimed at finding out if training programs conducted the HR departments of the hotels of Lahore in Pakistan actually help the employees develop and perform their task effectively

Baakeel, (2013) examined the Five-Year Development Plans from 1970 through 2004 in regard to human resource development's conflicting objectives and the primary workforce issues including education (higher and general) and training (technical education and vocational training) improvements that occurred during this period toward the progress of local manpower. This research was based on the foundations of Adam Smith, human capital theory and the effects of education and training on increasing or decreasing the level of manpower/human capital in Saudi Arabia. In addition, this study analyzed the public and private sector and determined where Saudi Arabia needs more local manpower. The sample for this study consisted of the population of Saudi Arabia, specifically in the areas of manpower and human resource development. The study analyzed individuals who worked in Saudi Arabia from 1970 through 2004. Secondary data were collected from government sources including websites, books and journals. Descriptive statistics were employed to analyze the data. Tests employed were analysis of variance (ANOVA), correlation, and Tukey. The development of education and training increased from 1970 through 2004. The Saudi manpower level also increased disproportionately with higher number employed in the public sector than the private sector; and the private sector still depends on foreign labor. Human resources and manpower development in Saudi Arabia increased in terms of

education and training. However, after 35 years of planning and development, Saudi Arabia still depends on foreign manpower in the private sector, which means the education and training system needs to be reformed to focus more on delivering qualified and skilled manpower. This conclusion elevated concerns about the officials' commitment to follow Royal decrees in terms of human resource development and the country's development. Recommendations included that the government of Saudi Arabia should link the training and education system to manpower development; human resource development planning should be consistent, the Saudi Arabian government should implement a sophisticated recruiting system; the Ministry of Higher Education should train students abroad before they return; and the Ministry of Education, Higher Education and Labor should collaborate effectively to increase the manpower level.

Fawzi (2013) argued that HRD played an effective role in developing talent emphasis. He concluded that 75% of the HR and training managers stressed that Saudi banks were keen to recruit talented people and were trained to hone their talents. This was also consistent with what was stated by Ali (2009), where it was reported that one project in Medina alone attracted and developed talent using a budget of 7 million dollars. The main results of these interviews demonstrated that Saudi banks were seriously interested in attracting talent, as well as developing the talents of existing employees, as shown in the Annual Report of the Saudi Fransi Bank mentioned earlier, which included the instructions from SAMA to the banks to focus on talent. The attraction of talent and the retention of talented people constituted key purposes behind HRM practices. This can be seen as evidence of a shift attention to TM.

Jehanzeb, & Bashir, (2013) conducted a conceptual study to capture the relationship between

employee training and development program and its benefits. The paper investigated the elements and design of employee training and development program and their outcomes on employees and organizations. It was written in the premise that staying competitive at the global level is difficult and hence employee development is a mainstay for organisations that intended to gain competitive advantage. Success or failure of the organisations depends on the ability of the employees and sustainability depends on the competitive advantage the employees provide. Organizations have started acknowledging this fact increasingly and hence, invest huge amount on employee training and development. The authors argued that during training programmes, organisations ought to lay emphasis on acquisition of knowledge, expertise and ability. The authors viewed that training effectiveness as a subject has generated substantial discussion among academicians, researchers and professionals at both employee and organisational level. This study could be described as a vigilant assessment of literature on fundamentals of programmes designed for employee development and their benefits to organizations and employees.

Jehanzeb, Rasheed, & Rasheed (2013) reviewed the literature on fast food franchises in Saudi Arabia and exposed the important research on employee training and development in franchise system. The data was collected from 250 employees, from different fast food franchises of Saudi Arabia. The data was collected with a structured questionnaire, in which 16 questions assessed organization's training and development programs and eight questions job satisfaction and four captured turnover intentions. Strong positive relationship found between effective training program and job satisfaction among the employees. The findings did not support the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in early age groups of employees. However, job satisfaction and turnover intentions were

negatively related among the elderly employees. The training programs not only increased the value of employee but also the worth of the franchise.

Jehanzeb, Rasheed, & Rasheed (2013) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions of employees in private sector in Saudi Arabia. A thorough review of literature on the relationship between organizational commitment and employee turnover provided strong basis for the research model formulated and the hypotheses. Data was collected from 251 respondents working in leading private organizations of Saudi Arabia using a self-administered questionnaire. The results supported the hypothesis that there was a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. Employees' training has significant relationship with organizational commitment, turnover intentions and the commitment-turnover relationship. The authors have apprehension on the generalisability of the findings to other sectors as this study was restricted to private organizations. The results through much insight on the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions in the specific private sector of Saudi Arabia. The understanding derived from this study is useful for managers and policy makers of the respective sectors. The paper studied the problems that existed in the private sector of Saudi Arabia.

Kennett (2013) investigated employers' way of providing training and how training affects skill development at individual, organizational, and industry level. It used the findings from earlier research on the relationship between training and development and employee turnover as a basis for the study. The study uncovered three training and development models that were assumed to have consequences on employee turnover. These models were labeled Individual Development, Team Development and Organizational Development. Individual

Development explained occurrence of higher employee turnover in a work environment where employees perceived more external job alternatives and lacked employment-growth opportunities. Team Development model explained lower employee turnover occurred in conjunction with other high-performance work practices, or in a state of job embeddedness in the organization. Finally, the Organizational Development model explained higher employee turnover in a situation when the training activities contributed to lower employee commitment to the organization and lesser role clarity.

Al-Qudah, Osman & Ali (2014) aimed to examine the strategic planning of human resources (HR). The study consisted of 166 employees in the HR departments in Jordanian ministries. The researcher developed and administered a questionnaire, and collected and analyzed the data using SPSS. Overall analysis was performed based on the descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. The results indicated that HR polarization, training and development, and HR stimulation significantly correlated with the strategic planning of HR in the Jordanian Ministry.

Training and development is an indispensable strategic tool that enhances employee performance. Understanding this reality, organizations invest on training periodically with a view that it will earn them competitive edge (Falola, Osibanjo & Ojo, 2014). On this background, these authors studied the impact of training and development on employees' performance and competitive advantage of the organisation. Sample method used was simple random sampling and data were collected from 233 respondents. Descriptive method was used and results showed strong relationship between training and development, employees' performance and competitive advantage. Hence, management of the organizations should not relent in their quest to train their staff in order to develop newer ideas and improve employee

performance.

Jayakumar & Sulthan (2014) brought out the employee perception on the training and development program. Workers in organizations were always in need of training and development in order to develop the skills necessary at work. Every organization invest more money and time on these programs. These programs were given at regular intervals and the increasingly management wanted to know the perception of employees towards the training programs. The study employed three competing models using SEM to capture the employee perception. Among these three proposed, two were superior models and any of these models could be used to measure Employee perception of training and development in manufacturing industry.

Milhem, Abushamsieh, Aróstegui (2014) studied human resource training and characterized training using strategies and theories. The authors viewed that organizational strategy and training were very essential to enhance performance. Training and development were also considered as continuous process to face the dynamic changes in workplace. It also contributes to gain competitive advantage of the organization. Theories were important in choosing and implementation of training programs. In the same time in this article we will focus on training kinds and development of these kinds which including E-learning and learning management system (LMS) as a method of training delivery.

Review of extant literature suggests that training of managers is indeed beneficial to businesses. A meta-analysis conducted by Burke and Day's (1986) on managerial training effectiveness showed that managerial training is reasonably effective. This analysis was conducted across seven training methods, six training content areas, and four types of training

outcome. Another meta-analysis was conducted by Collins and Holton (2004) on 83 studies from 1982 to 2001. Examination of studies conducted on education, government, medical and military organisations showed that even a reasonably effective training program can have a substantial effect. A training program for 65 bank supervisors was found to cost \$50, 500, but the utility to the organization was over \$34, 600 in the first year, \$108, 600 by the third year, and more than \$148, 000 by the fifth year (Mathieu & Leonard, 1987).

In particular, the importance of an effective link to strategic planning was noted by Moore and Dutton (Moore and Dutton, 1978) as missing from early studies of management training. The business must take into account the need for training in order to develop its strategic position. The importance of this practice becomes particularly clear when the ‘political’ aspect of intra-organisational decision-making is considered. Buchanan (2008) suggested that most managers believe that, for good or ill, political game playing, especially to secure resources, is part of organizational life (Buchanan, 2008). Effectively 90% of his respondents agreed that “managers who play organizational politics can improve their career prospects” and 60% agreed that “managers who are not prepared to play politics see their careers suffer” (both quotes Buchanan, 2008). Other research (Mann, 1995) suggests that there is a gender imbalance, as men are usually seen to be more successful at playing organizational politics. Estes and Wang (2008) suggest this can also lead to what they call ‘workplace incivility,’ which will further erode commitment to the strategic focus and lead to a loss of key members of staff (Estes and Wang, 2008).

Organizational development has been argued for some time to be the real goal of training (Moore, Zoellner, & Mollenholt, 2008, Moore and Dutton, 1978). Those who regard organizational development as a process tended to argue that it is particularly useful in

complex, ill-defined situations (Burke&Litwin, 1992).

Each organization needs to prepare itself to meet the challenges of today and tomorrow. Preskill and Torres (1999) proposed that evaluative inquiry could be an approach to understand, improve and change organizational life”. They felt evaluative inquiry as a process for learning in organizations and an organizational learning approach towards organizational change. Accordingly, they identified a number of processes; asking questions; identifying and challenging values, beliefs and assumptions; reflection; dialogue; collecting, analyzing and interpreting data; training and development; action planning; implementation. Designing such development activities has become important to explore ‘training needs’ (Berger, 1993). In effect, both Organizational Learning and Organizational Development are related to the wider training literature. Identification of the skills and structure needed for both to occur can be seen as a training need which encompasses solutions that bring together a process enhancing current knowledge with a shift in organizational culture to value cooperation and knowledge sharing.

Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) suggest that it is possible to link specific aspects of HRM practice, in particular around the field of organizational learning, to actual performance. Their argument is that HR practice can enable organizational learning through the approach to training, which in turn will impact performance. In general, the authors suggest that effective HR practices for staff selection, staff reward, relative job stability, and training will all have measurable impacts on actual performance. This would lead to an on-going commitment to organizational learning and development. However, the authors note, “Taking on learning as a core business competence is a collective responsibility and will only happen if a meticulous strategy and shared management objectives are in place” (Camps and

Luna- Arocas, 2012).

Although different studies suggest slightly different relationships between HR practice, organizational strategy and performance, they all agree that, in order for HR functions to have a positive impact on an organization and its employees, these efforts must be guided by a sound strategy. This raises the question of how best to ensure a good linkage between an organization's training strategy and the requirements of that organization.

As investments in better equipment speed up efficiency of production or reduction of waste, investments in the training and development of employees directly contribute to the bottom line. It makes the employees more productive and effective in their jobs. In physical, social, intellectual and mental sense, training is essential in developing the personnel and facilitating adequate levels of productivity within any organization.

People form the essence of an organisation's effectiveness and success. Hence, it is imperative that the employees within an organization perform their duties and make meaningful contributions to the organizational goals. Organisations should acquire, retain and develop relevant skills and knowledge. In appreciation of this fact, organizations conduct training and development programmes at all levels. The literature surveyed above provides strong impetus to the belief that development of individuals results in organizational development. It further strengthens the belief that no organization becomes efficient and effective until the individuals possess the necessary skills and knowledge and know-how to apply them.

Firms use training as one of the ways to develop human resource capabilities and

remain effective in today's business environment. The pace at which the business environment changes, the risk and uncertainty associated with these changes pose significant challenge to the firm's capabilities to earn competitive advantage. Such challenges put enormous pressure to rethink on its human resources strategies. Human resource capabilities alone earn sustainable competitive advantage to the organisations because such capabilities are rare, unique, inimitable and unsubstitutable and provide value. Organisations increasingly have started recognizing that the continuous training and development of employees help them achieve sustained competitive advantage. A comprehensive training and development program helps organisation construct a workforce with composite knowledge, skills and attitudes essential to face the environmental challenges, achieve organizational goals and to create competitive advantage (Peteraf, 1993). A trained and skilled labour force is essential for organisational success and growth of small businesses (Cosh et al., 1998) and crucial to gain competitive advantage in the global economy (Huang, 2001). Organizations recognize that needs of the employees are not the same and again the needs are not static. Needs will change over time as these workers continue to face different challenges in their careers. Management training is viewed as tool to places the employees on par with the others and act as link between HR strategy and corporate strategy.

The above passages strongly suggest that training and development is an essential element of any HR activity. However, before subjecting the employees to any training and development program, efforts are being made to identify the training needs. Training needs could be identified through at the individual or at organisational level. Training and development programme follows a comprehensive training need identification exercise. Training and development as a function of HR ends with evaluation and ascertaining the effectiveness of the programme in line with the need, which had been identified before

training commenced. Despite the necessity of training programmes, their effectiveness can be difficult to assess. Indeed, the focus on training necessitates a consideration of whether its effectiveness can ever be properly measured. In a sense, as already discussed, evaluating the effectiveness of any aspect of HRM is always problematic; the usual corporate measures are too remote from the identified input to be really useful. Paauwe (2009) suggested that training and development can be assessed in terms of financial measures, overall performance, or in changes in staff attitudes (Paauwe, 2009b). The difficulty is that the first two measures may change for reasons unconnected with the impact of any training or development program. The latter is notoriously difficult to measure with any accuracy or validity. Thus, the ROI on training design and delivery cannot be easily determined. Bhatta (2002), while reviewing various senior management development measures adopted across the upper echelons of the public services of major jurisdictions, found that both private and government organisations universally lay emphasis on developing leaders. However, considerable gaps in the training and development function are rampant. Such gaps are a bane, however, could be overcome with an effective training need identification mechanism. More importantly, the training programmes should have clear objectives, meritorious content, scrupulous training design, relevance, delivery, emphasise on development of competence, behavioural modification, performance improvement and intention to participate in future training programs.

Despite debates and questions on designing a need-based training programme and measuring the effectiveness of training, training and development are viewed at a larger extent as effective ways to reduce small business failure (Ibrahim & Soufani, 2002; Menzies and Paradi, 1999). Education and training are valuable tools for small scale entrepreneurs to enhance their managerial skills and essential for the success and growth of small- to medium-

sized enterprises (Devins and Gold, 2000).

Training is an important HR function in small and family-owned business firms in order to gain competitive success. Added to this, family-owned firms regardless of their size, services provide or products produced use technology to achieve operational efficiency, (Gibb, 1997; Sambrook, 2003; Smallbone, 1990; Vinten, 2001; Watson and Hogart, 1998). Hence, the entire fabric or rationale behind training has changed. Traditionally, training was viewed as a measure adopted to facilitate the implementation of organisational strategy by providing employees with the necessary knowledge and skills required to perform their jobs (Fernald et al., 1998). There seems to be a paradigm shift in thinking of late. Given the speed at which the environment in which the business operates changes and the emergence of the new knowledge economy, new and continuous learning becomes imperative for the family-owned business firms to remain competitive.

Training Need Analysis (TNA)

Human capital creates value in a firm (Becker, 1964). Training is viewed as an important tool to create human capital. A systematic needs assessment should be conducted as the first step in training design (Arthur, Edwards, Bell, Villado, & Bennett, 2005). A Training Needs Assessment or Analysis (TNA) is determining where and when an organization should allocate resources toward training based on particular knowledge, skill, and ability deficits (Chen & Klimoski, 2007). Typically, the needs assessment process includes three distinct analyses: an organization analysis, a person analysis, and a task analysis. These analyses help the organisations to identify if training is appropriate, who needs training, what needs to be trained, and the conditions in which training should occur.

The organizational analysis is aimed at identifying where in the organization, training is needed (Goldstein, 1993). In theory, organizational analysis begins with an examination of the short-and long-term objectives of the organisation at all levels. It is ingrained in the process of strategy formulation (Boxall and Purcell, 2008). As discussed, in this process the role of HRM is not always acknowledged (Chang and Huang, 2005), and the actual strategy process is complex and fragmented (Karataş-Özkan and Murphy, 2010, Pandza and Thorpe, 2009). To address this, Cascio (1992) suggests that the key question that needs to be posed is “will training produce change in employee behaviour that will contribute to our organization’s goals?” (Cascio, 1992). The performance assessment element (Rossett, 2009) can be seen as providing “preliminary study of the situation in order to determine if and when training is required and whether a more detailed training needs assessment is warranted” (Rossett, 2009).

The second stage, once there is some clarity and agreement about the aims, is to identify the desired capabilities; in other words, a task analysis. In HRM terms, this tends to focus on the development of appropriate job and training descriptions that describe the ideal roles needed. According to Goldstein, the important element is to produce a job description in behavioural terms. The narrative stipulates the duties of the individuals and the specific conditions under which the job is performed. Task specification, the second procedure includes all the tasks required to be done on the job so that, eventually, there will be more clarity on the required attitude, skills and knowledge required to perform the job (Goldstein, 1993).

The final element in this model is the concept of personal analysis (Iqbal and Khan, 2011, Moore *et al.*, 2007, Purcell *et al.*, 2007). Various techniques exist for this, ranging

from self-assessment via questionnaire, to detailed analysis of job competences, to qualitative opinion from various stakeholders including line managers and HR specialists (Taylor *et al.*, 1998). At the end of this process, the goal is to conduct the actual TNA well informed about organizational and task needs and current capacities.

Iqbal and Khan, (2011) have argued that the goal of TNA is not just to identify training needs but also issues that may have implications elsewhere in an HR function. This has particular relevance when an organization is undergoing a planned (or imposed) change process. Here the entire process of gathering information on training needs becomes much more subjective and heavily informed by the opinions and views of key practitioners (Taylor *et al.*, 1998). This process is to identify both needs and the critical behaviours that are central to organizational success and thus should form part of any evaluation.

According to Moore and Dutton (1978), TNA is a key step in the design of training programmes to ensure that resources are used sensibly and the resulting training increases “the efficiency and effectiveness of the workforce” (Moore and Dutton, 1978). An early overview of the literature on TNA (Gould, 2007; Gould, & Davies, 2004) suggested this relatively conventional description of the TNA process:

“It should begin with systematic consultation to identify the learning needs of the target population. A training intervention is then developed to meet this need and once implemented, is evaluated to determine how effective this been. Amendments to the next cycle should be addressed through evaluation, but changes in the demands placed on or by the employing organization also need to be taken into account. New Government policy, advancement in technology, role expansion and the increasing

expectations of service users are additional drivers for change. (Gould et al, 2004)”

Other early research has the same focus on the importance of training (Bowman and Wilson, 2008) as “a training need exists when the application of systematic training will serve to overcome a particular weakness and therefore the identification of training needs must be resolved before training itself can be use fully undertaken ” (Bowman and Wilson, 2008).

In effect, such definitions of TNA agree that the “need is the gap between current and desired (or required) results, or (stated another way) the gap in results between ‘what is’ and ‘what should be’” (Iqbal and Khan, 2011).

In one sense, this aligns TNA with the hard school of HRM and the functional model of planning. It assumes both that the current skill set can be measured and that it needs to be defined. It assumes there is a measurable shortfall between the desired skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes in a firm and those currently available. One important caveat is that the mere existence of a training need, i.e. a gap between skills and desired competencies, should not automatically mean there is a need for training. Indeed, the term ‘assessment’ implies a judgment about the importance of the perceived need (Iqbal and Khan, 2011), and it may well be the case that some revealed gaps simply do not affect organizational performance. Not every identified gap between current capabilities and what is needed in the future will be addressed by training but, equally, it is important that training is always linked to an identified operational gap (Bee and Bee, 2003).

Bee and Bee referred operational gap as the “training gap.” They suggested that organization needs to explore where are they in terms of their current knowledge and skills

possesses and what they would like to have as standards of knowledge and skills required. Figure 2.2 shows that the training gap is the different between what are the benchmark or standards in terms of knowledge and skills vis-à-vis the current level.

TNA has shifted from its early focus on training to the identification of gaps in organizational performance, the assessment of the impact of these gaps (some may not matter or be exceptionally difficult to address), and a focus on the appropriate means to address those needs. From this perspective, TNA becomes a means to access a range of HR functions (McClernon, 2006). A properly structured assessment involves consideration of five related elements such as objectives, design, relevance/capability, and expertise (McClernon, 2006). This might lead to as much emphasis being placed on work redesign or the adoption of technological solutions as on training *per se*. Thus Reed and Vakola (2006) use the concept of ‘learning and development needs’ to reflect this extension of the traditional model of structured training to consider all the various ways that organizational learning and organizational change can take place.

This in turn has led to discussion of the effects of integrating TNA with the overall organizational strategy, and if it is an effective means to evaluate the effectiveness and skills of the workforce and where they need to be. It also starts to bring the concept of TNA into contact with other concepts of organizational change such as the organizational learning and organizational development literature. However, in this context, the focus of TNA on current gaps (even if they are against the current strategic plans) means it is potentially less valuable when the need for continuous improvement and performance improvement is the key need of the firm (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1998, Chiva *et al.*, 2010, McKelvie and Davidsson, 2009, Mohrman and Worley, 2009, Newey and Zahra, 2009, Taylor *et al.*, 2010).

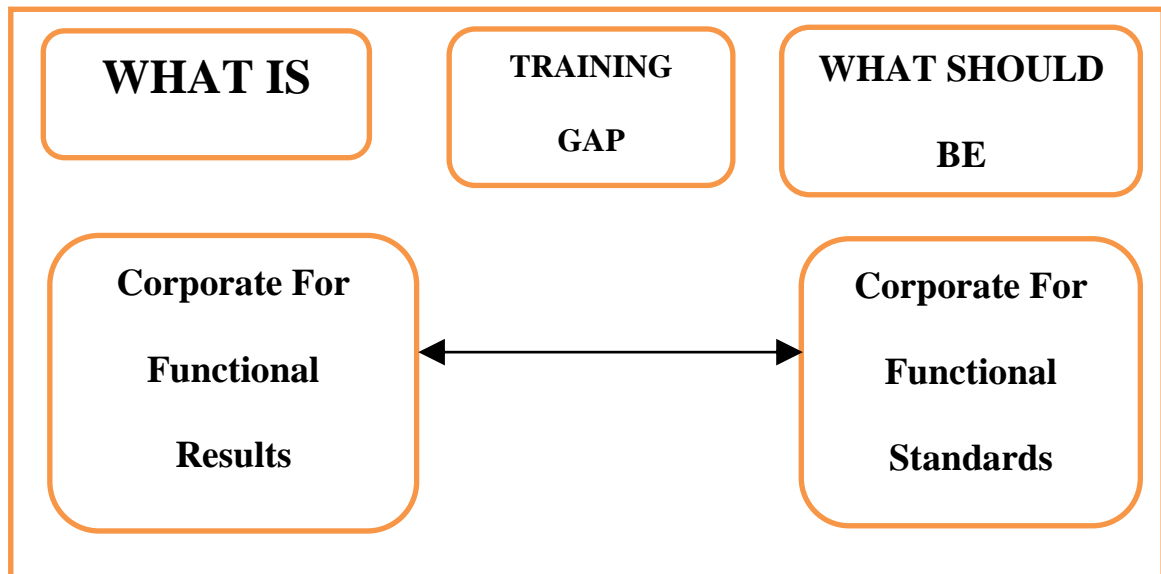


Figure 2.1 the Training Gap (Source: Armstrong, 1996)

A partial solution to this distinction is offered by Taylor et al. (1998): a distinction between results-focused and task-focused TNA. Results-focused TNA is designed to correct known performance problems and can be aligned to the traditional ‘training focused’ model of TNA already discussed can be described as existing managers are often given management training in the hope of improving unit productivity and morale; customer contact staff is trained in customer service skills to enhance the organization’s reputation and to increase repeat business with customers; safety training is provided to reduce the number and seriousness of accidents.

On the other hand, task-focused TNA has, at best, an indirect link to current performance and current needs (Taylor, Beechler, & Napier, 1998). Task-orientated training can be about building general capacity (i.e. preparing employees for a future promotion), part of introducing new technology (where the improved performance is a product of the technology rather than the training), or of creating the base capacity to work in an

organization (induction training). The key in each case is of a less direct link between the training input and any subsequent change of performance. To this has subsequently been added the interest in learning to meet future, and currently unspecified, needs, in particular drawn from the management and organizational learning communities (Kontoghiorghes *et al.*, 2005, Rashman *et al.*, 2009). An important consequence is that task-focused learning in particular has to be aligned to the organization's overall goals. In effect it is conceived as a contribution to the whole. Results-focused learning can be assumed to flow from the organization's strategic goals. In both cases, the result has been an increased interest in aligning TNA with the process of strategic planning and strategic change (Iqbal and Khan, 2011).

TNA has a long history as a tool to structure training and to identify specific needs (Boydell, 1971). Many of these early uses were in the field of highly specific technical training (Moore and Dutton, 1978, Gent and Dell'Omo, 1989) and were very closely aligned to Taylor's model where the goal was to identify any skill gaps between the existing workforce and the needs set out in the job and work descriptions (Moore and Dutton, 1978). In effect, the goal of TNA was a "systematic, objective determination of training needs" (Moore and Dutton, 1978). However, over time the focus of both training and TNA shifted away from just technical skills to encompass higher-level skills, attitudes, and desired behavioural norms. As the focus and the type of needs under consideration widened, the precise style of measurement advocated in some early papers (Moore and Dutton, 1978) has come under the conventional approach to TNA, it has often considered that training is the only solution and ignored non-training issues. The growing popularity of TNA has revealed a two-fold change. On the one hand, a paradigm shift is experienced by the organisations from training as a consequent of TNA to training as an important element of the organisation that

helps them achieve business strategy by preparing the organization's human resource to face the challenges posed by the unavoidable change and opportunity in technology, systems, structures, and the nature of work itself. On the other hand, TNA results are considered useful for deciding on non-training initiatives (Iqbal, 2011). This is important because it shows how organizations may use TNA and what purposes it can be put to, which has evolved over time and may be different in different formulations.

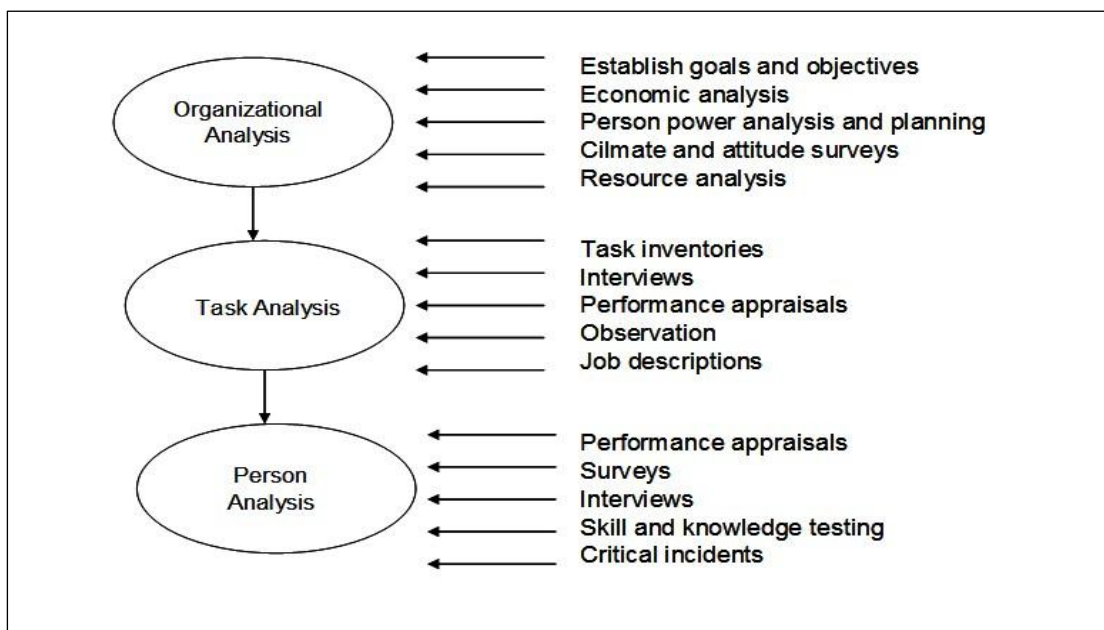


Figure 2.2 Link between analysis and training needs (Source: Sleezer, 1993)

In effect, TNA has become a tool for analysing organizational problems and determining whether the solutions that emerge can be training-based or related to other HR options such as recruitment, pay, and promotion (Iqbal and Khan, 2011). However, in some sectors and industries, it has equally become more and more about ensuring that employees have the specific skills to fulfil specific well-designated tasks (Lashley, 2009). Taylor *et al.*, 1998 suggest that there are different forms of TNA, depending on whether the needs are for a task based (i.e. how to) training as opposed to when the wider goal is to improve organizational performance or sustain a long-term change process.

The former is more amenable to conventional approaches to TNA and is perhaps reflected in the literature that applies TNA to professions such as nursing (Gould *et al.*, 2005).

This distinction has been developed elsewhere to suggest a gap between TNA with a focus on immediate needs, and a primary outcome of structured training, and TNA as part of a wider strategic change process, where the desired end point is less clearly specified and the proposals capture HR issues beyond training. This has methodological implications identified by Kaufman and Watkins (1996), who suggest that a combination of qualitative and quantitative data is appropriate. Gent and Dell' Omo (1989) suggest that task analysis will help to identify the required needs for training.

In general, this stylized model of TNA is rarely applied for one of three reasons. One is the enduring concern that those actually conducting TNAs are doing so in amore ad-hoc manner (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1998, Taylor *et al.*, 1998). This effective divide between the academic literature and practical applications is returned to below. The second is that, as discussed in the section on strategic planning, clarity about organizational goals may not be available. This leads to a third issue, that TNA may be more appropriate where the issue is operational and task-centred and may be less useful in situations of on-going changeand major upheaval.

For Taylor et al (1998), the concept of task-focused TNA is when the gap is between capacity and observed performance and the solution is largely a result of the training intervention. Conventionally in such a situation, TNA will follow the three levels set out in Figure2.3, Organizational, Task, and Personal, and then moving next to the training design, implementation, and assessment (Bowman and Wilson, 2008). In this case, the argument is

that the effectiveness of any subsequent training strongly depends on the quality of the training needs analysis.

Some examples of what Taylor (Taylor *et al.*, 1998) calls task-focused training use questionnaires to identify the extent and nature of a ‘training gap.’ An example of this approach was summarized by Lindley et al (2004) as concluded during their research on public health workforce that to ensure a competent public health education workforce, it is imperative that the training needs of those providing health education services are identified and that subsequent training opportunities are provided on a continual basis. In this case, a questionnaire was used that first gathered factual information on years of experience and formal qualifications and then asked the respondents to self-rate their competence against a range of 50 skills listed in the survey: “Respondents were asked to rate their perceived level of mastery based on the following scale: awareness (having minimal familiarity with the skill); knowledge (having a working understanding of how to apply the skill); or proficiency (ability to perform the skill)”. From this, the following areas were identified as the focus for further training:

Desire for Additional Training: Skills Most Often Identified	
<i>Skill</i>	<i>Want Training (%)</i>
Using presentation software	82.3
Spanish language skills	76.9
Computer spreadsheet programs	76.2
Managing controversy	75.2
Identifying funding sources	73.9
Multicultural understanding	72.4
Grant writing	70.3
Formative program evaluation	68.5
Using the Internet as an educational tool	68.4
Analyzing evaluation data	68.0

Figure 2.3 Training needs identified in a survey (Source: Lindley *et al.*, 2005)

From this was suggested both a list of areas where the self-reported scales indicated the most prevalent training needs (Lindley *et al.*, 2005) and that the preferred model was practitioner-led workshops. However, the authors also suggested that the results had implications for the type of qualifications required on the basis of correlation between identified weaknesses and certain intake characteristics (Lindley *et al.*, 2005). However, in contrast to the theoretical discussion above, no attempt was made to consider whether these gaps were actually directly affecting service delivery or organizational performance (Gent and Dell'Omo, 1989, Moore and Dutton, 1978).

A related study looks at the reported information gaps of public health information officers (Golding and Rubin, 2011) and, again, uses the process of comparing existing descriptions of key competencies with self-reported surveys of levels of existing knowledge. Key again was a questionnaire designed as a 'needs assessment survey' and again the findings are not just concerned with the competencies with the largest shortfall, but also the various ways (training, workshops and information provision) that can be adopted to address

these issues. This question of how to actually implement the outcomes of a TNA style assessment was considered by Byran, Dweck, Ross, Kay, & Mislavsky, (2009). Again, the specific focus was on the training needs of staff involved with public health and they argue, but present no empirical evidence, that such training is better delivered when it takes account of the learning styles of adults. In particular that the training is delivered in context, the applicability is clear and there is an emphasis on interactive and problem-based learning techniques (Hendry *et al.*, 1999).

All these survey suffer to some extent from one or more problems. The first is of relatively low response rates (Bryan *et al.*, 2009, Golding and Rubin, 2011), which may invalidate the conclusions unless there is other evidence to support an assumption that the respondents are typical of the population as a whole. Equally, the issue of trust is not addressed. Particularly in a period of organizational change, people may be unwilling to admit to gaps in their knowledge (Moore and Dutton, 1978), specifically when it is being assessed against core job competencies (Golding and Rubin, 2011). In general, the role of power (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1998) and its consequences for employee responses is under-researched in the field of HR, in general, and training, in particular (Buchanan, 2008, Taylor *et al.*, 2010). In effect, trainee perception of the reasons for training or the conduct of TNA may be very different to that intended by those carrying out the analysis (Taylor *et al.*, 2010), especially when it is perceived to focus on individual deficits (Reed and Vakola, 2006) and framed in terms of their capacity to carry out the existing or future work expectations. The final weakness is, as noted, there is often no evaluation of the relative importance of revealed gaps to service delivery and organizational performance.

On the other hand, results-focused TNA seeks to improve overall organizational

capacity. One substantial study on the use of TNA, not for specific competencies but for organizational change, is offered by Reed and Vakola (2006). This study looked at a major change process across a health system that spanned hospital provision, community provision, and long-term care for the elderly. The information on what was needed was not, as above, gathered by questionnaire but by the process of ‘parallel learning’ (Reed and Vakola, 2006). This allowed a richer view of both current training needs and of issues that lay outside formal job competencies as it accessed the knowledge and attitudes of staff in the organization. Within this, the need for a TNA was identified (Reed and Vakola, 2006). In effect, the process of conducting a TNA became a change process in itself as it faced issues of inertia, authority and a view that the process was too complex to be captured in such direct terms. It is noticeable that the complexity of the situation both led the TNA in this study to a closer fit to the ideal model in the literature and to the traditional concerns of the organizational development community (Boxall and Purcell, 2008, Olson and Eoyang, 2001).

In this case, following the process of TNA, rather than delivery of any training, proved to be useful as it forced a degree of clarity as to the direction and implications of a complex change process. Drawing heavily on the organizational development model discussed earlier, they suggest that:

Most OD interventions are designed for over-bounded systems and quite different interventions are required for under-bounded ones. Similarly by modelling and highlighting these issues the organization may learn more about itself and the process of bringing people on board with change may be enhanced by understanding some of the dynamics better (Reed and Vakola, 2006).

In this case, the linkage between TNA and the wider HR agenda was clear. The complex and on-going nature of the change process meant that simply identifying existing training needs would be insufficient. Equally it forms an example of using TNA as a means to identify the gap, as well as a tool to devise an effective change (Reed and Vakola, 2006).

Another application of TNA that falls into Taylor's description of being 'process-focused' is the use of TNA when a new technological approach becomes available. In this case, Hopfer and colleagues looked at how the growing prevalence (and falling price) of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) led health professionals looking for patterns of cancer incidence and mortality to identify a specific training need to ensure they could make the best use possible of the new technology. In this instance, the technology emergence triggered a realization of its potential value and in turn the training needs required to exploit the resource. This can be seen as a hybrid in that the training was in how to use the new software, but the impact on organizational performance came from the capacity of the analytic tools. In effect, the training, and TNA, can be seen to have enabled improvement, rather than leading directly to it (Taylor *et al.*, 1998).

Leigh, Watkins, Platt, and Kaufman (2000) emphasize that the intended results and consequences should be considered while choosing the needs assessment methodology. For example, the outcome may be strategic compared to a micro approach focusing on the knowledge and skill needs of individuals or groups of employees (Noe & Tews, 2008).

Training program effectiveness

Hughey, & Mussnug, (1997) explained the elements of a successful employee training programme. They explained that the distinction between training and education, in addition

to a discussion on why “soft skills” training initiatives were reported to be less effective than skills-based approaches. They also argued the critical role of the training managers in implementing a training program and the important considerations to be made when developing a strategic training plan. Several key factors that determine how employee training programmes would best support company profitability were also discussed. Finally, they reported that a well-designed training programme should have built-in reinforcement. However, it is not necessary to reinforce employee learning if the skills and competencies identified and emphasized during the training would really assist and modify the employees in the performance of their job duties and responsibilities; i.e. if the employees would be able to actually use what they have learned. External reinforcement is to be done only if the skills acquired are not instrumental in improving job completion. Difficulties would arise when there is a lack of coherent foresight regarding what training is expected to fulfill and how those accomplishments will be measured and rewarded. These preliminary considerations when not given careful forethought and the program on implementation lacks logical, systematic and sensitive considerations, it would become very difficult, though not impossible, to execute successful employee training.

Moss (1997) explained the training model used to train trainers in UK based ATLS (Advanced Trauma Life Support) programme. A self-reported questionnaire was used to measure the effectiveness of the training model. The course under postgraduate medical education appeared to be very effective in raising the confidence of instructors who had little previous training in methods of instructions. This study determined and discussed the most effective characteristics of the course. The characteristics included a wide-ranging use of interactive learning strategies, focused problem-based learning methods, high tutor - student ratio, continuous assessment methods, and the use of self and peer group critiquing strategies.

In scheming such a programme purported to be effective, the structure of the programme could be possibly evaluated well and strategies devised accordingly so that transfer of capabilities to other training situations outside the health care sector is possible. This paper asserted that successful completion of training programmes was of paramount importance. It is imperative that cost of training and training time should not overshadow the benefits since effectiveness of the training course includes cost and time involved. The research ended with an emphasis that the objectives should be clearly defined overlaid with a justification on investment and the skills intended to be developed. The researcher concluded that a training programmes should be well-designed and well-resourced so that it would motivate trainers to make the program very successful.

Bramley, (1999) evaluated the contribution of management development activities to business effectiveness. Such studies then were found to be rare. In this study, a model based on changing effectiveness in the work place was used and subsequently case studies developed described and illustrated how this model could facilitate evaluation. The author used the “Business Excellence” framework proposed by the European Foundation for Quality Management, for setting objectives to examine increase in effectiveness and setting criteria to evaluate the contributions of the management development activities. The study reported that learning which assists to make managerial behaviour more effective could be achieved in many ways. It is clear, however, that the context in which the behaviours were to be used should be an aspect of the learning process. Many factors such as the structure of the organization, the climate, the design of the work, and the ways of rewarding good performance actually affect the job situation. These factors influence alternatives of and possible decision making ability and they may be very powerful in predicting how the work is done than assessing the skills of the people involved.

Klink, & Streumer, (2002) investigated the effectiveness of on-the-job training (OJT). They presented a conceptual definition of OJT. They originally conducted the study in call centres of a large company and then in post offices. The study was done with the following research questions : i) Is OJT effective? and ii) Which characteristics of the trainee, the workplace and the training explain the effectiveness of OJT? Results indicated partial success of the two OJT programs in realizing the training objectives. In particular, effective training delivery was negatively affected by workplace factors. Precisely, the characteristics of the trainee that include self-efficacy, prior experience with the task and workplace characteristics such as managerial support and workload turned out to be the most powerful predictors of training effectiveness. However, training characteristics such as quality of the training delivery and length of the training fail to influence training effectiveness. Workplace characteristics predicting training effectiveness is not surprising in case of OJT. Hence, training design and deliverance, in both the cases are regarded as less than optimal. Again, the transfer of training was not explained adequately in both the studies. The findings did not produce any evidential proof on the effectiveness of OJT as an effective training method.

Alturaigy, (2003) evaluated a training program for new employees at a leading company producing dairy products in Saudi Arabia. At entry level, the company provides the same training for new graduates with degrees in electrical, manufacturing, industrial, mechanical, and chemical engineering. A self-reported survey instrument and interview questions were used to collect data from 20 trainers and 20 trainees at a major company in Saudi Arabia. One instrument was developed and the other was the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI). Descriptive statistics, ANOVA and correlation results were used to analyse the data. The different results on the perception of the Training Instrument showed that all means for the

instrument were above average, there were significant correlations among themes, and significant differences between groups. The analysis of the data for the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) showed only one significant correlation and no significant difference among groups. The responses collected from the interview questions showed that trainers have different views about the training program from the trainees. The overall design of the training program was good and should be applicable to other Saudi companies with similar trainers and trainees.

Ibrahim (2004) investigated the effectiveness of a training program run at two different locations of a training institute in UAE. The researcher sampled out 94 respondents from the records of the institute for the year 2003. The study captured effectiveness as a measure of the perception on the materials used, instructors, the level of skills and knowledge gained from the program. Alpha analysis and t-tests were used to judge data reliability and the statistical significance of the measures of effectiveness. Regression analysis was also used to determine the influence of perceived training usefulness and a trainee's effort to gain skills and knowledge on achieved level of effectiveness. The results indicated significant positive reactions to the training program and significant increase in trainees' skills and knowledge as a result of the training. Further, trainees' effort to gain skills and knowledge and perceived training usefulness influence training effectiveness, after controlling for the effects of demographic variables.

Tai, (2006) conducted a longitudinal study to establish the relationship between training motivation and trainee self-efficacy and overall training effectiveness. Data were collected using a self-reported questionnaire at the beginning, during and the end of the training programme from 126 employees who were provided with training on computer software

operation and design. The trainees' learning from the programme was obtained by administering a test at the end of the training program. The respondents were not older than 35 years and hence, the generalizability of the findings to varied age group is restricted. Results show that supervisors' training framing directly influence trainees' attitudes and indirectly influence their training outcomes. Trainees' motivation is not influenced by contextual determinants such as post-training accountability, another type of training framing and organizational climate. The authors suggested that organizations trainees' self-efficacy and training motivation is a pre-requisite to the actual training program. In order to increase trainees' training motivation and self-efficacy, organizations should provide in advance training-related information, such as the training environment in which the training would be provided, the attributes of the training, merit of the content, content complexity, relevance of the training etc., This would greatly enhance the trainees' views on the training programme realistically and generate the self-efficacy of the trainees. The more motivated they were for training greater would be the effectiveness of the training and the outcomes. This paper had contributed more to the extant literature on modeling trainees' attitudes and training effectiveness. Further research should examine the interactive effects of these contextual factors on training effectiveness.

Sahindis, & Bouris (2008) investigated the relationship between perceived employee training usefulness and job satisfaction, motivation and commitment. Post training data were collected from 134 employees and lower managers in five large Greek organizations using a questionnaire. Factors captured include trainees' attitudes towards the training received and their attitudes towards their employers. The results supported the hypotheses that there exists significant relationship between the employee perceived training effectiveness and their commitment, job satisfaction and motivation. Higher correlations were also found between

the latter three variables. No substantial differences were found between men and women, in terms of the relationships between the variables examined. The findings have significant implication for managers, in particular, Human Resource professionals, given their roles in predicting, funding, designing and delivering training interventions. Besides offering training programs to one's employees, the training program content should be effective and of value to the participants. This will develop positive attitudes towards participating in training programmes which in turn, perhaps to a greater or a lesser extent, as discussed in pertinent literature, influence organizational performance outcomes including turnover, productivity, and absenteeism. The study was pioneering in that prior studies examining the relationship between the variables considered do not exist.

Nikandrou, Brinia, & Bereri, (2009) investigated training transfer based on a trainee-oriented systemic model. The paper predicted motivation to learn and transfer and trainees' entry behavior by trainee characteristics. The complex interactions among the trainer and the trainees' during the training programme, content and training method adopted were examined to assess direct and indirect training transfer. Organizational factors that affect both training transfer and the trainees' behavior were also analysed. In-depth qualitative interviews were conducted with 44 trainees from different organizations who participated in a training program that used an innovative experiential training method (project method). Qualitative study was chosen over quantitative because researchers felt that such methodology would be a strong element in providing rich information on training transfer process. Trainee characteristics, design and support of the management were found to be important in the training transfer process. The trainees' goals and expectations regarding training transfer at the beginning of the training, job and career utility factors influence training transfer to the workplace. This study threw interesting results which are contrary to other studies. Contrary

to the findings of other studies, this study revealed that people wished to participate in seminars that are unrelated to their job and career believing that they might be useful in career utility. Further, the person's goals are foremost in training transfer.

Employers use variety of cost-effective methods to support training activities and encourage training transfer to the workplace (Martin, 2010). These methods are posited to have positive influence on workplace environment through peer and supervisory support. This paper illustrated using two case studies implementation of action plans, performance assessment, peer meetings, supervisory consultations, and technical support. Training transfer was influenced by effective follow-up which in turn had positive quantitative and qualitative effects on operations and firm performance. Training involves costs and hence it is very imperative that managers encourage transfer of learning in order to achieve greater training impact. The methods had wide application and influence on trainee motivation and workplace environment. These were important for training effectiveness and managers considered training transfer issues in any development effort. Program design, trainee characteristics, and workplace environment that were important elements in transfer should be assessed and strategies based on these factors should be developed. Supervisors at any level should ensure that their activities do not convey any message that greatly encourage or discourage the transfer efforts. Training programmes are conducted to effect change and changes naturally create negative emotions that people prefer to avoid. Hence, managers should actively involved and support trainees. Peers supported by superiors could create favourable climate, generate encourage and build confidence for training transfer.

Pineda-Herrero, Belvis, Moreno, Duran-Bellonch & Ucar, (2011) provided a methodological approach to evaluate training transfer among large groups operating with limited resources.

The study evaluated the tools and results of a training programme on rational use of medicines with 1550 health professionals in Spain. Data was collected from 351 subjects from 53 different training programmes linked with rational use of medicines using two questionnaires, one administered immediately after finishing the training session and the other two months later. Results showed that training transfer has taken place and trainees' professional performance, in particular, the duties related to the selection and use of medicines has improved. Trainees' motivation and support from the organization were key factors present with higher training transfer. The assessment tool used to capture training transfer was found to be easily applicable in large groups operating with few resources. The tool also supported evaluation of sustenance of acquired learning after training, improvement in professional performance thereafter, and the factors that influenced such changes. In general, practitioners and researchers could use this tool effectively to evaluate training effectiveness among large groups, more specifically, in health sector.

Thomas, & Qiu, (2012) investigated the individual and organizational characteristics in work-related continuing training and education (WRCET), along with its pedagogy and effectiveness. A cross-sectional study was employed and data from annual large-scale National Staff Surveys pertaining to the period between 2006 and 2009 was used. This was the first use of the large-scale data set to assess health sector policies on WRCET. The authors classified the respondents as high- and low-skilled staff among varied occupation groups. Four dependent variables captured training effectiveness in specific types of training offered for professional development. On data collected from both high and low skilled groups, probit regression was run after controlling for organizational and individual characteristics. Results showed that participation in WRCET increased between 2006 and 2009 for both high and low skilled groups though differential patterns of participation took

place across the four types of training. This effectiveness measure removed relative variation in the participation rates between the various groups and hence, only a quarter of those who took part in WRCET rated it as effective. Training was rated as effective by members whose teams were rated as positive work team. Use of an effectiveness criterion showed very large differences between participation alone and participation in effective WRCET.

Cheng, & Waldenberger, (2013) studied the relationship between ‘meeting the training expectations’ employees intention to stay with their company in a Chinese setting. Data was collected from 292 employees in eight Chinese organizations. A path model was developed to test how fulfilling employees’ expectation with regard to different training dimensions influence turnover intentions. Mediation was done by the level of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and perceived movement capital. The path model was tested using partial least squares. Varying expectations with regard to the organization, the content, and the outcome of training was found. The mediation between turnover intentions and meeting such expectations was done by affective commitment, job satisfaction, perceived movement capital and continuance commitment. Turnover intention was negatively related to fulfilling employees’ expectations with regard to operational factors and specific skills. With regard to general skills, fulfilling expectations was positively related to turnover intentions but the expectations with regard to intra-organizational outcomes had a double-edged effect. The relationship between training and turnover from an employee perspective was examined in this study using a mediated path model. This study firmed up the belief that training has a relationship with turnover in China, as in the west. Literature on training in China is sparse, but, this article contributed greatly to the literature on HRM with particular reference to how Chinese employees’ perceive training and its definitive link on turnover. Chinese organizations should assess employees’ pre-training expectations before design a

training programme. A mismatch between employee expectations with respect to the organization, design and implementation and the design of the training programme creates a hopeful venue for effective training transfer and retain skilled employees. Differentiating five dimensions of training and including four mediating factors, the authors were able to disentangle conflicting influences found in the extant literature.

Harris, Chung, Hutchins, & Chiaburu, (2014) examined the additive and joint effects of trainees' learning goal orientation and trainer directiveness on training satisfaction and transfer. Responses from a sample size of 243 undergraduate business students enrolled at a large US university were examined. Trainer directiveness and trainee learning goal orientations each additively predicted training satisfaction and transfer over and above one another and study controls. Further, trainer directiveness and trainee learning goal orientation jointly predicted transfer and satisfaction, such that the positive relationship between trainer directiveness and both outcomes were accentuated (more positive) when learning goal orientations were high (compared to low). This study suggested that scholars and practitioners need to be aware of both trainer and trainee characteristics when evaluating prospective training programs. In addition to selecting competent trainers, organizations must encourage trainers to use a directive style. Further organizations may be able to increase the positive effects of trainer directiveness on trainee satisfaction and transfer by priming (or selecting on) trainee learning goal orientations. With few exceptions, prior research has committed comparatively little attention toward understanding on how trainer characteristics influence training outcomes. Possible interactions between trainer and trainee characteristics were less found. The current study provides an initial step towards addressing these gaps by examining the additive and joint influences of trainer directiveness and trainee learning goal

orientations. Results supported that additional variance in transfer and training satisfaction could be explained by considering both trainer and trainee characteristics in tandem. In instructional settings, trainees are most often directed by their trainers. When providing practical advice, authors such as Wheelan (1990) advises trainers to maintain “a supportive, in-charge, demeanor”, where “the trainer must remain in charge”, and “keep a tight rein on the group”. As expected, it was found that trainer directiveness matters, displaying significant relationship between training transfer and satisfaction. Further, it does so even when accounting for trainer competence and for trainee learning goal orientation.

Summary

This review of literature provided context for the present study by synthesizing the relevant research on HRM practices, family-run businesses, training and development and effectiveness of training programs. The above section also provide a strong base to understand that a training program instituted based on the needs of the employees, with qualified trainer, well defined objectives and design, focused on competence development, behavioural modification and performance improvement predicts the effectiveness of the training programs. It implies that a training program should emphasise at large identification of the needs, delivery of the training, and post-event evaluation. The three broad elements resulted in deriving other factors on which the perception of the trainees could be captured. They are relevance of the training, identification of training need, credibility of the training, clarity of objectives, training content, clarity of objectives, extent of interaction in the training program, quality of training methods, behavioural aspects, competence development and performance improvement.

Perception on training programs and intent to participate

A significant factor that determines the effectiveness of training program is the amount of skills, knowledge and abilities acquired during training as well as the trainees' intent to attend further training programs. Therefore, much thought and planning should be given while designing the training program. Care should be taken at all levels to ensure that the training program is designed based on the identified needs of the employees, relevance of the program is ascertained, clarity of the objectives maintained, training program generates interaction within, credibility of the content is established, training methods are chosen based on the specific need identified, the programs result in behavioural modification, the competence of the employees is developed and the performance is improved.

Training effectiveness refers to the benefits or the outcomes that the company and the trainees receive from training. Outcomes include learning the required skills, behaviour, acquiring the competence and improve performance. Outcomes are assessed based on the measures the trainer and the organisation use to evaluate training programs. Training evaluation is the process of collecting the outcomes required to determine whether the training is effective.

It is true those who are making hard decisions to invest and allocate scarce resources on the training and development of the employees would demand assessment using financial indicators. In order to justify this large expenditure, it is imperative that training and development programs within organizations are evaluated to ensure that employees are learning from the training program, applying it to their roles, and, ultimately, contributing to the returns on the organization's investment (Phillips, 2003). Employees would also view an effective training experience as an indication that the company cares about them and is willing to invest in them and hence, enhance their commitment to the organization. This

should be particularly true if the training meets participants' expectations and desires. (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991).

Assessing the effectiveness of training programs is always a controversial subject over a number of years in every professional field and organisation context (Eskin, 1986). Controversy might be on the defining the measures organisations use to assess the training effectiveness. Much debate has been generated on assessing the training effectiveness using financial indicators (e.g., Return on Investment). However, a single universally accepted and generalisable measure that could assess the outcomes in financial terms is not available. Also, each measure has its own pitfalls, blind alleys and traps. This is a significant lacuna in this field. Controversies do not arise in actual measurement but in the definition of the concepts that precede the measurement stage.

Outcomes include trainees' positive perception on the program and ratings of behaviour (Noe, 2008). Noe suggested that organisation can confidently rely on the perception gathered from the trainees' to evaluate the effectiveness of the training program. This could always be used as an effective and alternate method to using financial indicators as a measure to evaluate the effectiveness of the training programs. Authors argued that there are many components of training that can be evaluated based on perception on the program. They include satisfaction, opinions and attitudes towards the various components of the training programs (e.g., Eskin, 1986). Imperfect or incomplete measures of the outcomes provided may hamper the evaluation process, yet, they provide an alternate approach to evaluate the training programs.

To identify the potential benefits of training, the organisation must review the original reasons that the training was conducted and accordingly, the instrument to measure the perception of the trainees' could be designed. If programs are to be effective, they must meet the needs of the participants. This was well supported by the prior review of literature. Kirkpatrick, & Kirkpatrick reported that the common methods that are used to capture the effectiveness of the training programs at individual level are: i) asking the participants ii) analysing the performance appraisal forms. iii) asking the bosses of the participants and iv) testing the participants. Adopting the first method to capture the effectiveness of the training program involve capturing the trainees' perception on the content, objectives, design, ability to modify behaviour, develop competence, improve performance etc., Trainees' intent to attend further programs is derived from the perception he had on the training programs attended earlier.

The researcher felt that capturing the employee perception on training programs would help the trainees organize and interpret their sensory impressions on the training programs and also to give meaning to their environment. Triggering the employees to organize their perception in a structured way becomes important because employees' action towards the future training programs is based on their perception towards it. Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. However, nothing happens in an organization without forming perception whatsoever. Understanding the perception of the trainees is the key for the manager to make training work and get the best outcome from the training programs. The perception helps each and every individual in the organization to carry the things in different ways as the organization needs different perceptions to make the training programs successful.

Trainees will have different perception about their training and development programs. For some, training would be waste of valuable time while for others, helpful in improving the individual skills and knowledge. Many trainees perceive their training program interesting and relevant to their job but some of them could perceive it otherwise. Perceptions do vary on the trainer's ability to make the training program interesting and clarify the doubts of the trainees.

Higher perception on the trainer's ability to help them improve their skills and knowledge is related to trainees' intent to participate in future training programs. Negative perceptions towards training seem produce negative outcomes, including stronger prejudices towards future programs and an increased frequency of conflicts (Von Bergen, Soper, & Foster, 2002). Perception towards training programs act as a pre-training motivation for further programs. A meta-analysis showed that higher pre-training motivation was associated with lower resistance to participate in a variety of other training programs (Sitzmann, Brown, Casper, Ely, & Zimmerman, 2008).

The decision to participate in a training program was significantly correlated with perception towards earlier training programs (Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992). These results were consistent with those reported in a study by Ryman and Biersner (1975). It was found that participants who chose to participate in training had greater training success earlier and hence hesitant to withdraw voluntarily from future training programs (as cited in Mathieu *et al.*, 1992). Trainees usually have relevant experiences, perceptions, and beliefs about the issues covered in training (Laird, 2003). Such perceptions formed on their experience in training programs are assumed to influence trainees' intent to participate in other training programs.

Recent researchers have suggested that the intent to participate in further training programs is profoundly affected by management actions that include the quality of the training program the employees have participated earlier. Intent to participate is a characteristic of an individual's willingness to expend efforts toward a particular set of behavior. In a training context, it is the willingness of an employee to exert energy toward the program (Ryman and Biersner, 1975), to attend the training program (Maurer and Tarulli, 1994; Noe and Wilk, 1993), and to transfer what they learn in the program onto the job (Baldwin and Ford, 1988).

Hicks and Klimoski (1987) found that trainees intent to participate further if the training programmes they had attended were armed with realistic information. Realistic information about training influences trainees' perception towards training, their pre-training preparations and in turn for increasing trainees' motivation to learn. Such perception is derived from the past experience. Trainees who possess good memories and obtained pre-information from past experience before attending future training programs were more motivated than those who did not. (Baldwin & Magjuka, 1991). In this study, 'intent to participate in further training programs' is used as an indicator of effectiveness of training programs.

Expanding on Hicks and Klimoski (1987) assertions, Martocchio (1992) measured the effects labeling of training programs as "opportunity" and "neutral" had on employee intent to learn more. Martocchio posited that the training experiences of employees influence further pre-training previews. He suggested that a training preview can make certain information more "salient" to the employee, resulting in increase of employee's pre-training intent. Martocchio (1992) found that perception had a powerful influence on training outcomes and that there were no differences between groups on age, education, tenure at company, computer

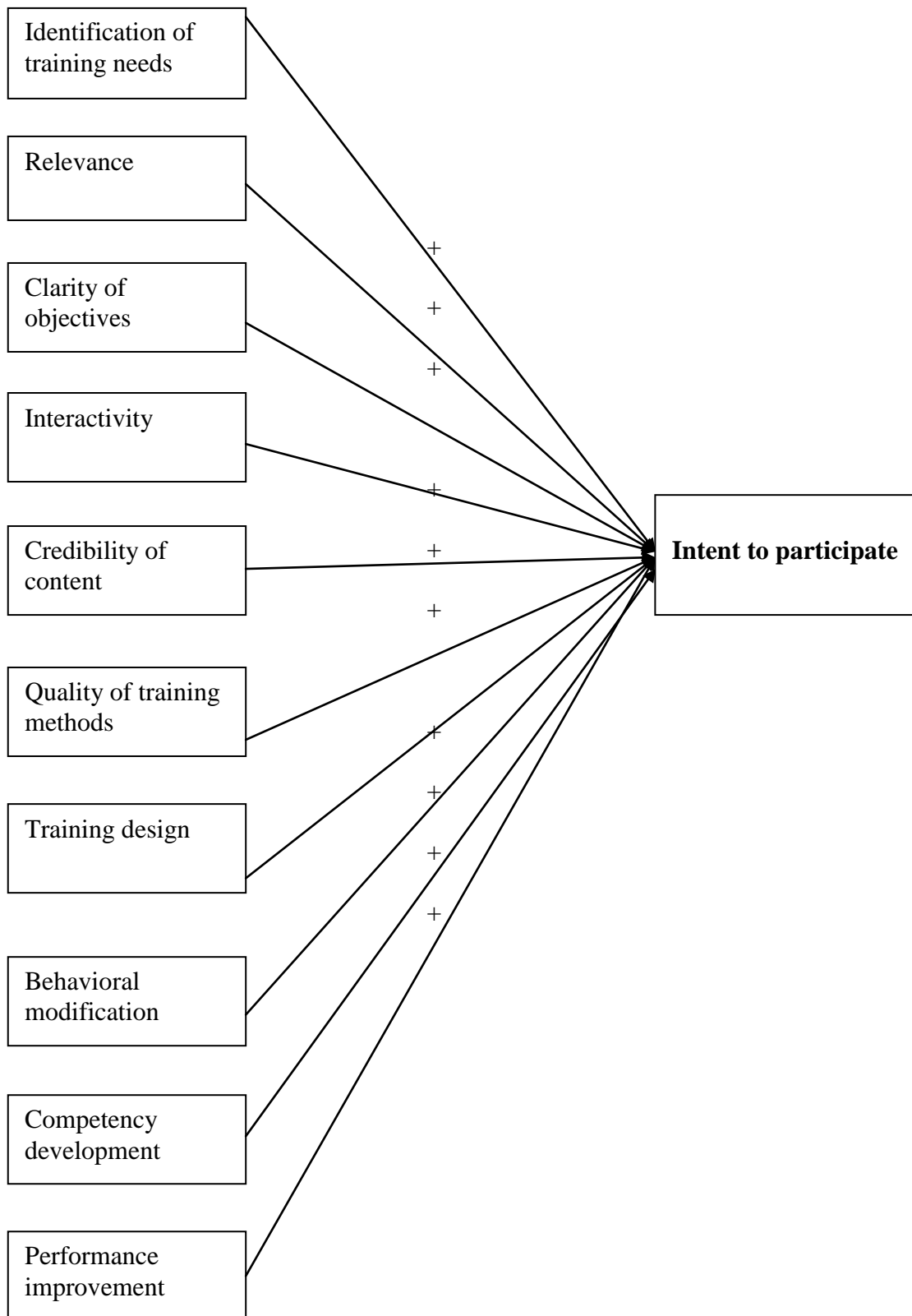
experience, or pre-training expectations (of threats or opportunities). Martocchio found a small positive correlation between perception and learning.

The intent to participate in other programs based on a positive perception towards earlier training programs could be substantiated by drawing cues from few theories. Rubenson's (1977) expectancy-valence model that stemmed from Bergsten's (1977) examination of the adult study needs and barriers evidences that experiences may influence participation in future initiatives. Bergsten identified attitudes, preferences concerning education, life circumstances, and knowledge of adult education initiatives as factors of adult participation. In this study, the researcher has identified perception on many aspects of training program as indicators of intent to participate. Cross's (1981a) Chain of Response (COR) model emerged from her examination of similarities between the force field analysis, congruency, and expectancy-valence models. Drawing from COR model, it is inferred that based on the role of positive and negative influences, individual's intent to participate could be determined. Participation stimuli are events or initiatives that encourage participation in an activity. From the psychosocial interaction model proposed by Darkenwald's (1981) it could be inferred that participation in organized training programs is dependent upon the previous element that include positive perception towards earlier programs. Miller's (1967) force field analysis is an integration of Lewin's (1947) conceptual model of the field theory and Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. The force field analysis model focuses on the negative and positive forces that influence intent to participate. Building on the assertions of Maslow, Miller suggested that the reasons why individuals participate in training is low income. Financially, unstable individuals with little education tend to participate to satisfy survival needs. Also, educated and financially stable individuals may participate to fulfill personal developmental needs and obtain self-understanding.

This review of literature presented in this chapter resulted in a framework.

Diagrammatically, it is represented as follows:

Figure 2.4 Framework linking perception on training program and intent to participate.



Summary

Perception on training programs and intent to participate as characterized by participation models such as the force field analysis model (Miller, 1967), expectancy-valence model, psychosocial interaction model, COR model complement the review of extant literature on HRM practices, TNA, Training and Development, training effectiveness and serve as visual organizers and guide further in developing the research methodology. In the following chapter, the research methodology will be discussed. Both the qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis will be described in detail.

Research Gap and need for the study

It is found from the review of literature that Saudi Arabia depended on large number of expatriates to work in family-owned businesses. In the last two decades it is reducing the dependence on expatriate manpower by providing the needed education to the younger generation of local Saudis. Saudis believe that expatriates are needed for immediate sustenance but not in the long run as their long term stay have cultural, social and economic ramifications. To be precise, Saudis want to minimize and control the foreign cultural onslaught. The potential for development of Saudi largely depends on the development of human resources without affecting the moral and spiritual values of the society. Schools and colleges that were expected to turn out students educated to the point where they can be readily be employed in jobs have partially failed in its responsibilities, though, organizations collaborate with schools and colleges in order to make their curriculum fit. Hence, employers feel the need for training them in the jobs that they fill.

Organisations are in need of skilled employees in order to remain competitive. With rapid advancement in technology, continuous training and retraining of current and future employees are the need of the hour. Organisations have to identify job-specific skills needed for the employees and ensure that that no duplicating of what schools and colleges have already delivered is done. Moreover, training should be applicable to real-world work situations. Hence it should be carefully planned and experts employed to conduct training programmes should design and align the programme to the needs of the employees.

Training offered should motivate receptivity and learning. Learning is done when they are motivated to learn. Training should have inherent motivation bundled in the programmes. Trainers should have the right perception on the needs of the employees and validate the

programme using and a well-defined TNA. Most importantly, the programmes should drive the employees with an intent to participate in more programmes.

Training programmes in Saudi Arabia are given importance at all levels beginning from the Government to SMEs. The Government comprehensively through policies has expressed its commitment to provide the nation's next generation with opportunities to develop their capabilities, They are, however, viewed to be in their early stages. They seem to lack seriousness, experience, and mechanisms that evaluate the effectiveness of the programmes. Few studies have attempted to measure the effectiveness of the training programmes but failed to measure the futuristic perspectives of training programmes, in general. They used conventional measures that considered only the requirements of the job and the extent to which the programmes meet these requisites. In order to be make the human resources function truly strategic, there is a need to relate how the perception on the training programme influences the employees to take participate in more programmes to scale up their knowledge, skills and abilities. Only in doing so can the HR function truly have value. Hence, a study that capture the perception of employees on training programmes and how they influence their intent to participate in future programmes is needed. Such a study was very important to the country and to its private and public sectors.

A look at the above literature reveal that the perception on the training programmes and its effectiveness has not been fully established, but, the fact that they interact is clearly understood (i.e) the perception on training programmes and its influence on effectiveness is not caused by events in the other rather, it is a function of their interaction. A substantial amount of research in this area has been stimulated, many of them concentrating on qualitatively measuring how training programmes have improved skills, knowledge and

abilities its relationship with a set of antecedents, outcomes and HR interventions that are required to increase the effectiveness of training programmes. Invariably, every research has found that effectiveness of training programme is a more pressing issue for both employers and employees. Although these studies provide necessary information on effectiveness, they are not devoid of shortcomings.

Earlier research on perception on training programmes had been extensively conducted in the Western settings, particularly in the United States and few noteworthy studies in the East Asian Countries like Hong Kong. Empirical studies on training programmes from countries with cultures in which, religious values are very strong and demographic diversity is on the rise, is lacking.

Many of the research have measured only the employees' perception on training programmes. This restricts the generalisability of the research findings to the participating organisation or industry, thus failing to account for the population of the employers as a whole. While employees' perception brings out reasonable results, it is worth studying employers' perception too so that a composite view could be brought out.

Theoretical evidence suggests that demographic differences are important in perception studies. Demographic differences do have an impact on the perception and hence, however, earlier studies have not captured demographic differences, giving rise to scope for comparative studies on the perception on training programmes. Although a large portion of the discussion is going on perception on training programmes and its consequents, the likelihood of differences experienced by different demographic groups were not empirically tested.

Many models have been developed, each one devoted to the examination of perception of training programmes from a number of different perspectives and on a variety of antecedents and outcomes. However, models that included all the possible factors were scarce. Moreover, much attention was devoted to the consequences of organizational consequences and not on how perception influence intent to participate in further training programmes. Also, few aspects of training programmes were studied and hence study that captures the perception on trainer, content, delivery etc., should be given relative importance.

Lastly, the construct on perception on training programmes is a concept developed in the West and majority of the studies have been conducted in the Western countries, particularly the USA. Not enough information is available, concerning the validity of the construct, as well as its relationship with other constructs such as intent to participate in future programmes in the other part of the world. Therefore, it is unclear if the findings of the researches conducted in the West could be applied to non-western countries. On the whole, there is definitely a need to conduct a study to fill the above research gaps.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

The purpose of this research is to study the current state of training provided in family-owned firms in the KSA. The study used a combination of qualitative and quantitative method. This is also called mixed-methods approach. The qualitative method is used at the instrument (questionnaire) development stage. The methodological framework is selected based on the intent of the researcher to develop a country-specific instrument and nature of the problem. This chapter describes the research methodology used in this study.

The Mixed-Method Approach

Mixed methods research involving the combined use of quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study, is an emerging methodological movement. The overall purpose and central premise of using a qualitative method at the initial stage is to have a strong conceptual understanding of the subject and accordingly develop a country-specific instrument.

Different definitions have been provided about mixed methods research. For example, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) pointed out that mixed methods studies are those that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study. However, all definitions suggest that mixed method involve use of qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study. Creswell & Plano Clark (2007) pointed out that mixed method studies require more work, financial resources and time. The researcher witnessed the above challenges while exploring the training issues in KSA, yet, a qualitative method is

used at the instrument development stage in order to have a better understanding on the country-specific training issues.

The research began with a qualitative exploration of issues concerning training and development. As mentioned earlier, this was done in order to explore the issues concerning family owned organisations in KSA. In general, qualitative studies precede the quantitative data collection with an intent to first explore the problem under study, develop an expert validated questionnaire and then follow up on this exploration with quantitative data that are amenable to studying a large sample so that results might be inferred to the intended population. Consonant with the general understanding of the merit of qualitative research, the researcher found that the qualitative study gave much impetus to decide on the factors that constitute the questionnaire.

The researcher relied upon the views of 17 HR managers and 18 employees. Before embarking on generating themes on perception towards the training programs, the researcher explained about the study and gave a brief definition and description about perception on training programs. This was done to ensure that the respondents perceive the intended themes on the subject correctly. He asked broad, general questions, collected data from participants that consisted largely of words or texts, described and analysed the words for themes, and conducted the inquiry in a subjective manner. It was more exploratory in nature and generally involved listening to the participants voices and subjecting the data to induction (e.g., finding common themes). The findings were created through the interaction between the researcher and the researched. The meanings of the common themes were discovered through close interaction between the researcher and researched. The aim was to work toward a construction of the social milieu that was consistent with the experiences of the

participants. Methods include long-term observations, in-depth interviews, and content analysis of documents. The researcher interviewed the people by observing them in their natural settings. This was an attempt to make sense of and interpret the phenomena in terms of the meanings the managers and employees bring in.

The following table is the list of words/concepts and themes derived cited by the participants in the qualitative study.

Table 3. 1 showing the list of words/concepts and themes derived

No	Major elements (words/concepts)	No. of employees who identified word or concept	Broad Theme/s
1.	Need-based	33	Identification of training/ relevance
2.	Goal-oriented	20	Relevance
3.	Task Related	26	Relevance/ Strategic Alignment
4.	Realistic	14	Clarity of Objectives
5.	Professionalism	18	Training Design
6.	Credibility	14	Credibility of content
7.	Organization	28	Quality of Training Methods
8.	Materials	11	Credibility of contents
9.	Training Methods	15	Quality of Training Methods
10	Trainer on same level	11	Quality of training methods
11	Fun	17	Interactivity
12	Understanding Customers	25	Results/Behaviour Change
13	Engaging	16	Interactivity

14	Management development	13	Competence development
15	Motivation	25	Behavioural modification
16	Objectives	29	Clarity of Objectives
17	Communication	13	Clarity of Objectives
18	Training Activities	29	Training design
19	Empathy	12	Interactivity
20	Behaviour Change	22	Behaviour Change
21	Relational	12	Interactivity
22	Improved Performance	29	Performance improvement
23	Productivity	25	Performance improvement
24	Accountability	22	Competence development
25	Progressive feedback	19	Intent to participate
26	Climate	20	Quality of training readiness

Accordingly, the researcher formed eleven themes for the employees and constructed few items under each theme. The themes or, in methodical terminology, termed as factors, or variables or dimensions developed for employees are as follows:

- 1) Identification of training needs;
- 2) Relevance;
- 3) Clarity of objectives;
- 4) Interactivity;
- 5) Credibility of content;
- 6) Quality of training methods;
- 7) Training design;
- 8) Intent to participate;

- 9) Behavioral modification;
- 10) Competence development;
- 11) Performance improvement.

Based on the qualitative analysis, the researcher developed few items under each factor. The factor 'Identification of training need' had 3 items; 'Relevance' had 3; 'Clarity of Objectives' 3; 'Interactivity' 1; 'Credibility of Content' 3; 'Quality of Training Methods' 3; 'Training Design' 4; 'Intent to Participate' 4; 'Behavioural Modification' 3; 'Competence Development' 3 and 'Performance Improvement' 6 items.

Instrumentation

As mentioned above, for the purpose of studying the objectives and testing the hypotheses, two questionnaires (see Annexures – I and II) were developed. Questionnaire in appendix I was meant for employees and appendix II for HR managers. The questionnaire developed for employees has two parts: the first part captured the background information and the second captured the perception on management training in family-owned companies in the KSA. The second part consisted of factors that included identification of training need, relevance, clarity of objective, interactivity, credibility of content, quality of training methods, training design, intent to participate, behavioural modification, competence development and performance improvement.

The items capturing each factor were deducted from the qualitative analysis done at the earlier stage of the research. An item-wise corroboration of the factors as well as the items developed under each factor was done with the extant literature (e.g., Diamantidis, & Chatzoglou, 2014). Hence, the items that constituted adequate coverage of the factors under

study were decided and agreed upon by the researcher. However, they were subjected to validity and reliability tests.

The questionnaire for employees was subjected to validity tests. The first part consisting of the background information included age captured in categories of 1 coded for age group 20-30; 2 for 31-40; 3 for 41-50 and 4 coded for 51-60, educational attainment reported as 1 coded for 'High School'; 2 for 'Technical School'; 3 for 'Diploma' and 4 for 'College', and position held in the organization again as an open-ended item.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of the perception on training in family owned businesses in KSA. The factors as mentioned earlier were identification of training need, relevance, clarity of objectives, interactivity, credibility of content, quality of training methods, training design, intent to participate, behavioural modification, competence development and performance improvement. Identification of training need consisted of 3 items, relevance 3 items, clarity of objectives 3 items, interactivity 1 item, credibility of content 3 items, quality of training methods 3 items, training design 4 items, intent to participate 4 items, behavioural modification 3 items, competence development 3 items and performance improvement 6 items.

Validity test

The questionnaire was subjected to content and face validity. Two schools of thought on the distinctiveness of content and face validity exist whose determination was judgement. The first one treated both of them as separate and different tests (DeVellis, 1991; Kerlinger, 1973) and the second one characterises face validity as just an indirect approach to content validate the measures (Carmines, & Zeller, 1979; Nunnally, 1967). The researcher content

validated the question subscribing to the first perspective where quantitative assessment of the content validity had been followed.

Content validity was conducted in two stages. The first stage was conducted with 4 experts and in the second with 8 experts. The experts were drawn from both academia and practice. Two were from academic and two were practitioners from family run business organisations. The researcher briefed the experts on the constructs that constitute training and training effectiveness. They scrutinised the items within the framework given by the definition against the constructs of training in family-owned businesses. The set of experts in the first stage expressed their reservation on giving a conclusive opinion on the inclusion of few items under training design, identification of training need and performance improvement scale, though they agreed on the other items of the scale. They were inconsistent in their decision throughout the validity test process. They themselves suggested consensually that few more experts need to be included. They also expressed suspicion on the validity of the results obtained using the 4 experts and hence, the researcher discarded the results of the first validity tests. Going by the merit of their suggestion, four more experts were included. This was done in early 2014. Again, the researcher informed them of the objectives and the need for the study before they could offer their opinion on the items. The researcher first encouraged the experts to discuss among themselves so that a firm understanding on the subject under study could be gained before validating each item's essentiality in the questionnaire. Then they were requested to offer their feedback on each of the items. Based on their feedback, few items were slightly repositioned, modified, reworded to make them appropriate for use. For example, the item in the employee questionnaire, "I was told about the importance of training" was modified as 'I was told why the training was important'. Another item, 'the identification of training needs were aligned with the objectives of

expected outcome’ was reworded as ‘I see strong integration of training objectives and training delivery’. The questionnaire was comprehensively validated by the 8 experts constituted for this purpose. The experts also suggested that a 5-point rating scale could be used for all the items. Finally, the researcher developed a content validity ratio (CVR) on each item, using the formula developed by Lawsche (1975). They are presented in table below. Based on this, the questionnaire was finalized. Redundant statements were removed.

$$\text{Content Validity Ratio} = \frac{\text{Ne} - N/2}{N/2}$$

where Ne = number of panellists indicating “essential”
and N = total number of panellists.

Table 3.2 Content validity ratio for employee questionnaire

Sl.No	Items	CVR
	Identification of training need	
1.	Training in this organisation is based on changing needs of the organization.	1.00
2.	Training in this organisation is based on current business requirements.	.75
3.	Training in this organisation is based on shareholders and owners requirements.	.75
	Relevance	
4.	Training realistically mirrored my job.	.5
5.	Training is directly related to my job’s function on routine basis.	1.00
6.	I was told “why” the training was important.	1.00
	Clarity of objectives	
7.	Before any training program the objectives were well aligned with the strategic business objectives.	1.00

8.	I see strong integration of training objectives and training delivery.	.75
9.	The training objectives have been clearly stated and communicated.	.75
	Interactivity	
10.	During training I was actively engaged.	1.00
	Credibility of content	
11.	Trainer was knowledgeable regarding content.	1.00
12.	Training was developed by people an expert on the domain.	1.00
13.	The material given was well designed and relevant.	1.00
	Quality of training methods	
14.	Training has been imparted with fine balance of on the job and off the job methods.	.5
15.	Trainer has used many diverse methods to deliver the content in interesting manner.	.5
16.	I see training as fun based learning.	1
	Training design	
17.	Training focused on developing managerial competencies in me.	.75
18.	Training programme was designed to prepare for higher managerial responsibilities.	.75
19.	Training designed to people management	.5
20.	I see strong alignment between Training learned and transfer on job.	1.0
	Intent to participate	
21.	I am very happy with the training given.	.75
22.	Management must continuously organize such training.	1.00
23.	Such training contributes effectively to one's motivation.	1.00

24.	I have been eagerly waiting to have the training.	1.00
	Behavioural modification	
25.	Training has helped me to change my behavior.	.75
26.	Training has made visible behaviour change as seen by my boss.	.75
27.	Training has made visible behaviour change as seen by subordinates.	1.00
	Competence development	
28.	I have acquired at least one newer skill over past one year.	.75
29.	Training has given to me addressed the skill gaps I have.	1.00
30.	Training has imparted newer skills, knowledge and attitudes to make me well prepared for my future roles.	.5
	Performance improvement	
31.	Training has positively contributed to my performance in the organization.	.5
32.	As compared to last year, I will be getting higher performance rewards due to training.	.75
33.	Training has helped me to address the performance gaps I have.	.5
34.	Training has improved my job performance.	.5
35.	The learning have helped me to improve my performance.	.5
36.	Training has given me an opportunity to apply my classroom learning on my job effectively.	.5

In general, all items that score less than 0.50 on the content validity ratio would be removed from the study. But, it was found that based on the face validity and content validity ratio, that none of the items had scored less than 0.5 and hence all the items originally developed were retained. Accordingly, the number of items included in each of the factors is as follows:

- 1) Identification of training needs;
- 2) Relevance;
- 3) Clarity of objectives;
- 4) Interactivity;
- 5) Credibility of content;
- 6) Quality of training methods;
- 7) Training design;
- 8) Intent to participate;
- 9) Behavioral modification;
- 10) Competence development;
- 11) Performance improvement.

Based on the validity test, the final number of items under each factor has been determined. The factor 'Identification of training needs' had 3 items; 'Relevance' had 3; 'Clarity of Objectives' 3; 'Interactivity' 1; 'Credibility of Content' 3; 'Quality of Training Methods' 3; 'Training Design' 4; 'Intent to Participate' 4; 'Behavioural Modification' 3; 'Competence Development' 3 and 'Performance Improvement' 6 items. As mentioned earlier, these items were made on a 5-point scale anchored by 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree and the mean of the items under each factor was used as a composite measure of the respective factors.

In the final stage of primary data collection, the researcher conducted 33 in-depth, semi-structured interviews. These interviews were conducted with the HR managers in two phases, with sixteen respondents participating in the first stage of interviews and 17 participating in the second phase. The data were collected in June 2014

The interview was conducted using a semi-structured interview schedule prepared by the researcher. The schedule was prepared based on the thematic understanding generated in the first phase of the instrument development. Further, cues were drawn from the interaction with the 17 HR managers in the first phase. The researcher subjected the semi-structured questionnaire intended for the HR managers to content validity using Lawshe's formula. A content validity ratio (CVR) was developed.

In order to construct the CVR, the researcher again convened the expert panels and requested them to help validate the developed instrument with other established schedules (e.g., Rae, 2005). The panellists enthusiastically authenticated the merit of the interview schedule in collecting the intended data. The table containing the CVR is given below

Table 3. 3 showing Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for HR managers

Sl.No	Items	CVR
1.	How do you come up with the job requirements for managerial positions?	1.00
2.	Do you construct job requirements based on the strategic thrusts of the organisations? How?	.75
3.	Do you consider the needs of your customers in coming up with job requirements for the managerial positions? If yes, how?	.75
4.	Do the needs of the other shareholders influence the development of the job requirements? How?	.75
5.	How do you determine whether an applicant is suitable to the managerial positions based on the job descriptions that you have developed?	.75

6.	Do you construct your training and development programs based on these job requirements?	1.00
7.	Do you consider re-evaluating your current managers, whether or not they still meet current job requirements?;	.75
8.	Do you take into account the comments and suggestions of customers in further developing your job requirements?	.50
9.	Do the standards of other companies affect the standards and development of their own job requirements?	.75
10.	Do your training and development programmes improve as job requirements become stricter?	.75
11.	What actions do you take on incumbent managers who do not meet what is required of their job descriptions?	.50
12.	Do you take in mind your specific company's goal and business strategies in developing training programmes?	.75

In general, all items that score less than 0.50 on the content validity ratio would be removed from the study. It was found that items under action taken had scored less than 0.5 and hence all the items originally developed were removed. The instrument validity was established in English. In order to increase the comfort level in responding to the questionnaires, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic.

The researcher in this study adopted the process of recording the information during the interview after receiving prior permission from the interviewees, who were assured of the confidentiality of the data. Even during the analysis, no names were used. It is essential that

the privacy of the individual is respected and that any views they indicate as falling outside the interview were not recorded and remained off the record (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). Recording the interviews helped to ensure the record would be full and also allowed for verbatim citation at a later stage. However, the researcher had to remain aware that note-taking can be disruptive, whether the notes are taken manually or recorded for later transcription. A particular challenge in this case was the need not just to transcribe the interviews but to translate from Arabic to English; this is particularly difficult when the analysis rests on the precise selection of words by the respondent; one risks losing the nuance of the response, and the specific selection of terms, in translation. The interviews for this study were conducted based on the interview schedule (included in Appendix 2). After being conducted in Arabic, the interviews were translated into English following transcription.

In this case, a semi-structured form of interview was adopted, rather than a completely formal or structured interview format. In the semi-structured interview, the interviewer discussed an array of topics and concerns with the respondents on which the respondent provides his or her judgment (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). The researcher gathered similar data from all respondents which eases comparison but helped explore issues raised by each individual that appeared to be interesting or particularly relevant (Saunders *et al.*, 2003).

This semi-structured interview was conducted in addition to the questionnaire method under the assumption that such interviews would allow a deeper explanation as to how organizations have run the training programs. It thus allowed an exploration of the causal logic chain rather than of implied relationships; in effect, the interview approach allowed for an exploration of the usage and limits of the training programs designed as it is

seen by the actual participants. It aided the researcher in relating the employee data with the organizations feelings, inclinations, main beliefs, viewpoints, and sentiments on the topic of conversation (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, Yin, 2009). The interviewees made sense of their roles in the workplace, and the role of training programs within that, facilitating a more robust process of theory building (Gerring, 2007, Yin, 2009). The interviews helped the researcher to use the findings alongside the data collected from the employees in a complimentary manner. This helped the researcher add depth and new dimensions that would be established by the data collected from the employees (Shah and Corley, 2006).

The Pilot study

After finalising the factors and the number of items in the research instrument meant for the employees using content and face validity tests, a pilot study was undertaken in the month of June, 2014 for the following reasons:

- a) To assess the research instrument's reliability and
- b) To ascertain the time taken to complete the questionnaire by the respondents.

To conduct the pilot study, it was decided to select the employees of ten companies to undertake the reliability test. The decision was dictated by the 8 experts constituted for the content validity test. The employees were taken from all levels. The researcher resolved that the respondents who take part in the pilot study should have had at least one year of experience and had undergone at least two training programs. This was done to ensure that they have perceptible experience to respond to the items in the questionnaire.

Results of the pilot study

The researcher recorded the verbatim discussion that took place while administering the

questionnaire. The discussion that took place with the respondents during the pilot study indicated that the instrument had adequate stimulus value to collect the intended and authentic responses from the respondents. The discussion with the respondents also suggested that the methods adopted in administering the instruments were practicable. Hence, the instrument developed was deemed to elicit the necessary data required from the respondents without any measurement error. It has been found that the respondents took invariably between 20 – 30 minutes to completely fill the questionnaire.

Reliability test

Cronbach’s alpha was used to establish the reliability of the questionnaire. As the survey instrument was a slightly modified scale borrowed from other studies, the researcher decided to employ reliability tests with a pilot sample of 50 employees drawn from family-owned firms in the KSA. Alpha value of 0.60 was used as the threshold value (Malhotra, 2004). Reliability coefficients indicated by alpha values for the factors chosen for this study were more than 0.60, which is an acceptable value. So, the items constituting each variable under study have reasonable internal consistency. The alpha values for the various factors are shown in table below.

Table 3. 4 showing the results of the reliability tests for employees

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha for Pilot Sample (n =50)
Identification of training needs	.832
Relevance	.700
Clarity of objectives	.69
Credibility of content	.725
Quality of training methods	.796

Training design	.707
Intent to participate	.700
Behavioural modification	.683
Competence development	.679
Performance improvement	.833

Sampling frame

The geographical area of KSA was chosen as the Universe. The main reason for choosing KSA is that this research is specific of KSA and the researcher is located here and is familiar with the place. More significantly, KSA has the distinction of being an active commercial centre and a centre of learning with many institutions in the public as well as the private sectors emerging. In this study, the researcher has chosen organizations from the private sector in the jurisdiction of KSA as the sampling frame. The sampling frame was derived from information provided by the Ministry of Industry in Saudi Arabia.

Sampling technique

A list of companies situated in KSA was prepared. The list was prepared from the information provided by the Ministry of Industry in Saudi Arabia. From this information, the companies which are owned and run by the families of Saudi Arabia based business men having operations in Riyadh, Jeddah and Dammam had been chosen. More specifically, these companies which had been in the trade for at least 1 year were selected. Accordingly, with the available information provided by the Ministry of Industry, the researcher could identify around 143 companies on which the above conditions hold good. The researcher identified the contact details of these 143 companies and the top person in the company was

contacted in order to solicit his or her cooperation at any level to undertake the study. The researcher sent couriers to the top persons raising the intent for the study. Accordingly, only 33 companies expressed their willingness to participate in this study. More specifically, the researcher sought for details of one person from whom discussion on further data collection could be made. The researcher specified that the person should have sufficient experience or will to disclose the data without any personal bias or organizational prejudice. Accordingly, the discussion revealed that the HR managers of the respective companies would be the ideal persons for the job. The top person in these companies were good enough to furnish the details of the person in their respective companies. The researcher sent a courier appreciating their willingness to participate in this study.

After identifying the companies and the persons (HR managers) from whom further discussion on data collection could be made, snowball sampling technique was used to select the respondents for the employee survey. The researcher contacted the identified HR managers of these companies and asked them to identify possible employees who would provide data fairly without any personal or personal bias or organizational prejudice. The researcher specified that apart from the personal bias and organizational prejudice the person should have perceptible experience to respond to the questionnaire so that the possibility of response error shall be minimized. Further, they should have attended at least two training programmes. This was done to ensure that the respondents would have perceptible experience training offered in the organisations. The HR managers suggested the names of 300 employees and furnished their contact details. No distinction was made between native and foreign nationals in the sample. This was followed based on the suggestion offered by the panelists constituted for the validity test. However, no distinction was made between married and unmarried employees or HR managers. Accordingly, the sample size stood at

33 HR managers and 210 employees.

Administration

The questionnaire was administered to all the 33 HR managers and 300 employees. The HR managers were contacted in person and almost half of the employee questionnaires were administered in person and the remaining by choosing a respondent as a point of contact in the snowballing technique. The researcher did not circulate the questionnaire to employees through the HR managers. This was done in order to keep the employees away from any influence of the HR managers. In order to expedite the data collection process and to solicit their kind cooperation in filling up the questionnaire and provide unbiased and non-prejudiced data, the researcher personally met the respondents or contacted them over phone. A covering letter describing the purpose for which the data was collected was also attached with the questionnaire. This was done in order to instill confidence in the minds of the respondents (See Annexure – I). The respondents were ensured that the data sought was only for academic purposes and hence, would be treated with absolute confidentiality and anonymity. This was suggested by the respondents in the pilot study. This measure encouraged the respondents to provide with complete and accurate information. A thorough follow-up was done in person and over telephone to expedite the process of filling up the questionnaire. The data collection process yielded a response rate of 100% among the HR managers and 70% among the identified employees.

Respondent Profile for the HR Managers' Survey

The researcher built a brief respondent profile based on the questionnaires completed by the HR managers. On the questionnaires, the respondents provided demographic data. This profile provided a preliminary means of assessing where the

respondents were coming from and what types of quantitative responses they had provided. The table below shows a combined tabulation of all demographic information that was collected. Respondents were not screened based on their demographic characteristics, but the demographic characteristics may reflect the nature of human resources practitioners in Saudi Arabia. It is interesting to note that the response group is older compared to workers generally, with almost all respondents being over 40. Additionally, all respondents were male. This is most likely due to the structure of Saudi Arabian companies, which assign most positions of responsibility to men for cultural reasons.

Table 3. 5 showing the age, gender and nationality of the HR managers

Category	Frequency	Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Age of Respondents			
Under 40	7	21.2%	21.2%
40 to 45	8	24.2%	45.5%
46 to 50	15	45.5%	90.9%
Above 50	3	9.1%	100%
Gender of Respondents			
Male	33	100%	100%
Female	0	0%	100%
Nationality of Respondents			
Saudi	29	87.9%	87.9%
Non-Saudi	4	12.1%	100%

The table below summarizes the professional characteristics of the response group. These are separated from the demographic characteristics because they offer different insights into the responses. The researcher also selected participants from different levels of

experience and different professional positions in order to give a range of views and perspectives as well as to offer a range of potential training and development knowledge bases. The responses indicated that most participants held the title of HR director (although, as noted below, this may be a moot point because most of the departments had only one or two members in the first place). The response group had a moderate level of experience, with most members having between five and 15 years of professional experience.

Table 3. 6 showing the positions held by the HR managers

Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Per cent
Professional Positions of Respondents at the time of the survey			
HR Director	21	63.6%	63.6%
HR Specialist	7	21.2%	84.8%
HR Manager	5	15.2%	100%
Number of Year Experience in current Role			
5 to 10 years	16	48.5%	48.5%
11 to15 years	10	30.3%	78.8%
16 or more years	7	21.2%	100%

Table 3. 7 provides a summary of data about the organizations from which data were collected. Data were deliberately collected from a range of different organizational sizes and industrial sectors, again to provide a broad overview of the types of practise that were in use in the Saudi business sector.

Table 3. 7 showing the organisational size where the HR managers are employed

Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Organization Size (Number of Employees)			
60 to 99 employees	7	21.2%	21.1%
100 to 199 employees	5	15.3%	36.4%
200 to 299 employees	6	18.5%	54.8%
300 to 399 employees	8	24.2%	79%
400 to 499 employees	4	12.1%	91.1%
500+ employees	3	8.9%	100%
Industry Sector			
Chemicals	6	18.2%	18.2%
Construction	3	9.1%	27.3%
Banking	6	18.2%	45.5%
Food	6	18.2%	63.6%
Textiles	5	15.2%	78.8%
Other Manufacturing	7	21.2%	100%
Company Geographic Region (Headquarters Location in Saudi Arabia)			
Central	8	24.2%	24.2%
Eastern	17	51.5%	75.8%
Western	8	24.2%	100%
Age of the Organization (Years in Business)			
Less than 1 year	1	3%	3%
5 to 9 years	5	15.2%	18.2%
10 to 14 years	8	24.2%	42.4%

15 to 19 years	9	27.3%	69.7%
20 to 24 years	2	6.1%	75.8%
25 to 29 years	3	9.1%	84.8%
30 to 34 years	2	6.1%	90.9%
35 or more years	3	9.1%	100%
Management Structure of the Organization			
Owner alone	3	9.1%	9.1%
Owner and professional manager	11	33.3%	42.4%
Saudi Board of Directors	11	33.3%	75.8%
Mixed Board of Directors (Saudi and Non-Saudi Members)	8	24.2%	100%

As the table shows, 36.4% of responses (n = 12) could be considered medium companies (between 60 and 199 employees), while the remainder were large companies of varying sizes. There was a spread of companies across the industry sectors surveyed. Only a few newer companies were represented (defined as those that had been in business for less than 10 years), with most companies being in business for 10 to 20 years or more. This is consistent with an established family business in Saudi Arabia that had been in place for at least one generation. Finally, the management structure was mixed, with a combination of owner-managed companies, owners and professional managers, and boards of directors (including Saudi and mixed Saudi and non-Saudi boards). This range of businesses, industries, and structures was expected to provide a broad view of HR practices across the Saudi organizational context.

Finally, the researcher analysed the organizations' HR structures. This information

was intended to provide insight into the operating conditions of the HR group within each organization. The following chapter will examine this information in more detail, but this section provides a summary and outline of the data involved. The figures for the age of the formal HR organization compared to the foundation of the firm shows that the HR organization tended to be a relatively new introduction compared to the age of the company, with over half (54.5%) of the companies having introduced a formal HR organization in the previous nine years. In comparison, only 18.2% of the companies had been established in the previous nine years as shown in the table below. The organizations also had relatively small HRM organizations. None of the organizations had more than 6 HR employees, while almost half (48.5%) had only one or two employees. This suggests that HRM is a relatively new concept for these businesses and that it has not yet grown very large in the organizations represented in this study.

Table 3. 8 showing the age, size of and the use of TNA by the HR departments

Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age of the Formal HR department			
Fewer than 5 years	5	15.2%	15.2%
5 to 9 years	13	39.4%	54.5%
10 to 14 years	12	36.4%	90.9%
15 to 19 years	1	3%	93.9%
20 or more years	2	6.1%	100%
Size of the HR department (Number of Employees)			
1 or 2 Employees	16	48.5%	48.5%
3 or 4 Employees	11	33.3%	81.8%
5 or 6 Employees	6	18.2%	100%
Use of TNA in the HRM Practices of the department			

Yes	20	60.6%	60.6%
No	13	39.4%	100%

Demographic Profile of the Surveyed Employees

The demographic details of the 210 employees surveyed are presented under the analysis and interpretation chapter.

Statistical Techniques used

To estimate simple summaries about the sample and about the observations that have been made descriptive statistics is used along with Correlation, Exploratory factor analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, MANOVA, and Multiple Regression.

Summary

This chapter reported that the researcher used mixed method to develop the instrument of data collection. A qualitative study was used initially to generate words / concepts on Training & Development. Based on the words / concepts, themes were developed. Items that capture each theme were developed in consultation with the experts formed at the qualitative research stage. Accordingly, the questionnaire was finalized. Similarly, a qualitative study was conducted to develop a semi-structured questionnaire to capture the perception on the training programs run for the employees. The questionnaire was validated using Lawshe's formulated and tested for reliability using Cronbach Alpha. It was then administered to 210 employees and the data generated from 210 was quantitatively analysed. Similarly, 33 HR managers were also interviewed using the semi-structured questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis & Results

This chapter presents and analyzes the data collected for the study. The first section of the chapter presents the tabulation of the personal details of the respondents, the second section presents the MANOVA results and the third section presents the relationship between the perception on the training programs and intention to participate.

The data collected from the respondents was tabulated and analysed using appropriate statistical techniques mentioned in the research methodology. This chapter contains three parts. First part contains tabulation of the background characteristics, the mean and standard deviation and the inter-correlations between the variables. This also presents the results pertaining to the first objective. The second part contains results relating to the second objective and the third objective and third part presents the analysis of the semi-structured interview conducted with the HR managers.

Analysis of Employee data

The background characteristics of the respondents are reported in table IV.1. Age is presented as groups of class intervals to limit the size of the table. 15.2.9% of the respondents belong to the age group 20-30 years, 28.1% belong to 31-40, 25.7% belong to 41.50, 31% belong to 51-60 years. 9% of the respondents had completed their high school, 31% their technical school, 37.6% their diploma and 22.4% had completed their college education.

Table. 4.1. Background Characteristics

Items	Description	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percentage
Age	20-30	32	15.2	15.2
	31-40	59	28.1	43.3
	41-50	54	25.7	69.
	51-60	65	31.0	100
Educational Background	High School	19	9.0	9.0
	Technical School	65	31	40.0
	Diploma	79	37.6	77.6
	College	47	22.4	100.0
Experience in groups	1 to 5 years	37	17, 6	17.6
	6 to 10 years	56	26.7	44.3
	11 to 15 years	49	23.3	67.6
	16 to 20 years	48	22.9	90.5
	21 and above	20	9.5	100

17.6% of the respondents had 1 to 5 years of experience, 26.7% of them had 6 to 10 years, 23.3% had 11 to 15 years, 22.9% had 16 to 20 years and 9.5% had 21 and more than 21 years of experience. The mean number of years of experience is found to be 12.03. It was measured as a direct score but presented here as groups of class intervals.

Testing for Multi - Collinearity and Common Method Variance

The Correlation results indicate low to high correlations. High correlations of value more than .80 indicate the existence of multi-collinearity. The researcher agreed that any of the independent variables do exert serious confounding influence on the relationships between the identified independent and dependent variables, yielding potentially misleading conclusions (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The item inter-correlations for all items within a respective constructs are significant and hence provides evidence that the items are related to the same construct 'perception on training programs' is supported. The researcher is aware that while the high intercorrelations demonstrate that the items are probably related to the *same* construct, that doesn't automatically mean that the construct is absolutely supported. Maybe there's some other construct that these items are related to but, at the very least, the researcher assumes from the pattern of correlations that the items are converging on the same thing.

Table 2 shows that correlation with coefficient more than .80 exists between 'Competence Development and Performance Improvement' and 'Competence Development and Behavioural Modification' (Green, Tull, & Albaum, 1999). The researcher resolved this conflict by removing the variable Competence Development which contributed to multi-collinearity on both the cases. Accordingly, further analysis was done only with 10 variables after removing competence development from the study.

The researcher also examined the data for common method bias. Correlation coefficients were not within the accepted level indicating existence of multi-collinearity. Yet the researcher tested for occurrence of common method variance which is referred to as, the amount of spurious covariance shared among variables because of the common method used

in collecting data (Buckley, Cote, & Comstock, (1990). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee &

Table 4.2 showing the results of mean, standard deviation (SD) and inter-correlation

No		Mean											
		(SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Identification of training need analysis	2.37 (.90)											
2	Relevance of the Training	3, 67 (.74)	-										
3	Clarity of Objectives	3, 53 (.71)	-	.64**									
4	Interaction in the training programs	3.65 (.93)	-	.49**	.49**								
5	Credibility of the training program	3.53 (.80)	-	.59**	.56**	.46**							
6	Quality of Training Methods	3.63 (.72)	-	.49**	.53**	.49**	.60**						
7	Training Design	3.69 (.74)	-	.25**	.53**	.26**	.28**	.44**					

8	Intention to participate	3.66 (.80)	-	.23**	.57**	.25**	.21**	.32**	.78**	
9	Behavioral Modification	3.45 (.73)	-	.21**	.53**	.23**	.18**	.31**	.72**	.84**
10	Competence Development	3.54 (.92)	-	.24**	.57**	.25**	.21**	.26**	.69**	.79**
11	Performance Improvement	3.46 (.94)	-	.24**	.54**	.23**	.24**	.27**	.68**	.75**
									.74**	.90**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Podsakoff (2003) reported four important sources of common method variance: 1) method effects produced by a common source or rater that include consistency motif, implicit theories and illusory correlations, social desirability, leniency biases, acquiescence, positive and negative affectivity and transient mood state. 2) Method effects produced by item characteristics that include item social desirability (or item demand characteristics), item complexity and / or ambiguity, scale format and scale anchors and negatively worded items 3) Method effects produced by item context that include item priming effects, item embeddedness, context-induced mood, scale length, intermixing items of different constructs on the questionnaire and 4) method effect produced by measurement control that include time and location of measurement and use of a common medium to obtain measurements. In this study, no attempt has been made to identify the sources of common method variance or the process through which method biases influence the respondent behaviour or results, however, a statistical remedy has been employed to identify the issue of common method variance, which the researcher interested to know. The researcher has used the most widely used statistical technique the Harman's One-Factor (or Single – Factor) test to assess common

method variance. As traditionally used, all the variables in the study are loaded into an exploratory factor analysis and the unrotated factor solution was examined to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables.

To test the fitness of the exploratory factor model, the following few tests are done:

- The correlation coefficients are computed and found that there are enough correlation coefficients greater than 0.30. This indicates the fitness of the factor model.
- Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy quantifies the degree of intercorrelations among the variables. It is found to be 0.881 which is a meritorious statistic.
- The overall significance of all correlations within the correlation matrix is statistically tested using Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Approximate chi-square= 1808.047; df = 55 and significant at 0.000). This provides validity of the factor analysis of the data set, as it indicates adequate inter-correlations between the items.

All the above indicate the appropriateness of factor analysis and thus provide sufficient support to continue analysing the factor results.

Principal Component Analysis was employed for extracting factors. No rotational method was employed as the researcher intended to extract unrotated factor solutions to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables. No a priori number of factors were fixed. The latent root criterion was used for extraction of factors. As per that criterion only the factors having latent roots or Eigen values greater than 1 are considered significant; all the factors with latent roots less than 1 are considered insignificant and disregarded. Two factors were extracted one explaining 51.513% of the variance and the other 21.098% of the variance. The generation of a two-factor solutions suggests that

common method variance was not present.

Alternatively, as implemented by Mossholder, Bennett, Kemery, & Wesolowski, (1998), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used. In this method, all the independent variables (observed variables) modeled as the indicators of a perception on training programs (latent variable) entered the CFA model. CFA was performed in AMOS version 18. To test the fit and the adequacy of the confirmatory models, a number of model fit indices were used. First the χ^2 and degrees of freedom (df) are presented in conjunction with the χ^2 / df ratio. The χ^2 value 419.417 and χ^2 / df ratio is 15.534 which is indication of a non-acceptable fit. RMSEA is 0.264 which does not indicate acceptable fit. CFI is 0.646 which is again an indication of unacceptable fit. In addition to these indices, the RMR and GFI values are .093 and .641 respectively indicate the badness of fit. All these indices are selected because they are on the whole, stringent and robust enough to determine the adequacy of model fits (Fuchs, 2012).

The results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis suggest that the common method variance does not exist as the EFA results failed to extract one single factor that explains the covariance among the measures and CFA results indicate bad model fitness. Hence, the researcher believes that the potential problem of common method variance does not exist and the higher correlation is because of multi-collinearity. Therefore, author has taken measures to re-specify the conceptualized model by removing the variable that is in conflict with maximum number of variables. Accordingly, the variable Competence Development has been removed.

The Sections below presents the study of the objectives framed in the first chapter.

Objectives 1: To examine the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA.

This objective was studied using mean. The table 4.2 presents the mean, standard deviation and the inter-correlations among the study variables. On examination of the mean, it was found that the mean values range from a low of 2.37 on identification of training need and high of 3.69 for the perception on training design. The higher perception as indicated by mean value 3.69 suggests that the employees perceived that the best part of the training programs is the way it has been designed. This was followed by ‘relevance of the training’ (mean value = 3.67), ‘intention to participate’ (mean value = 3.66), ‘interaction in the training programs’ (mean value = 3.65), ‘quality of the training methods’ (mean value = 3.63), ‘competence development’ (mean value = 3.54), ‘clarity of objectives’ (mean value = 3.53), ‘credibility of the training program’ (mean value = 3.53), ‘performance improvement’ (mean value = 3.46), ‘behavioural modification’ (mean value = 3.45) and perception on ‘identification of training need’ (mean value = 2.37). A low value on identification of training need implies that the employees perceive that the training is not done consonant with the need of the employees. The mean value on perception on all issues of training programs suggests that the perception captured on 11 factors is not very high as the mean value has not breached the ‘4’ in the scale. Hence, employers are required to work on all the factors involved in this study and improve the perception of the employees on the training programs.

Objective 2: To study the difference in the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA

This objective is examined by testing the hypotheses developed in first chapter under the section ‘Research questions and hypothesis’. The technique used is MANOVA. To test the age difference between the test variables, this technique is selected over ANOVA because the multivariate formula for ‘ F – static’ was based not only on the sum of squares between and within groups as in ANOVA but also on the sum of cross products. That is, it takes covariance into account as well as group means among the dependent measures. Accordingly, the MANOVA model generated captures the perception difference across employees belonging to different age groups.

Hypothesis Testing

The following hypothesis is tested using MANOVA.

Testing of hypothesis 1

H₀1: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different age groups.

H₁1: There is a significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different age groups.

As mentioned above, the hypotheses are studied using MANOVA. The variables that entered the MANOVA model are age reported in categories, identification of training need, relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interactivity, credibility of content, quality of training methods, training design, intent to participate, behavioural modification and

performance improvement. The variable age reported in groups entered the model as a fixed factor and the remaining variables entered as dependent variables.

MANOVA produces four different test statistics namely, Pillai's trace, Roy's Greatest Root, Wilk's Lambda (λ), Hotelling-Lawley's trace, each with its own associated measure of F statistic. Hotelling's Trace is the most traditional and common test employed when the independent variable is formed of two groups. The most robust of all the four tests is Pillai's Trace since it is least sensitive to departures from the assumptions (Olson, 1976; Johnson, & Wichern, 2002). The most common and traditional test employed when independent variable is formed of more than two groups is Wilk's Lambda. Roy's Largest Root is seldom used. Table 4.3 presented below show that all four test statistics give identical F values. This is a significance feature of the MANOVA design developed by the researcher. Hence H_0 is supported.

Table. 4.3. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) between age groups and perception on training programmes

Effect	Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's Trace	.374	2.831	30.00	597.00	.000*
Age Wilks' Lambda	.654	3.002	30.00	578.910	.000*
Hotelling's Trace	.487	3.177	30.00	587.00	.000*
Roy's Largest Root	.388	7.719	10.00	199.00	.000*

* Significant at 0.05% level

The table IV.3 shows the results of the hypothesis test. To determine the significance of the omnibus test, taking the composite of all the variables under study, the researcher examined the F - static, and the significance value p . On examination of the table, it is found that F – static is significant at $p = 0.000$. This means, there is a significant difference on the perception on training programs across different age groups. Wilk’s Lambda = 0.654, $F(30, 578.910) = 3.002$, $p = 0.000 (< 0.05)$.

Since the results of the MANOVA are significant, the ‘Tests of Between Subjects Effects’ (univariate results) are examined to determine whether the independent variables (age) was significant for the perception on training programs. The tests of between subjects effects shown in table 4.4 show that null hypothesis was supported for relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interaction in the training programs and quality of training methods. Hence, perception on identification of identification of training need, credibility of the training programs, training design, intention to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement differ across age.

Further, on examination of the univariate descriptive results, shown in table 4.5, it was found that employees in the age group 20-30 have a higher perception followed by those in the 31-40, 51-60 and 41-50 age groups. Similarly, examination of the mean values across age groups on credibility of the training programs the perception was higher among the employees belonging to age group 51-60 followed by those in 41-50, 20-30 and 31-40. On examination of the perception on training design, the perception was higher among the employees belonging to 51-60 followed by those in the group 41-50, 31-40 and 20-30. On

Table. 4.4. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for perception on training programs and age

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Identification of training need	8.673 ^a	3	2.891	3.633	.014
	Relevance of the Training	2.904 ^b	3	.968	1.741	.160
	Clarity of Objectives	3.116 ^c	3	1.039	2.079	.104
	Interaction in the training programs	2.057 ^d	3	.686	.778	.507
	Credibility of the training program	6.094 ^e	3	2.031	3.225	.024
	Quality of Training Methods	2.971 ^f	3	.990	1.915	.128
	Training Design	9.585 ^g	3	3.195	6.221	.000
	Intention to participate	15.306 ^h	3	5.102	8.661	.000
	Behavioral Modification	9.661 ⁱ	3	3.220	6.441	.000
	Performance Improvement	43.553 ^j	3	14.518	20.957	.000

a. R Squared = .050 (Adjusted R Squared = .036)
 b. R Squared = .025 (Adjusted R Squared = .011)
 c. R Squared = .029 (Adjusted R Squared = .015)
 d. R Squared = .011 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003)
 e. R Squared = .045 (Adjusted R Squared = .031)

f. R Squared = .027 (Adjusted R Squared = .013)
 g. R Squared = .083 (Adjusted R Squared = .070)
 h. R Squared = .112 (Adjusted R Squared = .099)
 i. R Squared = .086 (Adjusted R Squared = .072)
 j. R Squared = .234 (Adjusted R Squared = .223)

* Significant at 0.05% level

examination of the perception on intention to participate, it was seen that the employees in the age group 51-60 reported higher perception followed by those in 41-50, 31-40 and 20-30 age

groups. On examination of the mean values across age groups on behavioural modification, employees in age group 51-60 reported higher perception followed by those in 41-50, 31-40 and 20-30.

The mean values across age groups on performance improvement indicate that employees in 51-60 group reported higher perception followed by those in 41-50, 31-40 and 20-30.

Table 4.5. Comparison of means between age and perception on training programs

Variables	Age	Mean	N
Identification of training need*	20 – 30	2.7292	32
	31 – 40	2.5198	59
	41 – 50	2.1667	54
	51 – 60	2.2462	65
	Total	2.3762	210
Relevance of the Training	20 – 30	3.4792	32
	31 – 40	3.5876	59
	41 – 50	3.8086	54
	51 – 60	3.7385	65
	Total	3.6746	210
Clarity of Objectives	20 – 30	3.3542	32
	31 – 40	3.4576	59
	41 – 50	3.5309	54
	51 – 60	3.6974	65
	Total	3.5349	210
Interaction in the training	20 – 30	3.6250	32

programs	31 – 40	3.5085	59
	41 – 50	3.7037	54
	51 – 60	3.7538	65
	Total	3.6524	210
<hr/>			
Credibility of the training	20 – 30	3.4167	32
program*	31 – 40	3.2994	59
	41 – 50	3.6543	54
	51 – 60	3.6923	65
	Total	3.5302	210
<hr/>			
Quality of Training Methods	20 – 30	3.6146	32
	31 – 40	3.4576	59
	41 – 50	3.6790	54
	51 – 60	3.7590	65
	Total	3.6317	210
<hr/>			
Training Design*	20 – 30	3.3359	32
	31 – 40	3.6102	59
	41 – 50	3.6806	54
	51 – 60	3.9731	65
	Total	3.6988	210
<hr/>			
Intention to participate*	20 – 30	3.3281	32
	31 – 40	3.5085	59
	41 – 50	3.5787	54
	51 – 60	4.0538	65
	Total	3.6679	210
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Behavioral Modification*	20 – 30	3.1042	32
	31 – 40	3.3333	59
	41 – 50	3.4506	54
	51 – 60	3.7282	65
	Total	3.4508	210
Performance Improvement*	20 – 30	2.7560	32
	31 – 40	3.2062	59
	41 – 50	3.4497	54
	51 – 60	4.0663	65
	Total	3.4664	210

* Significant at 0.05% level.

Testing of hypothesis 2:

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different levels of education attainment.

H₁2: There is significant difference in the perception on the training programs among the employees belonging to different levels of education attainment.

The above hypotheses are studied using MANOVA. The variables that entered the MANOVA model were education attainment captured in categories, identification of training need, relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interactivity, credibility of content, quality of training methods, training design, intent to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement. The variable education attainment entered the model as a fixed factor and the remaining variables entered as dependent variables. Wilk's Lambda was used as there were more than two groups formed by the independent variables.

Table. 4.6. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) between education attainment and perception on training programmes

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Education Pillai's Trace	.256	1.855	30.000	597.000	.004
Wilks' Lambda	.758	1.914	30.000	578.910	.003
Hotelling's Trace	.303	1.973	30.000	587.000	.002
Roy's Largest Root	.232	4.624	10.000	199.000	.000

* *Significant at 0.05% level*

The table.4.6 shows the results of the hypothesis test. To determine the significance of the omnibus test, taking the composite of all the variables, the researcher examined the F - static, and the significance value p . On examination of the table, it was found that F – static was significant at $p = 0.000$. This means, there was a significant difference on the perception on training programs across different education attainment. Wilk’s Lambda = 0.758, $F(30, 578.910) = 1.914, p = 0.003 (< 0.05)$.

Since the results of the MANOVA are significant, the ‘Tests of Between Subjects Effects’ (univariate results) were examined to determine whether the independent variables were significant for each of the perception on training programs. Table 4.7 shows the results of the tests of between subject effects. The tests of between subjects effects showed that null hypothesis has been supported for identification of training need, relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interaction in the training programs, credibility of the training program and quality of training methods.

Table. 4.7 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for perception on training programs and education attainment

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum		Mean		Sig.
		of Squares	df	Square	F	
Education	Identification of training need	4.362 ^a	3	1.454	1.780	.152
Attainment	Relevance of the Training	1.206 ^b	3	.402	.713	.545
	Clarity of Objectives	3.701 ^c	3	1.234	2.484	.062
	Interaction in the training programs	2.022 ^d	3	.674	.764	.515
	Credibility of the training program	4.458 ^e	3	1.486	2.330	.076
	Quality of Training Methods	2.129 ^f	3	.710	1.361	.256
	Training Design	6.613 ^g	3	2.204	4.174	.007
	Intention to participate	9.922 ^h	3	3.307	5.376	.001
	Behavioral Modification	7.460 ⁱ	3	2.487	4.869	.003
	Performance Improvement	30.957 ^j	3	10.319	13.688	.000

a. R Squared = .025 (Adjusted R Squared = .011) f. R Squared = .019 (Adjusted R Squared = .005)
b. R Squared = .010 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004) g. R Squared = .057 (Adjusted R Squared = .044)
c. R Squared = .035 (Adjusted R Squared = .021) h. R Squared = .073 (Adjusted R Squared = .059)
d. R Squared = .011 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003) i. R Squared = .066 (Adjusted R Squared = .053)
e. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = .019) j. R Squared = .166 (Adjusted R Squared = .154)

* Significant at 0.05% level

Hence, perception on training design, intention to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement differ across education attainment. Further, on examination of the univariate descriptive results, shown in table 4.8,

it has been found that employees who hold a college degree have a good perception on training design followed by those hold a diploma, have attended technical school and high school. Similarly, examination of the mean values across educational attainment on intention to participate in training programs the perception is higher among college degree holders followed by those who hold a diploma, have a certificate from technical school and high school.

On examination of the mean values across educational attainment on behavioral modification, it is seen that the perception is good among college degree holders followed by diploma holders, those who have attended technical school and high school. The mean values across educational attainment on performance improvement suggests that the perception on it is high among college degree holders followed by diploma holders, technical certificate holders and high school certificate holders.

Table 4.8 Comparison of means between education attainment and perception on training programs

Variables	Education	Mean	N
Identification of training need	High school	2.7193	19
	Technical school	2.4769	65
	Diploma	2.2954	79
	College	2.2340	47
	Total	2.3762	210

Relevance of the Training	High school	3.5439	19
	Technical school	3.5949	65
	Diploma	3.7384	79
	College	3.7305	47
	Total	3.6746	210
Clarity of Objectives	High school	3.2105	19
	Technical school	3.4872	65
	Diploma	3.5443	79
	College	3.7163	47
	Total	3.5349	210
Interaction in the training programs	High school	3.6842	19
	Technical school	3.5231	65
	Diploma	3.7595	79
	College	3.6383	47
	Total	3.6524	210
Credibility of the training program	high school	3.3509	19
	technical school	3.3538	65
	Diploma	3.6667	79
	College	3.6170	47
	High school	3.5302	210
Quality of Training Methods	Technical school	3.4561	19
	Diploma	3.5282	65
	College	3.7257	79
	Total	3.6879	47

	Total	3.6317	210
Training Design*	High school	3.3947	19
	Technical school	3.5538	65
	Diploma	3.7310	79
	College	3.9681	47
	Total	3.6988	210
Intention to participate*	High school	3.3816	19
	Technical school	3.4731	65
	Diploma	3.6867	79
	College	4.0213	47
	Total	3.6679	210
Behavioral Modification*	High school	3.0702	19
	Technical school	3.3282	65
	Diploma	3.4768	79
	College	3.7305	47
	Total	3.4508	210
Performance Improvement*	High school	2.7719	19
	Technical school	3.1681	65
	Diploma	3.5359	79
	College	4.0431	47
	Total	3.4664	210

* Significant at 0.05% level.

Testing of hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis given below is tested using MANOVA

H₀3: There is no significant difference in the perception on the training program among the employees belonging to different years of experience.

H₁3: There is a significant difference in the perception on the training programmes among the employees belonging to different years of experience.

The above hypotheses were studied using MANOVA. The variables that entered the MANOVA model were experience categorized into groups, identification of training need, relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interactivity, credibility of content, quality of training methods, training design, intent to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement. The variable experience entered the model as a fixed factor and the remaining variables entered as dependent variables.

Table 4.9. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) between experience and perception on training programmes

Effect	Value	Hypothesis				
		F	df	Error df	Sig.	
Experience in groups	Pillai's Trace	.376	2.065	40.000	796.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.659	2.164	40.000	745.064	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.465	2.263	40.000	778.000	.000
	Roy's Largest	.327	6.517	10.000	199.000	.000
	Root					

* *Significant at 0.05% level*

Wilk's Lambda was used as there were more than two groups formed by the independent variables. The table 4.9 shows the results of the hypothesis test. To determine the significance of the omnibus test, taking the composite of all the variables, the researcher examined the F - static, and the significance value p . On examination of the table, it was found that F – static was significant at $p = 0.000$.

Table. 4.10. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for perception on training programs and experience

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum		Mean		
		of Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.
Experience	Identification of training need	7.201 ^a	4	1.800	2.231	.067
	Relevance of the Training	4.707 ^b	4	1.177	2.140	.077
	Clarity of Objectives	3.374 ^c	4	.844	1.685	.155
	Interaction in the training programs	4.027 ^d	4	1.007	1.149	.335
	Credibility of the training program	3.520 ^e	4	.880	1.363	.248
	Quality of Training Methods	2.949 ^f	4	.737	1.418	.229
	Training Design	9.748 ^g	4	2.437	4.729	.001
	Intention to participate	13.019 ^h	4	3.255	5.397	.000
	Behavioral Modification	10.509 ⁱ	4	2.627	5.272	.000
	Performance Improvement	38.759 ^j	4	9.690	13.468	.000

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum		Mean		
		of Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.
Experience	Identification of training need	7.201 ^a	4	1.800	2.231	.067
	Relevance of the Training	4.707 ^b	4	1.177	2.140	.077
	Clarity of Objectives	3.374 ^c	4	.844	1.685	.155
	Interaction in the training programs	4.027 ^d	4	1.007	1.149	.335
	Credibility of the training program	3.520 ^e	4	.880	1.363	.248
	Quality of Training Methods	2.949 ^f	4	.737	1.418	.229
	Training Design	9.748 ^g	4	2.437	4.729	.001
	Intention to participate	13.019 ^h	4	3.255	5.397	.000
	Behavioral Modification	10.509 ⁱ	4	2.627	5.272	.000
	Performance Improvement	38.759 ^j	4	9.690	13.468	.000

a. R Squared = .042 (Adjusted R Squared = .023) f. R Squared = .027 (Adjusted R Squared = .008)
b. R Squared = .040 (Adjusted R Squared = .021) g. R Squared = .084 (Adjusted R Squared = .067)
c. R Squared = .032 (Adjusted R Squared = .013) h. R Squared = .095 (Adjusted R Squared = .078)
d. R Squared = .022 (Adjusted R Squared = .003) i. R Squared = .093 (Adjusted R Squared = .076)
e. R Squared = .026 (Adjusted R Squared = .007) j. R Squared = .208 (Adjusted R Squared = .193)

* Significant at 0.05% level

This means, there was a significant difference on the perception on training programs across experience. Wilk's Lambda = 0.659, $F(40, 745.064) = .2164$, $p = 0.000 (< 0.05)$.

Since the results of the MANOVA were significant, the ‘Tests of Between Subjects Effects’ (univariate results) were examined to determine whether the independent variables were significant for each of the perception on training programs. Table IV.10 shows the results of the tests of between subject effects.

The univariate results show that null hypothesis has been supported for identification of training need, relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interaction in the training programs, credibility of the training program and quality of training methods. Accordingly, perception on training design, intention to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement differ across education attainment.

Further, on examination of the univariate descriptive results, shown in table 4.11, it was found that employees with more than 21 years of experience had a higher perception on training design, intention to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement.

Table 4.11 Comparison of means across experience and perception on training programs

Variables	Experience in groups	Mean	N
Identification of training need	1 to 5 years	2.7207	37
	6 to 10 years	2.4405	56
	11 to 15 years	2.1905	49
	16 to 20 years	2.2431	48
	21 and above	2.3333	20
	Total	2.3762	210

Relevance of the	1 to 5 years	3.5045	37
Training	6 to 10 years	3.5655	56
	11 to 15 years	3.7891	49
	16 to 20 years	3.8750	48
	21 and above	3.5333	20
	Total	3.6746	210
Clarity of Objectives	1 to 5 years	3.4144	37
	6 to 10 years	3.4048	56
	11 to 15 years	3.5442	49
	16 to 20 years	3.7083	48
	21 and above	3.6833	20
	Total	3.5349	210
Interaction in the	1 to 5 years	3.7297	37
training programs	6 to 10 years	3.4821	56
	11 to 15 years	3.6327	49
	16 to 20 years	3.8542	48
	21 and above	3.5500	20
	Total	3.6524	210
Credibility of the	1 to 5 years	3.4144	37
training program	6 to 10 years	3.3988	56
	11 to 15 years	3.5306	49
	16 to 20 years	3.7222	48
	21 and above	3.6500	20
	Total	3.5302	210
Quality of Training	1 to 5 years	3.6216	37

Methods	6 to 10 years	3.4643	56
	11 to 15 years	3.6395	49
	16 to 20 years	3.7917	48
	21 and above	3.7167	20
	Total	3.6317	210
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Training Design*	1 to 5 years	3.3986	37
	6 to 10 years	3.5446	56
	11 to 15 years	3.7398	49
	16 to 20 years	3.9115	48
	21 and above	4.0750	20
Total	3.6988	210	
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Intention to participate*	1 to 5 years	3.4054	37
	6 to 10 years	3.4330	56
	11 to 15 years	3.6888	49
	16 to 20 years	3.9427	48
	21 and above	4.1000	20
Total	3.6679	210	
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Behavioral Modification*	1 to 5 years	3.1441	37
	6 to 10 years	3.2917	56
	11 to 15 years	3.5442	49
	16 to 20 years	3.5833	48
	21 and above	3.9167	20
Total	3.4508	210	
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Performance Improvement*	1 to 5 years	2.8288	37
	6 to 10 years	3.1884	56

11 to 15 years	3.5695	49
16 to 20 years	3.8646	48
21 and above	4.2167	20
Total	3.4664	210

* *Significant at 0.05% level.*

Testing of hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis given below is tested using MANOVA

H₀₄: There is no significant difference in the perception on the TNA among the employees belonging to different organisations.

H₁₃: There is a significant difference in the perception on the TNA among the employees belonging to different organisations.

The above hypotheses were studied using MANOVA. The variables that entered the MANOVA model were the 33 organisations coded from 1 to 33, identification of training need, relevance of the training, clarity of objectives, interactivity, credibility of content, quality of training methods, training design, intent to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement. The variable organisation entered the model as a fixed factor and the remaining variables entered as dependent variables. Wilk's Lambda was used as there were more than two groups formed by the independent variables.

Table. 4.12. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) between organisations and perception on TNA

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis		
			df	Error df	Sig.
Company Pillai's Trace	2.149	1.514	320.000	1770.000	.000
Wilks' Lambda	.072	1.614	320.000	1634.609	.000
Hotelling's Trace	3.359	1.745	320.000	1662.000	.000
Roy's Largest	1.359	7.515 ^b	32.000	177.000	.000
Root					

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept + Company

* Significant at 0.05% level

The table.4.12 shows the results of the hypothesis test. To determine the significance of the omnibus test, taking the composite of all the variables, the researcher examined the F - static, and the significance value p . On examination of the table, it was found that F – static was significant at $p = 0.000$. This means, there was a significant difference on the perception on training programs across experience. Wilk’s Lambda = 0.072, $F(320, 1634.609) = 1.614$, $p = 0.000 (< 0.05)$.

Since the results of the MANOVA were significant, the ‘Tests of Between Subjects Effects’ (univariate results) were examined to determine whether the independent variables were significant on the perception each of the TNA variables. Table 4.13 shows the results of the

tests of between subject effects.

Table. 4.13. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for perception on TNA among employees of different organizations

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Employees	Identification of training needs*	81.089 ^a	32	2.534	4.901	.000
	Relevance of the Training*	51.295 ^b	32	1.603	4.290	.000
	Clarity of Objectives*	49.069 ^c	32	1.533	4.766	.000
	Interaction in the training programs*	46.243 ^d	32	1.445	1.862	.006
	Credibility of the training program*	47.464 ^e	32	1.483	2.970	.000
	Quality of Training Methods*	40.595 ^f	32	1.269	3.258	.000
	Training Design*	31.697 ^g	32	.991	2.095	.001
	Intention to participate*	45.039 ^h	32	1.407	2.720	.000
	Behavioral Modification*	40.460 ⁱ	32	1.264	3.100	.000
	Performance Improvement*	56.060 ^j	32	1.752	2.382	.000
a. R Squared = .470 (Adjusted R Squared = .374)		f. R Squared = .371 (Adjusted R Squared = .257)				
b. R Squared = .437 (Adjusted R Squared = .335)		g. R Squared = .275 (Adjusted R Squared = .144)				
c. R Squared = .463 (Adjusted R Squared = .366)		h. R Squared = .330 (Adjusted R Squared = .208)				
d. R Squared = .252 (Adjusted R Squared = .117)		i. R Squared = .359 (Adjusted R Squared = .243)				
e. R Squared = .349 (Adjusted R Squared = .232)		j. R Squared = .301 (Adjusted R Squared = .175)				

* Significant at 0.05% level

The univariate results show that alternate hypothesis has been supported for all the variables

that entered the MANOVA model. Accordingly, H14 was supported for all the variables. Further, on examination of the univariate descriptive results were not shown in the report in order to limit the size of the chapter.

Objective 3: To study the relationship between the perception on training programs in family-owned business firms in the KSA and intent to participate in the training programs.

This objective was examined by testing the fourth hypotheses developed in the first chapter under the section ‘Research questions and hypothesis’ using multiple regression. To establish the relationship between perception on training programs and intent to participate in the training programs, the perception on the training programs entered the regression model as independent variables and intent to participate as dependent variables.

Table 4.14. Regression results showing perception on training programs predicting intent to participate

Variables	Standardized Coefficients	
	Beta	Sig.
Identification of training need*	.137	.006
Relevance of the Training	.045	.397
Clarity of Objectives*	.141	.009
Interaction in the training programs	.005	.900
Credibility of the training program	-.006	.888
Quality of Training Methods	-.023	.612
Training Design*	.301	.000
Behavioral Modification*	.464	.000
Performance Improvement*	.161	.002

Adjusted R² = .797; F = 92.260; P < 0.05

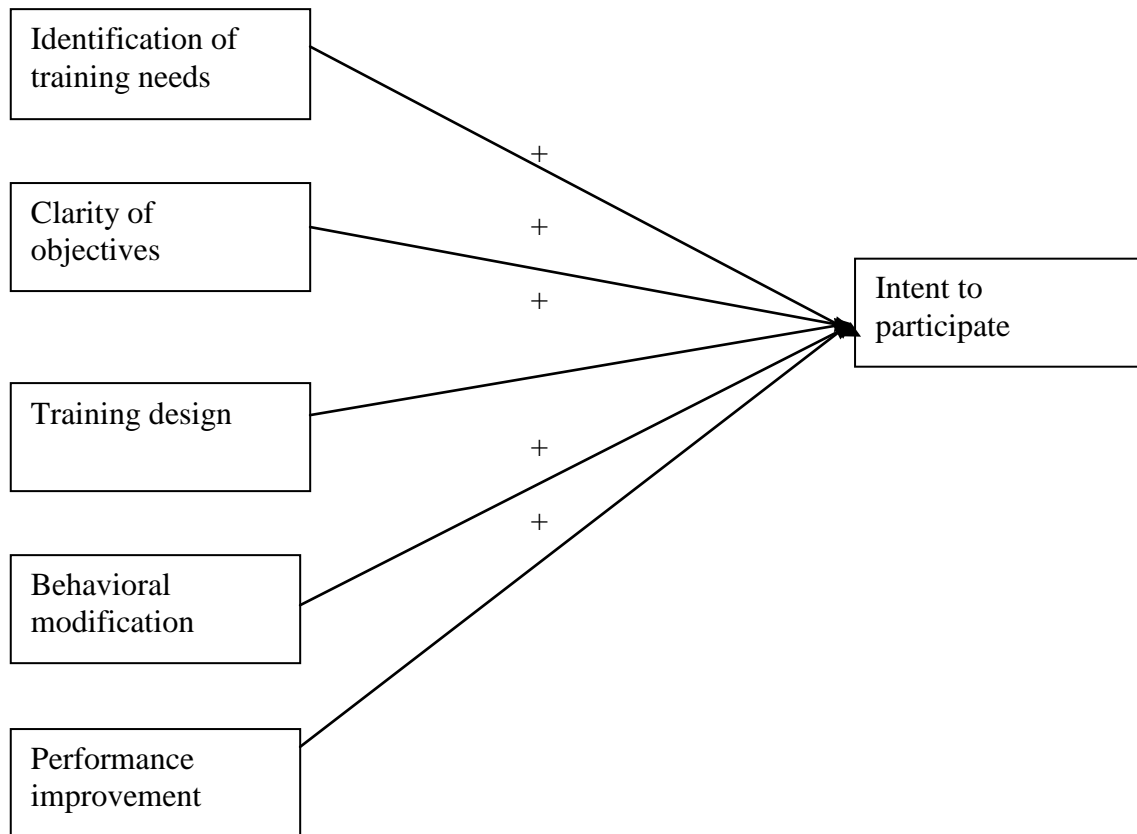
** Significant at 0.05 level.*

The table 4.14 reports the regression results for intent to participate. The adjusted R² for the regression model was found to be 0.797. This indicated that, 79.7% of the variation in the dependent variable intent to participate was explained by the perception on training programs captured using the nine factors. This regression model resulted in the ANOVA which was reported by F – ratio = 92.260 ($p < 0.005$). This indicated that the regression model is fit.

On examination of the standardised beta coefficients, it was found that all the perception on identification of training need, clarity of objectives, training design, behavioural modification and performance improvement significantly influence intent to participate. The statistical significance was found to be positively related. It implied that the intent to participate in the future training programs was influenced by the perception on identification of training need, clarity of objectives, training design, behavioural modification and performance management.

Based on the results of the data collected using a structured questionnaire, the researcher proposes the following model on ‘Intent to participate in training programs’. The model implies that greater the perception that the training program is conducted after comprehensively identifying the needs, modifies behavior, improves performance, has clarity of objectives and has an effective design higher is the intent to participate in future training programs

Figure 4.1. Model linking perception on training programs and intent to participate



Semi-structured Interviews with HR Managers

After the initial survey questionnaire, the next round of data were collected through detailed and conversational interviews with each of the HR managers polled. In the initial round of interviews, the HR managers agreed to take part in a detailed interview of up to one hour each. These interviews entailed significant and detailed questions that were asked using the semi-structured approach. After the analysis of these detailed interviews, as well as the survey discussed above, the researcher conducted a second round of informal or conversational interviews. By using a refinement strategy and analysing the interviews as they took place, the researcher was able to continually improve the questions that were asked and determine how these responses could be improved. The results of the interviews are presented below, organized around the themes and questions that emerged from the

questionnaires and interviews that were conducted for this study.

Aligning Management Training with Strategic Goals

In order for management training to be aligned with overall business goals, it is critical that one understand the overall strategic goals and outcomes. This was an important aspect of the research because of the connections between managerial job performance and the strategic performance of the organization as shown in the literature. They developed specific job requirements by keeping in view their defined strategy for the following three to five years. The knowledge, skills and attitude for most of the jobs were not well defined. About one third of the participants stated or agreed that the key determining factors, when selecting training topics and aligning the required KSAs with business objectives, were whether the strategic goals matched the specific management training requirements.

Some of the comments from interview participants that supported this view are as follows: “The pattern of the job requirements should depict the business strategies of the company which needs to aligned with training programs”; “The quality of service that company offer reflects the image of organization”; “The same thing is expected from the employees, and if they are able to reflect the same picture of the company to the customers then it will assure strategic fitment and alignment”; “Our company sets specific targets for our employees to achieve every year, and it is the part of the company’s strategy to pattern the job specifications in the similar way”; “We try to make sure that our hiring of managers is not just serving the needs of today’s organization, but that it is also looking into the future. This means that we need to hire for strategic growth as well as today’s needs. We cannot afford to ignore today’s needs, however, so we cannot hire those that only show potential without current skills. It is a balance between today’s needs and tomorrow’s” and finally, “The top

leaders in our organization set our strategic goals and they also set the requirements for hiring. This means that there is a match between strategic goals and job requirements.”

A few of the managers shared that their organizations did not construct their job requirements on the basis of the strategic thrust of the organization. However, according to the managers, these organizations did specify job requirements on the basis of the organization’s current needs. These respondents also indicated that there were issues with the differing sources of job requirements, with some hiring managers being more consistent about the specification of job requirements than others. Around two thirds of the respondents indicated that the immediate needs of the organization (or other factors such as designing a job for a specific candidate) played more of a role in the specification of job requirements than the development of a specific strategic thrust. Two of the comments from the interviews that supported this view are as follows: “The other factors are more important than the strategic thrust of the organization. Every workforce deals with the issue in their specific department. The company deals with other issues and problems. So, it should not be considered that strategic thrust of the organization is important for the job specifications”;and, “Although upper management claims that we hire for strategic goals, we actually do not. Managers are hired for the current needs and issues that are faced, or sometimes for other reasons like political or family reasons. This is not in line with HR practice, but it is how management chooses to set its requirements and make its hiring decisions. We are a small group of only two people and have not yet persuaded them to make their decisions in some other way.”

The researcher inferred that strategic alignment is very critical for training requirements. The organizations with a large number of employees and with large HR

departments designed good programs through an adequate TNA process, which in turn led to better alignment and integration of training needs. The researcher further found that organizational, task, and person-level analysis is required in order to have effective training design and delivery. Finally, the results suggested that organizations need to plan for both short-term and long-term business goals, which are to be aligned with training goals and objectives.

Aligning Training with Customer Needs

Customer orientation was considered to be one of the strategic thrusts that might be thought about in the hiring and training process. To determine whether this was an issue, questions about considering the needs of customers in establishing job requirements (and how this might be done) were asked of formal and informal interviewees. The results were very interesting in that customer needs were not considered to be a major part of the hiring practice. Around 27% of the interviewees revealed that they did not take into account the needs of the customers when filling the managerial positions or constructing the job specifications. Some of the interviewees suggested that customers do not work in line with the needs of the company. Considering customer needs when developing job descriptions can potentially lead to distortions in this process and can prevent the organization from hiring employees that best fill organizational needs.

A few of the responses indicated that the senior management, rather than the HR function, was responsible for determining whether the consideration of customer needs should be included in setting job requirements. This was echoed by around 10 of the interviewees. One of the interviewees indicated that customer needs were better met by enacting organizational strategies, which were determined with the needs of customers in

mind, so customer needs were indirectly considered, but that these issues were not directly considered at the time of hiring. These responses were particularly common in the manufacturing industry sector firms (especially chemicals and other non-consumer items). Some of the comments that were made that support this view include the following: “It depends on the visions and goals set by the senior management of the organization to consider them or not”; “If we consider the customer needs, then our previous experience suggests negative results. In the end, the employees chosen for the post were not effective for that position at all. The error that was noted in the case was the consideration of the customer needs when recruiting a person for managerial position”; “We consider the needs of the company rather than the customer needs. This is because needs of the customer change with time and customer, so it is not reliable to choose the manager on the basis of any customer needs”; “Our strategic goals are set with the customer in mind, which means that we do not need to specifically consider the customer needs when we hire”; and finally, “Most of our managerial jobs are more involved with the internal organization instead of customer-facing positions, so we hire with internal customers but do not consider the external customers. We can serve them best by hiring for internal effectiveness.”

About 44% of the interviewees shared that their organizations did take into account the needs of the customers when developing the job specifications for managerial positions. These participants in the study believed that customers are really an important part of the business development, and taking their needs into account is not only an effective step towards development, but also helps in improving the quality of services offered by the company to the customers. This response shows a very different orientation to the customer that may reflect different industry standards as well as the goals of the organization, which may be associated with industry (especially consumer foods such as food and textile). Some

of the comments that expressed this view included the following: “The needs of the customers and their requirements are being listened to first by the HR department before adding or removing any requirements from the post”; “The back bone of any organization is its customer, so we should take into account his needs and considerations before posting any job specifications for the post of manager”; “Of course, customers are our leaders who direct us in the specific direction. Without fulfilling their needs, how can we move forward? We work for the clients and therefore, it is very important for the growth of our organization to set the job requirements based on their needs”; “We identify the basic factors that are significant from our customers and can affect our business greatly. Using this, we formulate our job specifications that meet the needs of the customers also”; and finally, “Our customers are our ultimate reason for being here and so of course we hire with them in mind.”

The customer’s needs are very important for business growth, and indeed, it is the customers who are the key stakeholders in a business. From the results of this study, it can be inferred that customer needs are not very well aligned for about 50% of the selected sample. This finding suggests that the needs of customers can be better integrated into hiring decisions at the managerial level. It could be further concluded that training must be aligned with customer needs if that training is to be maximally effective.

Job Requirements and Shareholder and Owner Interests

Another area for discussion is whether shareholder interests determined the outcome of job requirements establishment. Fully around 87% of them agreed that the concerns of shareholders had no impact in developing the job requirements for a managerial post. Most argued that a concern for the desires of shareholders was even less important than the needs of clients, as shareholders are farther removed from daily operations as compared with

clients. So, shareholders' needs are the least prioritized among all the factors used in the development and construction of the job requirements. Some of the comments that supported this position included the following: "It is not important for the company to consider the shareholder's needs. They are not considered as the customers and have no or zero impact on the performance of the company"; "the priority of the customers is greater than shareholders because they have very little effect on the business, and also their needs do not affect the requirements of the job"; and finally, "The shareholders bring money but they do not provide any specific input into the business. We do not consider their needs when thinking about how the organization needs to be structured."

The remaining 13% of interviewees said that they did consider shareholders in the list of factors for the development of job requirements. Some members said that shareholders were extensions of clients and could be considered similar to the customers in that they brought cash into the company. A few of their comments were as follows: "Although shareholders are far beyond the customers, but they bring money for the company, so they should be considered when developing the job specifications. Business needs money and every factor counts to improve quality of service and performance"; "Shareholders are also part of company similar to customers as they are extensions of customers. They are also an important factor for the growth of the company"; and finally, "Although shareholders do not have a direct impact on the day to day operations of the company; we do have a fiduciary duty to them to make sure the company does as well as possible. So we do need to consider their needs when we hire."

About 19% of the participants in the sample were the founders or owners of their organizations, so in the interviews, the researcher sought to understand whether there was a

difference between a single owner and a shareholder group. It was inferred that contrary to the position of shareholders, owner interests were considered to be very important by these respondents. Some of the respondents indicated that since the owner set the job requirements in many cases. It was also found that the owner's interests were already inherent in the hiring process and job description process. Half of the selected sample indicated more indirect methods for considering the owner's requirements, like that strategic goals were set by the owner's interests and these interests also drove job requirements. Some of the comments were as follows: "The owner sets all the job requirements, so his interests are already included in the process. We hire based on those requirements";and "The owner's interests and the company's interests are aligned, so it makes sense that these requirements determine how we hire managers and what our requirements for these managers are."From the comments above, it can be concluded that the shareholders and owners play an important role in the organization as far as their training requirements are concerned.

Matching Applicants and Job Descriptions

It is obvious that TNA does not stop with the establishment of job requirements for a given position. Instead, leaders in the organization need to consider how managerial position applications are actually matched to job descriptions. Participants in the interviews were asked how they determined whether a given applicant was suitable to the managerial position based on the job descriptions that were developed. Fully 90% managers interviewed during interviews described a similar approach to the hiring process. They reported that the CV was the first thing submitted by the people interested in the position. After that, a written test and interview would be conducted, with the contents based on the formulation of the requirements. Specific results had to be achieved by the applicant in the written test and interview in order to help the company determine the suitability of any applicant for the job

post, although the specific requirements of the organization may vary. In the remaining cases, interviewees said that they used recruitment offices for applicants, where interviews and tests could be conducted, but in other cases, interviewees indicated that they personally recruited applicants or used recruitment strategies like advertisements to seek out applicants.

For higher-level positions, the quality of the recruitment process is very important; without a rigorous recruitment process, it is uncertain whether the applicant is able to perform the required tasks, or has the abilities to lead the company. However, the interviewees were split as to whether they used recruitment agencies (who could more carefully screen and select applicants) or targeted recruitment of known potential candidates for these high-level and important positions. Some of the supporting comments were as follows: “Yes, CV, written test, and interviews are enough for us to judge them”; “This is the basic thing. Companies always look for highly professional people for the post of manager and similar posts. So, if the customer is fulfilling the job specifications, then he must be capable of handling it”; “Every person for the same position is accessed in the same way as it s universal truth”, “For the manager’s post, highly professional recruiters and international people are deployed who can access them in the better way because we want only those people who can give benefit to the company.”

While these responses were interesting, the researcher was more interested in the conflict between these comments and some of the implications of the previous questions, which suggested that hiring was sometimes done on the basis other than skills or requirements. Some of the comments that were made in this case included the following: “We have job requirements and most of the hiring we do is in line with the job requirements we set using a process of screening CVs and matching skills and requirements. The

requirements may be changed to meet the skills of the applicant or in a few cases the requirements may simply be ignored. This is because the owner has the final say on both the job description and the hiring process. We try, but ultimately he makes the decision”; and “We do not like to talk about it and it is not in our formal procedures, but we have been overridden by upper management to hire managers that were not suited to the job description for whatever reason. I do not believe it worked out well.”

These results suggest that there is not a significant conflict between the use of formal hiring requirements and the interests of owners or upper managers in the organization. Even in cases where HR managers admitted that there was a gap, the process of matching formal requirements was followed most of the time. However, that there is an occasional mismatch does suggest that the hiring requirements are not as firmly set as might be suggested by best practices. The existence of two companies that used at least occasional overrides of the requirements-matching process also suggests that there might be a gap in other companies’ hiring practices as well, which these companies were reluctant to disclose despite anonymity because it would not put their companies in the best light. This is a very important consideration and one that should be examined in more detail.

Training and Development Programs and Job Requirements

TNA is fundamentally about the creation of training and development programs based on the needs of the organization. With this in mind, the researcher asked the interviewees whether they constructed training and development programs based directly on pre-set job requirements as discussed above. Fully 85% of managers indicated that they required ten to fifteen years of experience for any managerial position. Because of this, they did not conduct any long-term training after hiring new managers. Some participants did indicate that they

might conduct training based on specific job requirements in accordance with industry change. Indeed, 15% indicated that their firms designed and executed training programs depending on the specifications of the job and the needs of the applicant/s. Some of the companies offered one-year training programs, while others conducted training for six months or so. However, the participants all expressed the view that training is essential for the proper understanding of a job's specifications, as well as for the development of the skills required in the new workers, regardless of the prior experience of the manager.

These different views could significantly influence how an organization treats training and management. Some of the relevant comments were as follows: "It is not necessary to conduct a special training program for the new workers because there is no correlation between job performance and job training"; "Training program is designed to understand the basics of the work, and it is totally misleading to consider it for experienced and higher posts. When a person works with an organization he will understand more about his job and his interest is a required element for proper understanding"; "One year training program is necessary for our new employees to increase the consistency in their work and to improve the quality of services. Good companies ensure good training programs and in most of the cases, these training programs become an important part of the job"; "Sometimes, the specifications mentioned in the job poster are less and more training is needed for the specific position. A good organization knows the importance of training foundation for the new workers."

These comments illustrate the role that training played in hiring the candidate who was the right fit and providing that person with the required competencies to excel.

Re-evaluation of Managers Based on Job Requirements

Obviously, the need to train a manager does not stop when the manager is hired. Given this fact, the researcher asked the HR managers whether they re-evaluate current managers on job requirements after hiring, and if so why they do or do not do so. A majority of 75% of interviewees said they re-evaluate managers after hiring. The remaining 25% of interviewees strongly denied the re-evaluation of the already-hired managers. A few of them consider letting managers free after their contracts expired, but others wanted to re-train them so that the company could benefit from their experience. However, companies did not re-evaluate skills and experience based on a desire to re-train managers.

In a few cases, interviewees made statements about the importance of re-evaluation not for current job requirements, but for future requirements, based on an assessment of the organization's needs moving forward. However, the interviewees clearly noted that this was a developmental assessment, rather than something that they based employment decisions on. Some of the supporting statements were as follows: "Time and things always change. It is necessary to update the company by considering new faces for new posts and re-evaluate the older ones if they are not meeting the job specifications"; "The proper growth of the company depends on its workers and clients. Every year re-evaluation of the members of the company helps the company to increase the performance and quality of service so that they can withstand against the competitors"; "The better way is to let the managers of the company to work until their contract ends. They got in the job with the specifications and it is unfair to let them out before the completion of their contract"; "The regular evaluation of employees is must as per rules of our company. Managers are also employees of the company. So, their re-evaluation is also conducted and if they are not meeting the specifications of the job, they should be replaced with the new managers"; "We re-evaluate managers not to make hiring or

firing decisions, but to make sure that their skills are still up to date and can meet the requirements of the company. This means that the managers are being continually re-evaluated to make sure that we do not need to offer more training. This is especially important with technology-related skills, because they change so rapidly that some of our managers have trouble keeping up sometimes”; and finally, “We do not need to fire managers who do not meet job requirements if we re-evaluate them, though we might not renew their contracts if they continually fail to meet requirements. We do evaluate managers constantly on performance and skills to make sure they are keeping up with what we need.”

These statements suggested that re-evaluation is important for the future alignment of organizational needs. It can be further inferred that it is necessary to re-evaluate training needs for managers every alternative year considering the business scenario changes. This re-evaluation will help organizations to better align their management training as a function and will contribute to performance effectiveness.

The Influence of the Competitive Environment

In the survey results, analysis of the competitive environment was considered to be one of the least important uses of training program designed after a strong TNA. This suggests that the external competitive environment is not a major factor in how companies use TNA and analysis and development of either job requirements or training programs. To examine this in more detail, the researcher asked about the importance of standards used by other companies and what influence this had on their own company’s standards. Sixty-two per cent of interviewees felt that the consideration of business competition and competitors affected the standards of their respective organizations. Some of the members also stated that considering the standards of the other companies for the development of job specifications

help them to grow equally. This competitive environment meant that these companies had a significant emphasis placed on their job requirements and their training and development practices. About 20% shared that they attributed moderate importance to analysing the competition when designing and delivering training. The remaining 18% of interviewees stated that their firms did not take into account the importance of other companies in increasing the standards and development of the job specifications. Some of the comments were as follows: “Competition is an important factor to be considered for the proper development and increasing performance of any business in the current competitive world. So, we have to consider the standards set by our competitors to develop specific job requirements”; “Standards set by other companies may be lower than our standards. So, we consider ourselves to be on the top of the table. Therefore, it is not important for us to consider the other company’s standards”; “Our company has its own strategy. Whatever the action we take, it reflects our vision”; “The inconsistency and weak standards of other companies realize us not to consider them and deploy our own vision and standards. So, it is important for us to improve our quality and performance rather than looking at other standards.”

These statements suggested that a competitive environment affects the training function, and that, it is therefore important benchmarking one’s standards with those of competitors. It can be further inferred that it is import to understand and align the training with the newer and future trends of competition and thereby make managers competition-ready.

Clearer and Stricter Job Specifications

Given the connection between TNA and job requirements, one might be tempted to conclude that there would be a complementary relationship between job requirements and training and development, so that increasing job requirements would cause a demand for better training and development opportunities. However, this expectation was not borne out by the interviews conducted for this study. Eighty per cent of the respondents reported that they did not see a direct correlation between their training programs and their job requirements or job development program. Many of the respondents expressed that it is important to have better and more specific job specifications. Some of the comments to that effect are as follows: “Our company improves the training programs with the job specifications. The clearer and specific the specifications, better workers join our team and improved training programs will be provided”; “With the new and strict job requirements, our company will not construct the training program. It is our workers who need to be efficient and quick learner”; “Training systems are not designed or strict job specifications. They only teach the basics. So, good training programs or enhanced training sessions are not necessary for the development of strict job requirements”; and finally, “Our training programs are designed to meet specific changing organizational needs, and managers are expected to meet the requirements of their job when they are hired.”

These statements suggested that most of the firms did not have very clear and strict job specifications. It could be further inferred that it is important to have clear job specifications or at least to review them over time in order to ensure alignment with the management training. The increasingly strict specifications provide a benefit by differentiating star and poor performers and by making training programs that fit people with different characteristics.

Meeting Job Demands

Although in most cases, managers are hired to meet job requirements at the time of hiring, there is of course no guarantee that the incumbent manager will continue to meet these requirements in future. This failure could be caused either by a change in job requirements following re-evaluation (which is relatively rare, but can happen when a position is redefined to account for needs that are expected to emerge) or because the manager simply does not deliver the performance expected. Formal interview participants were asked what actions were taken in the case of incumbent managers who do not meet the job requirements set out in their job description. Fifty per cent of the formal interview respondents felt that managers if they were not meeting the standards and job specifications set out in their job description, they should be fired quickly or their contracts should not be renewed. In contrast, 29% of respondents suggested assigning these managers to different post in the same company, whether lower or similar to the current post, with job requirements they were capable of meeting. Twenty-one per cent of interviewees suggested that actions like training or retraining, using salary incentives or lowering salaries, removing perks or privileges in the company, or offering another chance to improve their performance was an approach used in their organizations.

The responses to these questions indicated that overall, managers were expected to perform at an appropriate level, and there was very little enthusiasm for the idea of offering training support to underperforming managers. This suggests that retraining or managerial training and development for underperforming managers (as opposed to skills enhancement) is not strongly used in the Saudi manager-training environment. Some of the comments were as follows: “We do not want incompetent managers. We straight away fire them because they are the people who are responsible for our lower standards”; “I want to give a chance to

those managers to improve their performance. If they prove their abilities, I will continue with them or offer them another post in which he is comfortable”; “Managers are hired on the basis of specifications. I will warn them by lowering their salary, and will see the results. If the results are same, then I will fire them”; and finally, “I will like to reconsider the facilities like medical and health facilities to the manager and ask him to improve his performance. Till then all these facilities are closed.”

One of the respondents stated, “We usually have a policy that if a manager is not performing we will fire them or refuse to renew their contract. There have been times though, where one manager has had support higher up in the company. These managers are not usually fired, but are moved instead, retrained, or their performance is just ignored. Most of the time this is just overlooked because we know that the company owner or top managers are not going to let anything else happens, no matter what the rules are usually. This causes some frustration in the HR team, but there is little we can do about it. The firing power rests ultimately with the line managers.”

A few more responses were as follows: “We provided opportunities to improve through imparting training in order to help them to come up to the required level of performance standards”; “Training may help them to quickly improve few skills sets”; and finally, “Training is integral part of our company and no one is fired unless he has been given fair chance to perform.”

These statements suggested mixed feelings among HR managers about the utility of management training for quick job demands. They agreed that training is helpful to enhance and sharpen selected skills but that it cannot act as quick fix.

Summary of Results and Findings

This section summarized the results and findings of the study.

The quantitative values as represented by the mean were very low on each of the 11 factors used to capture the perception on the training programs. It is very important to consider the activities of these family-owned firms businesses in relation to training and skills development. If policy makers are to succeed in ensuring that the skills that the economy requires, then strategies are needed to promote and encourage family-owned business owners and HR Members to invest in training programs and ensure that the training programs are well designed. The TNA should draw cues from the job description and specification. The hypotheses testing have clearly shown the attention has to be paid on each demographic group as they make significant differences in the design & delivery of training effectiveness. An absence of this may indicate absence of aspiration to grow their business. The opportunities for an integrated and flexible delivery of training that include virtual training methods are increasingly becoming possible and more attractive with the advent and the rapid expansion of information technology.

Based on the analysis of the qualitative data, the researcher proposes the following model

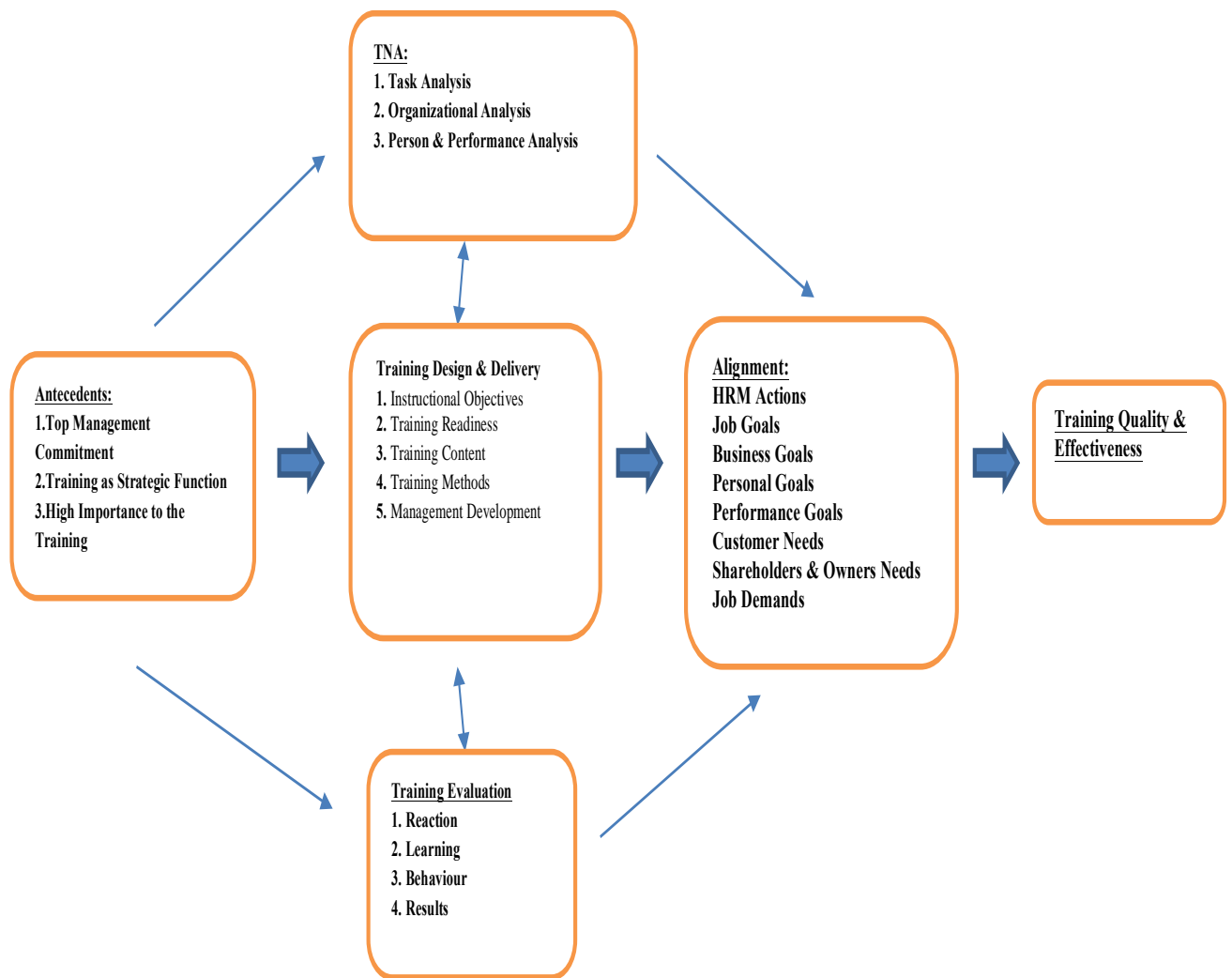


Figure 4.2 Proposed Model for Training in Family-owned Firms in the KSA

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion and implications

This section discusses the major findings of the research. It discussed the results generated from the quantitative data collected from the employees as well the qualitative data collected from the HR managers using a semi-structured questionnaire. The introduction chapter as well as the review of literature provided a strong accumulated and ample evidence to show that training programs are an important and pervasive phenomenon in family owned business organizations in Saudi Arabia. The discussion in the chapter revolves around the HRM concerns including robust TNA, conduct of the training programs, intention to participate in training programs in the future. It further discusses the HRM interventions that might make training better aligned and more effective.

The following section presents the discussion of the results of the semi-structure interview with the HR managers before collection of data from the employees.

Robust TNA

In the results of this study, there was little to suggest that the organisations being studied were using TNA to its full effect for management training. Granted, there was evidence in the qualitative study that organisations did use TNA effectively for individual analysis (especially in the form of a performance evaluation and personal analysis), as well as using it to identify group issues and training issues. However, the evidence that TNA was used effectively for job design and job requirements was weaker. (Some firms indicated they did use TNA and many others indicating that they received job requirements based on top management input). According to the qualitative study, formal TNA practices were more commonly used in medium rather than small organisations. Job analysis was a common

focus of TNA, while personal analysis was less common and more fragmented, focused more on performance weakness and improving competence than on meeting future needs. In terms of recruitment practice, the tools were generally limited to the application process (which mostly centred on a CV, but which also included interviews and written tests when direct applicants were being considered). The respondents were clear that these tools provided enough information for them to evaluate whether a candidate fit the job specification.

The findings of the qualitative study suggested that the use of TNA was most important for aspects of managerial outcomes such as time management, social responsibility, and technical aspects of the manager's job, while areas that might be considered leadership or managerial responsibility (such as being more effective, coaching and training others, taking initiatives, and creating vision) were not seen as areas for TNA. This strongly suggests that while TNA was being used for operational aspects of the manager's duties, or areas that may be less familiar such as corporate social responsibility training, there was little use of TNA for the development of leadership or strategic skills. Similarly, TNA was seen as being moderately useful for internal environmental analysis and external analysis. Another area where TNA was supported was most of the factors in performance evaluation (including identifying gaps in knowledge or skills and analysing the training process itself), as well as individual analysis to some extent. The findings of the qualitative study did suggest that firms were moderately likely to focus on managerial leadership skills (although this finding conflicts with the ranking of importance of TNA areas). All organisations did offer training, but further analysis in the interviews indicated that few companies actually offered training at the managerial level. Overall, the findings suggested that when organisations did use TNA, it was applied in a patchy and incompletely way, often focused only on certain types of employees or workers.

The failure to use TNA effectively could have serious implications for the organisations in this study. As Moore and Dutton (1978) observed in their original discussion of the practice, TNA provided the foundation for the effective design of training programs, allowing training resources to be assigned sensibly and in line with the strategic priorities of the firm and the needs of the workforce. TNA also served to identify training needs within the organisation, which could not be done effectively without a systematic approach to determining how these needs should be met (Bowman and Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, the use of TNA allows for identification of the gap between the current state of the firm and what it could potentially achieve with improved training (Iqbal and Khan, 2011). This means that there is a need to implement TNA systematically throughout an organisation, not just at one level or another, in order for it to be effective. The firms in question could dramatically improve their outcomes if they were to use TNA from the organisational to the individual level, rather than picking and choosing only a few levels at which to address their efforts. Of course, an organization must select priorities, which could particularly be important for smaller firms, who might have only one or two HRM personnel to deal with training issues. Thus, even though the literature suggests a systematic, whole-organisation approach to the use of TNA, it should be recognised that this might not be possible.

One area that the firms did seem to grasp was the use of TNA in three stages, including needs identification, training, and post-training evaluation (Witkin and Altshuld, 1995). This is important because it promotes the effectiveness of training by identifying gaps and difficulties as well as successes. However, in terms of the resources available to train, another important factor that can be found in the literature is that it is not the case that every training need has to be met with training (Iqbal and Khan, 2011). As Iqbal and Khan (2011) noted, just because there is a gap that could be described as a training need, this does not

mean that the gap is important enough to be addressed through training. Some training needs can remain unmet because they are of lower priority, because they can be met at a future date, or because they can be met in a modified fashion.

Instead of trying to address all needs through training, managers should assign priority to potential training needs based on operational gaps, or areas where the firm is not performing as well as it should or could due to a lack of training (Bee and Bee, 2003). For example, if a manager does not understand the financial aspects of his role, then this should probably be addressed with training because this issue could influence the performance of the firm; but if, on the other hand, the issue is merely that the manager is not as inspirational as might be desirable, this lack does not necessarily need to be addressed through training. Prioritizing in this way can help small firms as they decide upon their training requirements, especially because, even following the completion of a TNA process, there is no need to conduct training for every gap that is found. The gaps found in TNA do not necessarily need to be met with training or simply ignored. Assessment consists of several elements, including “mission and/or goal, systems design, motivation, capability, and expertise” (McClernon, 2006, p. 444). Sometimes the gaps found by TNA can also be addressed through means like technological innovation (such as implementing new systems or making changes to existing systems in order to improve performance) or refined job requirements (to improve initial hiring practices), offering the opportunity to integrate TNA into more general HRM practices and the strategic direction of the firm (McClernon, 2006; Reed and Vakola, 2006).

At the same time, however, TNA cannot be fully effective in all cases. One particular case where TNA may be less effective is where the firm’s focus is on continuous improvement (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1998, Chiva *et al.*, 2010, McKelvie and Davidsson,

2009, Mohrman and Worley, 2009, Newey and Zahra, 2009, Taylor *et al.*, 2010). This focus on continuous improvement means that training gaps are a moving target, as the firm constantly revises its operations in order to improve efficiency. Using task-focused TNA, rather than results-focused TNA, can be one way for the firm focused on continuous improvement to realise the benefits of TNA, since this changes the emphasis from a direct connection to an indirect connection between training and performance (Taylor *et al.*, 1998). It is also necessary that TNA be aligned to the organisation's goals and strategies in order to make sure that the findings are reasonable (Iqbal and Khan, 2011).

In summary, the results and the literature suggest that there are many different ways in which that the firms in this study could improve their performance. They could implement TNA more thoroughly; shift their emphasis from results to tasks, from mere training to a combination of training, technology, and job requirements; and by prioritising the training needs that are most in line with the organisation's goals and strategies.

Lack of Emphasis on Managerial Training

Overall, the findings illustrated a fairly moderate attitude toward the use of training in the organisations, despite the nominal statements in the qualitative study that firms do engage in training. When queried about managerial training, respondents indicated that training was not considered to be part of the normal practice for managers. Instead, it was suggested that managers should be hired already knowing what they needed to know, and that they should learn the specifics of their roles through informal on-the-job training. In fact, a few respondents seemed to respond with animosity or even hostility to the idea of offering managers training at all. A few firms indicated they hired only highly experienced managers and offered no additional training (although, depending on the firm, there might be sporadic

training based on industry changes or long-term needs).

Resistance to training and lack of recognition of its importance is not uncommon in organisations (Bowman and Wilson, 2008). However, this does not mean that this attitude does not need to be overcome. The general refusal of the idea that managers might require training runs a serious risk of reducing the operational performance and strategic flexibility of the firm. A well-trained and empowered workforce serves as a significant source of competitive advantage for the firm, offering a resource that cannot be easily replicated by rival firms (Purcell, & Hutchinson, 2007; Lockett *et al.*, 2007). This is particularly important at the managerial level, where an organisation's employees are making significant operational and strategic decisions that influence the current and future performance of the firm. Furthermore, there are many other benefits of training, including increasing employee satisfaction and reducing employee turnover; expanding the knowledge capital of the firm; and creating new knowledge and knowledge-sharing techniques that enable the firm to significantly expand the firm's strategic capabilities (Edelman *et al.*, 2004). Thus, by not offering training to managers, there are some significant benefits that the firms are losing based on the need to train the managers and provide benefits.

It is particularly important to note that managerial training does not have to be narrowly focused on the roles of the manager within the firm, and perhaps should not be. As Lockett *et al.* (2007) noted, training *can* have a narrow technical focus, but it can also be broader, focusing more on creating shared values, promoting creativity, and offering the opportunity to expand and diversify skills. This is particularly important for organisational change, offering the firm the resiliency it requires to deal with a changing competitive environment (Lockett *et al.*, 2007). Training can also lead to the formation of social capital

or to connections between individuals and groups, which can promote cross-functional effectiveness within the firm (Edelman *et al.*, 2004). However, as Edelman *et al.* (2004) noted, this can be a problematic outcome, because if not carefully managed, the formation of social capital bonds can lead to rigid internal social groups, which can prevent working across boundaries. Thus, managerial training should be offered, and should be structured in such a way as to promote long-term flexibility and benefits for the firm. In particular, the training should attempt to build social capital without reinforcing the bonds of social groups, such as by using strict cohort-training groups.

To some extent, the participants' rejection of the idea of offering training for managers was based on the perception that there is no connection between training and organisational effectiveness. This attitude can be seen reflected within the literature, where indeed there is a considerable debate over whether or not training is effective. Some of the suggested measures for training effectiveness include financial measures, overall performance, or in changes in staff attitudes (Paauwe, 2009b). However, these measures can be complicated, especially in a smaller firm with a lack of expertise at measuring its performance, because all of these measures are subject to change for reasons other than the training practice (Paauwe, 2009b). This means that measuring 'return on investment' for training activities can be particularly difficult regardless of the structure of the metrics that are used, or what the training program entails (Cheng and Hampson, 2008).

A further problem is that there can be some lag between the acquisition of skills and the improvement of performance (Gilley *et al.*, 2004). In the meantime, the environment and context of the firm can change, as can other factors, making it difficult to measure the outcomes of training efforts. Furthermore, training programs are not commonly structured in

such a way as to enable determination of how effective they are, such as through the designation of test groups (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991; Yin, 2009). Certain approaches can be used to reduce this difficulty, for example, utility analysis, which can be used to determine the utility of various decisions (Chochard and Davoine, 2011). This approach suggests that the training of new managers has a particularly high return. However, the approach still has weaknesses, such as focus on the performance of the individual rather than on organisational benefit and performance improvement (Pun and White, 2005). The approach also assumes that there is a benefit to the organisation from having more individuals trained, although this has not been measured (Ray and Goppelt, 2011).

Overall, there are few satisfactory ways to measure the effectiveness of the training process. However, this does not mean that training should not be provided. Training can improve the performance of the individual manager and can positively impact the organisation as a whole, such as by increasing employee satisfaction. This is particularly the case for newer managers, who tend to benefit most from early management training (Chochard and Davoine, 2011; Saks *et al.*, 2011).

HRM & Training

One of the notable aspects of the organisations in this study is that the HRM function was in many cases added on after the establishment of the firm. The qualitative study revealed that, while most of the firms had been in business for over ten years, the age of the HRM organisations within the firms was in about 55% of cases under ten years and in 45% more than 10 years. For contrast, only 42% of firms were under 15 years old. These data strongly suggest that the HRM function is a relatively new addition to most firms, put into place sometime after the firms' founding. The HRM function might, then, be expected not to

be strongly embedded within the firms' strategies, indicating that there could be a gap between HRM function and business strategy.

This study also discovered a lack of integration of the HRM function into the company's general approach to training. From this the researcher concluded that HR managers do not plan training based on the outcomes of TNA. This finding is echoed in the discussion of job requirements planning, which indicated that HRM staff members were often uninvolved in the establishment of these requirements.

Another strong suggestion within the findings was that the HRM function was not used to promote the development of business strategy. For example, it was often indicated that HRM hiring practices were directed to fulfilling immediate requirements rather than long-term strategic needs, and that managers were not hired for future needs or growth potential. Instead, it was presumed that managers would know what they needed to know on hiring, and if they did not prove to be successful, most respondents indicated that their firms would either fire them or end their contracts. Only 10% suggested that retraining for performance was a viable option in this instance. Furthermore, only a few firms suggested that there were managerial training programs in place that emphasised future managerial needs. Additionally, hiring practices often emphasised other issues than strategic needs, including daily operational capacity or preferential hiring based on social connections. Many of the firms took little notice of customer, shareholder, or other stakeholder requirements in setting job requirements for hiring or for the hiring practice itself. These findings, taken together, strongly suggest that the HRM function within these firms is not being fully utilised in order to support the firm's strategic needs. Furthermore, it suggests that while there is a potential focus on the firm's day-to-day operational needs, even this is not being supported

well due to the failure to take into account the need to offer more than minimal training to managerial level employees. This could seriously reduce the effectiveness of the firm's operations and strategy.

HRM's lack of embeddedness into organisations is not just a Saudi problem. HRM is a relatively new concept, growing out of previous approaches such as personnel management and industrial relations (Armstrong, 2004; Martín-Alcazar *et al.*, 2008, Bratton, 2001). This has provoked some controversy, especially because it is often seen as a reversion to a Fordist or Taylorist model in which workers are treated as replaceable parts rather than individuals (Huselid *et al.*, 1997). The emergence of 'hard' and 'soft' HRM models reflects the split between these two perspectives. The 'hard' HRM model focuses on rational, scientific, and metricised models of HRM, with an assumption that human resources are in fact inert and cannot be relied on to create or innovate (Lashley, 2009). The 'hard' model emphasises management and strategic interests and uses human resources and development to create an organisational culture that supports these goals (Armstrong, 2004). By contrast, 'soft' HRM, derived from previous practices of industrial relations, emphasises communication, motivation, and leadership and positions employees as competent, individual, and effective partners in the company's performance (Kaye, 1999). 'Soft' HRM practices are focused on hiring the best people, and then providing training, development, compensation that are designed to ensure satisfaction. This view is essentially resource-based, meaning that employees are treated as human resources rather than interchangeable elements in the production process (Lockett *et al.*, 2009, McKelvie and Davidsson, 2009).

However, despite the seeming opposition of these two schools of thought, the use of 'hard' and 'soft' HRM practices are often mixed within an organisation, causing an uneasy

confluence between the two schools (Kaye, 1999). Thus, one can conclude that the lack of integration and ease with which Saudi firms view their HRM departments is not necessarily unusual, but rather it is inherent in the HRM function itself, which is contradictory and sometimes conflicting in nature. While Saudi HRM departments in this study are perhaps newer than average, this does not necessarily mean they are less integrated than average. A comparative study would be required to determine whether Saudi HRM groups were less integrated than average.

In addition to the consideration of what is normative, there also needs to be a consideration of what the role of HRM in the Saudi organisation *should* be. A universalistic position on HRM would hold that there are similar or identical roles for the HRM function in all organisations, regardless of their situational position or strategic needs (Mak, & Akhtar, 2003, Chang and Huang, 2005). However, this is not necessarily the correct stance to take, as there is a particularist position to be argued as well, that the specific circumstances, environment, internal structure, and needs of the organisation should determine the role taken by HRM (Armstrong and Baron, 2002). In the case of the KSA, it is clear that the Saudi business context is unique, especially with challenges such as Saudization, dealing with literacy rates, and the particular competitive and government support environment in which Saudi firms compete. This means that simply applying a universalist model of HRM and its role in the firm is not likely to yield reliable results for the Saudi context. Instead, a more particularist approach should be taken, with fit assessed with the context of the firms in mind. Unfortunately, there has been no general assessment of HRM in the Saudi context that would show what elements are most effective in this regard, so it is difficult to determine whether the somewhat marginal and subordinate role the HRM function seems to play in many of the firms surveyed is appropriate. However, it should at least be

considered that this actually is effective at this time, at least partially.

One particularly noticeable aspect of the HRM function in the firms surveyed is the role of upper management. Upper management was said to be in charge of decisions from setting job requirements to hiring decisions, with the ultimate power in this regard going to managers. HRM and management are fundamentally integrated functions, with management decisions often driving pay, recruitment, training, and other HRM decisions. This relationship can clearly be seen in the HRM descriptions of the upper management, and it is very forceful. However, there is another side to the relationship between HRM and management, which is that HRM is supposed to inform the practices of management and guide the use of HRM functions (such as recruitment, hiring and training) toward the strategic goals of the firm (Jacobs, 2011). It is this aspect of direction of management that is missing in the role of the HRM function in the Saudi firms surveyed, with many respondents expressing frustration that they could not direct the firm to make better strategic decisions rather than focusing on the day-to-day operations of the firm. If these findings lead to any changes in the practice and role of HRM in the Saudi firm, the researcher hopes that these changes will include increased empowerment of the HRM departments within these firms to better support the strategic goals of their respective firms. Also, a balance of power between HRM and management should be prioritised in order that the available HRM resources can be put to best possible use.

Barriers to training practices

According to the findings, a number of barriers hinder the effective implementation of training programs. Overall, only 61% of the interview sample, including only 50% of medium-sized firms, used TNA analysis on a consistent basis, or at all. Of those that did

make use of TNA, there was mixed evidence on the actual process. For the larger firms, the emphasis tended to be on relationships within the firm, while the smaller firms put some emphasis on external relationships in terms of the criteria used to derive basic job descriptions. These findings make clear that there are some significant barriers that need to be considered in order to derive full benefits from the TNA process.

Probably the largest barrier to effective use of TNA is the culture of these organisations themselves. The findings indicate that these organisations exist in an organisational culture of strict hierarchy, preferential hiring, personal connections, and other hiring practices that focus on immediate needs or desires rather than strategic goals. Because the manager, owner, or top managers, hold the final say in hiring decisions in so many instances, the HRM function within the firm has few opportunities to hire strategically or to provide training focused on long-term needs. Customer, shareholder, and competitor concerns also do not play into the calculation of training needs in many of the organisations, suggesting that there is little focus on the strategic goals of the organisation. Some of the HRM personnel (especially the informal interviewees) expressed a sense of frustration about this state of affairs, with one noting, “We do what we can, but [the owner] has the final say” over hiring practices, which might often result in inadequate hiring decisions. In over half the firms that responded to the pre-survey, HRM professionals did not even design or conduct the training, and in most cases HRM professionals did not prepare job requirements. Furthermore, there is no focus on improving human resources practice; instead, when a manager proves to be inadequate, he is often simply released at the end of his contract with no effort to improve performance.

Thus, the biggest barrier to implementation of training programs preceded by TNA in

these firms could be said to be a cultural barrier – there is almost no value placed on managerial training, except in a few firms where employees use such training to gain new skills. The ultimate control of hiring and training is out of the hands of HRM professionals, who, although they express awareness of TNA, implement it in an inconsistent manner. These professionals are, instead, often assigned, via a formal power hierarchy, to someone who may not know or care about this practice or its implications. This is a significant barrier to development (Stets & Burke, 2000). Given these barriers, there might be inadequacies in the implementation of TNA that could be difficult to overcome, even if the HRM function and management agree that it is a good option.

The family firm structure may also form a barrier to TNA. Typical aspects of the family firm include preferential hiring of family members or other social connections as well as preferential assessment of family members (Chrisman *et al.*, 2005; Chrisman *et al.*, 2009; Debicki *et al.*, 2009; LaPorta *et al.*, 1999; Peng and Jiang, 2010; Sharma, 2004). These barriers mean that even in cases where TNA was used at the organisational level (which the results clearly showed it was), at the personal level it may be far less effective for some employees of the firm than for others. Thus, even in the case of a top-to-bottom application of TNA from the organisational to the individual level, there still might be barriers to its effective use if the hiring and assessment practices of family members or other social connections are still skewed compared to non-related employees. This is not something that could be easily overcome, as the research shows it is inherent in the family firm. However, educating upper management on the importance of TNA and its reflection in practices like job requirements, hiring, training, and evaluation could improve the connection between the HRM practices of the firm and its strategic and operational goals. Thus, one of the ways to overcome this could be sensitising the top management, which would then be able to make

stronger decisions regarding the use of TNA and other HRM practices. Given that, at present, there is little management training offered at all, this change would require a substantial revision of the organisational culture in order to account for the need to train managers. However, it is well worth considering as a means of improving firms' outcomes.

Interventions for Training Effectiveness

This focus of this section is to discuss which HR interventions are the best means of improving training effectiveness. This section will address the question of how managers can improve the effectiveness of training in the family-owned firms in the KSA, as well as the question of how training and development can play a key role in improving the performance and efficiency of the strategic and operational outcomes of an organization? This section of the discussion will integrate the findings of the primary and qualitative study. The topics to be discussed include the operational role of management training, the alignment of management training with business, the separateness of the training function, competency-based training, the motivation of trainees, providing opportunities to apply training, integrating training with performance, and finally, inter-departmental coordination. At the end of this section, the researcher will generate recommendations and discuss the implications of the research findings.

Operational Role of Training

One of the research questions guiding this study was the question of how training and development can play a role in improving the quality and efficiency of a firm's performance as it achieves its strategic and operational outcomes. The main role shown for training and development within the primary findings of the study was on-the-job training for managerial specifics, or training for perceived future needs. Most of the companies did not offer training

for their managers, other than training intended to meet changes in the environment. Additionally, TNA analysis was mostly focused at the organisational level, rather than finding individual gaps in training or personal knowledge. Although all the firms in the study indicated that they conducted training and development at some level in the qualitative study, the interviews indicated a wide variation in the actual operational role of the practice within the organisation, and some significant barriers to the overall implementation of training and development. These primary findings suggest that there is little emphasis placed within the firm on achieving strategic outcomes, but instead most emphasis is placed on the operational role. For example, there is no attention paid to customer or other stakeholder input, and top management priorities are used to determine performance rather than other performance measures. This suggests that training and development is only focused on improving immediate operational outcomes (where it is offered at all).

Despite the primary research outcomes, the literature shows that training and development generally, as well as TNA specifically, actually have a strong operational and strategic role in the organisation. As previously mentioned, it is one of the elements in improving employee performance, employee satisfaction, retention, and by extension organisational performance and organisational competitiveness, although the measurement of these improvements can be very difficult (Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Chochard and Davoine, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Edelman et al., 2004; Gilley et al., 2004; Lockett et al., 2007; Paauwe, 2009b; Pun and White, 2005; Purcell et al., 2007; Smith et al., 2012; Yin, 2009). A deeper issue is that of organisational learning, which is generalised learning and knowledge transfer within the organisation generated by creating a learning environment and providing comprehensive training (Easterby-Smith et al., 1998). This is similar to the idea of organisational development (Ruona and Gibson, 2004). In short, training and development

practices enable the firm to better adapt its practices to globalisation and change, which is increasingly necessary in the modern world (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2009; McClernon, 2006; Porter, 1998). Simply, in order for the organisation to adapt to a changing strategic environment, it must use an organisational learning approach that will enable it to make use of its existing resources and gain access to new resources. In particular, the organization as a collective needs to become more flexible, more skilled at exploiting its assets, and more committed to learning (Thorpe *et al.*, 2005).

Given these realities, an organisation must implement an effective and appropriate training and development practice that develops its resources as competitive advantages and enables it to meet unexpected challenges. This can be considered to be the true goal of training and development within the organisation, rather than simply the development of the current employees' skills (Moore *et al.*, 2007; Moore and Dutton, 1978). However, this does not mean that training can be neglected at the individual level. Training and development programs primarily function to promote technical and people skills within individuals, which then contribute to the performance of the organisation, and thus these programs work best when applied continuously and consistently (Isyaku, 2000; Oribabor, 2000). Thus, paradoxically, in order to improve the performance of the organisation, there needs to be a focus on continuously improving the performance of the individual.

The ultimate answer to the first research question is that in the Saudi family firms surveyed, training and development programs are primarily used to meet current operational needs rather than long-term strategic goals. For example, managers are trained on the job in the specifics of their position, but often are not offered further training to enhance their overall performance. Instead, recruitment and hiring practices are used to attempt to control

performance, although this is often subverted by preferential hiring practices. The literature suggests that there can be a much broader role for training and development, however. This includes expanding the knowledge capital and social capital of the firm; creating competitive advantage; increasing employee satisfaction, loyalty, and retention; and improving operational performance. However, in order to gain these benefits, the firms will need to put effort into revising their structures and cultures to emphasise the importance of the training and development process. This will become increasingly important over time as a globalised competitive environment takes hold and firms must compete in an increasingly broad field.

Aligning Management Training with Business

The second research question asked about the role of management learning and development in the growth of competitive advantage and how management training and development can be organised in line with corporate strategy. This was one of the areas where the alignment of strategic goals and organisational practices was weakest. There was a strong tendency in the firms in the primary survey to not use management learning and development practices at all.

The benefits of management training *can* be difficult to measure using standard measurement techniques, although the use of utility analysis (as described in more detail in Chapter 2) can allow for a return on investment (ROI) to be effectively calculated for management training (Chochard and Davoine, 2011). Chochard and Davoine (2011) found that management training worked best as an extended, long-term practice, although the ROI for training of newer managers was higher than for more experienced managers.

In addition to the specific benefits of management training, it is important to consider

the role of training and development in the performance of all employees. While all firms indicated that they conducted training generally, almost none of the firms conducted training understating the needs of the employees adequately. While this is understandable from a naïve perspective, given that managers are expected to be among the most experienced employees in the organisation, it still causes difficulties and deprives the management staff of the opportunity to benefit from training. For example, it does not allow managers to effectively build knowledge capital or engage in knowledge sharing, or to engage in the development of social capital, both of which are significant competitive benefits for the organisation as well as the individual (Edelman *et al.*, 2004). This could be particularly detrimental to the performance of the firm given the wealth of knowledge and social connections that managers could bring if they were included in the training process.

The training and development program is a complex process that operates at multiple levels within an organization. As such, this process cannot be successful if it only involves management or HR personnel; rather, the process must involve management, HR, and other line managers/employees. The management has to choose the area where they most need development, while the HRM has to conduct the training programs according to the needs of the employees. These parties also have to consider the demands of the company's stakeholders and the available resources for the arrangement of this training. In this research, it was found that in Saudi firms, the dominant interests were those of management, while HR personnel might play a more subordinate role. In a few organizations' cases, the needs of customers, shareholders, and other stakeholders were not taken into account, suggesting a serious flaw in the effort to align and integrate the business needs of the organizations and the implementation of training practice.

Discussion of quantitative results

In the present study, the researcher has drawn from various theories to explore the linkages between the demographic variables, perception on training programs and intent to participate in future training programs. The validity and the reliability tests indicate that the scales that are developed and used to measure the variables under study are generalisable and applicable in the Saudi, perhaps, in the Arabian context too. The various hypotheses related to perception on training programs have been tested among the varied demography of the employees hailing from family-owned businesses in the Saudi context. The discussion of the results that follow are predominantly organised around the similarities and differences on the perception on training programs.

The table V.2 presents the means, the standard deviations and the inter-correlations of the study variables. It is found that the means range from a low (2.37 for identification of training needs) to a high score (3.69 for perception on training design). The standard deviations of the variables which were measured on a 5-point scale appear to be slightly higher with factors like interaction in training programs reporting .93. The inter-correlations range from very low (e.g., 0.186 between credibility of training program and behavioural modification) to high values (e.g., 0.90 between performance improvement and competence development). Theoretically, there is evidence of multicollinearity. This was resolved by removing the variable 'Competence Development' which was in conflict with as many number of variables. Correlations were meaningful within the conceptual framework of the study, reaching statistical significance for all the variables. The sign of the coefficients are in the direction expected and provide support for the suggested linkages between the perception on training programs and the demographic variables as well as intent to participate. However, the results of the MANOVA and multiple regression analyses was taken for

discussing the hypotheses in the next section of this chapter because of its advantage over correlation in explaining the simultaneous effects of two or more variables in the model.

MANOVA results reported difference in perception across age groups. Consistent with these findings, employees in the age group 51-60 report a higher perception on the training design, intention to participate, behavioural modification and performance improvement. An exception is the perception on identification of training needs where the employees in the 20-30 age group have a higher perception. Higher age group develop organizational bond and become more oriented to sustenance in the organization. They may also become more positive towards the organization as longer stay develop a sense of citizenship in their organization. Again, steered by the organizational cultural beliefs, they may have the natural propensity to assume more responsibilities and their normative position as an older member of the organization operate towards their higher perception towards the above factors. Further, older employees may be facing pressures arising from the advent of newer technology and hence may be appreciative of any newer generation training program that help them equal or improve their performance and modify their behavior. They may use this as a lens through which they can avoid any collision on the inter-generational knowledge difference and hence, are motivated to participate in more number of training programs. Older generation employees are seen as having good work ethics, a good attitude toward work and a higher level of emotional loyalty and hence grab any opportunity to gain adaptive capacities. The higher perception on identification of training needs among the younger generation may be attributed to the thinking that the training programs conducted by the organizations studied, are identified on newer technology and skill development. Hence, with an eagerness to get ahead monetarily and in career younger generation hold higher perception on identification of training needs.

MANOVA results reported that employees holding collegiate education have a higher perception on the training programs captured on training design, intention to participate, behavioural modification, and performance improvement. It is argued that colleges and universities of late, support rich experiential opportunities that truly integrate their curriculum with real-world learning as technology, communication skills and problem solving skills. They are viewed to be able to adapt to and act in new situations because of such capabilities as being important for future growth and career. This is also a source of evidence of acquiring skills and attributes that can be presented to employers. Employees having reached college education would gravitate more towards specialized skills and hence view training programs as avenues that help them modify their behavior and improve their performance. They may consider the best part of the design and hence, intent to participate more in the training programs. It is not surprising to argue that they over and above their core task requirements would modify their behavior that strengthens the organization's effectiveness. Going by the view that higher education increases individual's power, strength and capacity to perform a task, these training programs are treated by college educated employees as those that crystallizes their intelligence. However, a lower perception by non college educated employees is significant. This indicate that they have lesser capacity to appreciate the purpose of the training programs and hence their cognitive ability to appreciate the design and thus the outcomes of the programs is less.

MANOVA results reported that experience has an impact on perception on training programs. Employees with more experience perceive performance improvement, behavioural modification, intent to participate in further training programs and training design high. The researcher believes that experience can contribute significantly to maintaining, improving, or developing knowledge, skills, and abilities. Hence training programs that improve their

performance, modify their behavior and those that are designed well are perceived high by highly experience employees. They also have a higher intent to participate in future programs. Experienced employees may also use training to analyse their experience by reflecting, evaluating and reconstructing their skills and to draw meaning from it in the light of prior experience. Experience reflects on what they discovered and relating it to past experiences which can be used for future use.

Regression results indicate that identification of training needs, clarity of objectives of the training programs, training design, behavioural modification and performance improvement influence intent to participate in training programs. Behavioural modification is seen as the strongest predictor followed by adequacy of training design, performance improvement, clarity of objectives and identification of training needs.

The strongest prediction by ‘behavioural modification’ suggests that employees view modifying their behavior as a key to preventing or lessening environmental triggers that cause them to generate a feeling not compatible with the organisation. It is understood that employees are looking for such programs that help them organize and modify themselves according to the environment and thus develop a safe behavior that supports positive conduct. Hence training programs should be designed to help the employees understand the basic principles of behavior modification, apply behavior strategies, self examine and treat problematic behaviours and enable self-management plans to modify different behaviours. Such design would ensure that employees enthusiastically participate in training programs. The programs should also help develop skills that are positive and not punitive viewing not the person as a problem but the environment and skill deficiencies as factors that drive change. The programs should be designed under the premise that behavior could be learn and

so inappropriate behavior could be reduced and appropriate behaviours should be taught as an alternative. The programs should also be aimed at manipulating the antecedents of the behavior.

Perception on training design is the second most strongest predictor of intent to participate. Training is viewed to be effective only when the trainee applies on the job, the knowledge, skills and abilities which he has acquired during a training program. Hence, care should be taken to ensure that the organization identifies that knowledge, skill and abilities required by the employees through an adequate TNA program. This argument is supported by the prediction of intent to participate by identification of training needs. Further support also comes from prediction of intent to participate by clarity of objectives. This finding has a direct effect on training outcomes. Three elements are important in order to substantiate prediction by training design. The organization should ensure generation of an adequate TNA supported well by the supervisor, adequately content validate them and supported at all levels of the organization. The design should enhance the motivation of trainee to apply knowledge on workplace and such measure is viewed to be far greater than that of organizational support. When trainee perceives that the contents of training program is accurately matching to his job description, he will be more motivated to attend training program and transfer his knowledge on his job.

Prediction of intent to participate by performance improvement is expected. This indicates that apart from modifying the behavior, employees look forward to improve the performance after the training programs. Hence organizations should systematically, through TNA process discover and analyse the expectations as well as human performance gaps and accordingly design the training programs. Internal trainers should act as mentors who would mentor the

employees and help them break down stereotypes. Care should be taken when trainers and trainees belong to different generations such as Gen X and Gen Y. A training program intended to improve performance will also help underperforming employees to put together an improvement plan and accordingly, would correct deficiencies that will protect the worker and employer and avoid any confusion about expectations.

The prediction of intent to participate by ‘behavioural modification’, ‘training design’, ‘performance improvement’ indicate that a strong training program with clear objectives and identified needs would motivate the employees to participate in training programs enthusiastically. Hence, organizations should ensure that before subjecting the employees to any training program, TNA should be conducted across varied demography and accordingly, the training programs should be designed. The MANOVA results strongly recommend such demography-specific training programs. .

In general, the researcher deems that structural changes could be brought into the HR department of organizations. The foremost change could involve integration of HRM, training and firm performance. One of the main objectives of the study was to understand how HRM, training and development, and firm performance are linked in family-owned business in the KSA. When evaluating the performance of a business’s employees, two things must be considered. First, one must analyse the performance of the employee in relation to their job description and responsibilities. Second, one must compare this performance analysis with the overall goals of the organization to determine whether the performance of the employee is advancing these overall goals. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the HRM to not only analyse and study the needs of the employees but also to find out what they need to learn, what skills they need to acquire, and which areas they

need to further develop in order to more effectively carry out their assigned jobs. In addition, the HRM is also responsible for analysing the corporate strategy and long-term goals of the organization and to structure trainings for their employees with these strategies in mind. The performance of the employees must meet the corporate strategy of the organization in order for the organization to be effective overall. Overall, the performance of the firms did not suggest that there was a strong relationship between HRM practices and strategic goals.

In the Saudi context, given the reliance on having HR as a separate function and having experienced HR professionals, it also needs to be considered how the top HR managers have been recruited, trained, and engaged in order to determine what the effectiveness of the HRM decisions will be. For example, preferential hiring practices, hiring practices designed to fill immediate needs, job requirements formulated by hiring managers, and in some cases lack of involvement of the HRM professional in the training process itself meant that HRM practices were not necessarily aligned to strategic goals. As a result, there was a lack of consistency between the firm's HRM practices and its strategic needs, and this problem was exacerbated by the involvement of top management in the hiring practices. Although TNA was used for some practices, especially for identifying future training needs, the practice was implemented inconsistently.

Enhancing the Training Value. Training value is defined as an "individual's attitudes toward the usefulness of training programs" (Ford and Noe, 1987). A greater desire for training should be generated if a positive perception towards the value of training is initiated. Trainees who consider that the program content could help to improve their performance are would more willingly attend more programs and facilitate effective training transfer. By contrast, trainees will not be enthused to attend further training programs and transfer the

newly acquired skills during the training programme, regardless of adequacy of the training program, if they perceive that the training program is irrelevant to their jobs. As Noe and Schmitt (1986) pointed out, negative perception toward training can hinder learning and subsequent application of the newly acquired skills and knowledge. For example, Baumgartel *et al.* (1984) found that managers are more likely to attend more programs in order to acquire skills to the current jobs if they have a positive perception of the training program. In this study, perceived value of the training program is proposed to be a factor affecting intent to participate in further programs and apply the skills and knowledge back to the jobs.

Training as Separate Function. Based on the data analyzed, it appears to be strongly felt that a separate training function is required. Clear differences were found in the perception on training programs and the employees intent to participate in further programs among the various demography. Also, it is essential to have a separate HR department and a designated post like Training Manager or Chief Learning Officer. Given the difference in perception across varied demography, the person in this role will provide focus to demography-specific learning efforts and set clear roles, responsibilities and accountabilities in creating training interventions that will have impact on the intent to participate in further programs. Having a person in this role will also help the organizations to design and execute different policies regarding training across the different demography at these organizations.

Competency-Based Training. Despite the lack of any tangible guide for making training decisions, most organizations in this study expressed satisfaction with the amount and quality of training at different levels of management, provided that training interventions were competency-based. If training is designed and implemented taking specific competency to be focused then it will yield faster and better-quality results. Analysis explored

differentiating competencies to be created for employees that make them star performers.

Motivating Trainees. Trainees may be motivated to participate in more programs and apply the newly acquired skills. The perception on the training program is very imperative, no matter, how much ever the organisation links reward with performance. Linking reward to good performance is a general practice of most organizations (Huse and Cummings, 1985) but performance comes with skills, knowledge and attitude. As internal and external environment changes and thus the expectations in their jobs, employees require updated skills to deliver. Newer skills are obtained by participating continually in training programs designed and offered to impart specific skill sets. Some authors have further suggested the provision of rewards (both intrinsic and extrinsic) could be instituted to trainees who increasingly participate in training programs and acquire newer skills (e.g. Dubin, 1990; Rosow and Zager, 1988). Organisations could announce that essentially employees should have participated in atleast two training programs in order to participate in the annual performance appraisal exercise. This might appear to be forcing mechanism, though, it would be a driver for the employees to acquire more skills.

Providing Opportunities to Apply Training. Many HR managers and employees suggested that it is essential to have the opportunity to apply what they learned during training. Fendrich et al. (1988), in their review regarding skill maintenance, realized that the lack of opportunity to perform tasks results in low attendance and interaction in the training programs. Research is done under a premise that training transfer happens under similar opportunities, however, the authors suggested that trainees receive different opportunities to transfer. Also, transfer outcomes are affected and are different under different transfer opportunities. Organizations should provide trainees with more practical opportunities to

apply their newly acquired skills and knowledge and in such case, they would have the greater intent to participate in future programs.

Integrating Training with Performance. Managers found performing well after attending training programs are the key assets of any organization. Yet they may feel detached and helpless at times due to lack of recognition, both monetary and non-monetary. If these performers are rewarded continuously, then their performance may be multiplied. They would have a greater intent to newer skills and knowledge and thus develop positive attitude towards attending training programs. It is evident that well-designed training would not be very effective if participants are demotivated. It has been recommended that the organization must design a system of appraisal that can differentiate star performers from average or low performers after the training programs. Training modules may be designed differently for star, average, and low-performing managers so that each group can have focused inputs to enhance their performances and hence develop greater desire to attend future training programs. The results of this study, as well as the literature, suggest that training needs to be better focused on performance gaps.

Inter-departmental coordination. In order to design and deliver training programs effectively, resources have to be optimised. Managers, cutting across departments who are quite innovative in terms of their approach after attending training programs could be used to sensitise the employees on the benefit of attending training programs. This would also provide opportunities to learn from each other the benchmarking practices that, if magnified, will yield multifold results for the organization. If inter-department coordination exists, then it will help effectiveness of training interventions and facilitate learning exchanges. HR needs to take the lead role to achieve the same with the support from line managers by taking their buy-ins.

Implications for HR

The researcher has developed further recommendations based on the results of the study. First, there should be a deliberate effort on the part of the Saudi Arabian government to continue its efforts at people development. The government certainly could have a significant effect on HRM initiatives, so it must encourage strategic HRM initiatives. These entail an internal workforce strategy, consolidated by general business strategies; HR execution and policy creation systems utilising line management style; a more individualised relationship with the workforce; and finally, a strong encouragement of manager ingenuity and innovation. The SHRM method of administering HR systems, not to mention other plans and designs, are usually substantiated by a philosophy that recognizes the strategic value of the workforce as a competitive advantage. Without solid and consistent support, initiated improvements could be lost. Momentum on such developments could fall, making such programmes ineffective and wasteful. Continued efforts on people management are indeed an important element in the growth and development of a company, especially its workforce.

The second recommendation is that HR departments and directors of Saudi Arabia private sector organisations must ensure that employee training and development methods adapt to changing organisational strategies and the external environment. An effective mechanism should be in place to convey continually to the employees the importance of learning through continuous training. Employees comprise the backbone of an organisation and allow it to maintain competitive advantages over their rivals, and they need to be able to undergo comprehensive programs continuously that allow them to sharpen their skills and knowledge. It has been a recent trend among organisations to do away with hierarchical chains of command, giving managers more or less equal authority in relation to their subordinates. Even employees now have a voice in vital company decisions, which makes it

necessary for them to be equipped with the necessary skills and virtues to contribute—and this is where training and development methods come into play. Not only are employees able to learn the necessary skills and traits, they become more prepared to take on new, unprecedented levels of responsibility. This requires participation in skill-specific training programs

The third recommendation is that there must also be an attempt to simplify the TNA, while having a clear view and rationale for why the TNA is being carried out. The exercise may be used to ascertain issues in operations; their relation to employee behaviour, and the difference between actual and ideal behaviour; whether performance is acceptable by the superiors' standards, and what kind of behaviour helps; exactly how the current performance level poses a threat, and how to tell if it is being addressed; and assessing whether training is the way to go and, if so, whether key officers are committed to it. Training Needs Analysis needs to be a holistic process that takes into account such factors. Those training needs that are said to be consistent with operational issues are considered to be necessities rather than mere bonuses.

There are a number of implications of this research for the study of organisations as well as for Saudi Arabian business context generally. This section articulates these implications in order to help family-owned firms to consider the applicability of the findings to their own circumstances.

The first implication is that the firm needs to learn to use TNA to identify training needs at all levels of the organisation. Any organization that is functional in the KSA and wants to become successful must realize that the work environment of Saudi Arabia is very

different from other countries. The country's laws and its literacy rate, among other factors, have dramatic effects on the environment within an organization. This environment plays an important role in the development of the employees. The organization must be aware of the fact that there are various constraints that shape the training needs for the employees. The identification of training needs must be done in a way that it is integrated across the organization. Without this total integration of TNA in the process of developing training programmes one risks an unequal development in the organization. All managers and HRM professionals in the organisation must contribute to this training needs analysis. Furthermore, this analysis needs to be based on the corporate-strategy linked HR-strategy and not on immediate social or operational needs of firm principals. Such integration of HR strategy with corporate strategy would drive the employees to attend training programs

The second implication is that TNA should be used to anticipate future needs. Every company has a vision, and according to that vision it sets targets for the future. The managers must be aware of what the company might aim for in the future. This way they can identify what training needs exist currently or may arise with the coming challenges. The managers should be able to anticipate future needs based on the plans and corporate strategy of the organization. They should have a proper training plan ready to fulfil their future functional plan. Saudi Arabia is undergoing a process of change in labour relations and work force composition. With the advent of Saudization programmes, and the attempts to increase the education level among the workforce, the question of the future is difficult to address. As was mentioned in Chapter 1, there are numerous challenges that HRM personnel must meet in this context. Given the changing labour force, one might be tempted to conclude that training employees who, most likely, will not be with the organization in a few years' time is a waste of resources; however, to make this assumption is to risk under-developing and

under-training the workforce. Moreover, one could decide to train only Saudi workers, in anticipation of the repatriation of many foreign workers over the next few years, but this would be to risk the development of an uneven organization whose capacity is unpredictable. One could train all current workers, but then one risks training workers that may leave in the near future. These difficulties are compounded by the proliferation of new, small family-owned firms competing for a shrinking labour pool. However, there needs to be a focus on the future that is not overruled by organisational concerns or hierarchical demands.

The third implication of this study is that there needs to be a focus on developing appropriate analysis techniques. Any organization has various training needs, and organisations vary widely. Within the Saudi context, for example, the large number of expatriate workers poses a problem of addressing diversity in the workplace, and organizations must work to structure trainings to address these concerns. However, there are also training needs which are not so easily recognized. Various techniques exist to aid in the understanding of less apparent needs, such as one-to-one interviews with employees, performance appraisals, regular monitoring, and so on. The company that wants to identify the training needs at all levels should use a variety of techniques in analysing training needs and the strengths and weaknesses of employees. Without utilizing a number of methods, one is unlikely to have access to the information necessary for structuring training programmes. Only through the use of a variety of means can HRM personnel gain access to information that may otherwise be difficult to obtain.

The fourth implication is that unexpected problems can occur. Most of the work done in any organization is part of a daily routine. The managers and the employees are fully aware of their job descriptions, and they are well equipped for their roles. Within well-

defined and stable work conditions, job performance tends to remain somewhat stable as well. However, an unexpected problem in any work environment is a true test of the quality of a workforce. The way that employees adapt to an unexpected challenge is a clear identification of their qualities. Through the sudden appearance of an unexpected problem, a manager might find an unsung hero or a quiet leader amongst his or her employees. Therefore, in order for one to be able to understand the totality of needs, one should take care to analyse the performance of the employees in any such emergency so that any area that needs to be addressed can become apparent. There should be an effective mechanism to convey to the employees the areas that require improvement. Currently, many firms do not offer the opportunity for these unexpected changes to occur because they tend to fire underperformers, rather than allow hidden talents to emerge.

The fifth implication of this research is that organisations need to identify the level and priority of their training needs. Some training needs are individual, while others exist at an organizational level. The manager responsible for an organization's TNA and its development and training program must be aware of the priority level of each need.

The sixth implication is that firms need to choose an appropriate employee training design. This decision was seriously neglected within the firms studied in this research, with most of the participants reporting that they did not even train managerial employees for routine needs. Once the training need has been identified amongst the employees, the next step is to design the training program aligned to the specific needs of the employees. There can be various ways and methods in which the employees can be provided with the training that they require. The method chosen for their training depends on the nature of the need and the workplace context within which this need exists. For instance, if the employees think that

the training design is robust, they would certainly develop a positive perception towards the programs run the organisation. Moreover, before the conduct of any training program, the management should convey that the goal is to help an employee improve his skills which would, perhaps, be useful to take up higher responsibilities. Indeed, experience itself is a great teacher. Then, training needs should be prioritized based on the employees' motivation and the future aims of the organization. Once the organization has an understanding of prioritized training needs, then the design can be determined, and the appropriate resources can be allocated. Feasibility is also important; one should base a training program upon a cost-benefit analysis, wherein the cost of the training method in resources is compared to the possible outcomes of the training.

Limitations and scope for future research

Although the study was quite comprehensive, it was limited by its small sample size, by the lack of tangible data on organizations' performance, and by various intra-organizational and inter-organizational factors. The sample for this study was comprised of 33 private sector family-owned businesses from the KSA. This number is low compared to the total population of the KSA. In an attempt to compensate for this limitation, a sincere effort should be made to ensure that the sample selected represents the actual sizeable respondents cutting across all sectors in Saudi Arabia. Also, the sample included companies from various sectors of industry; this was done to achieve a more representative sample. This study was conducted with family-owned firms situated in the three regions of Saudi Arabia such as, Riyadh, Jeddah, and Damman. Taking into consideration the number of companies spread over Saudi, this is a smaller sample. In terms of tangible data on intent to participate, this study did not analyse the performance of R&D professionals based on the performance data sheets. The hard aspect was neglected, as only the perceived data was collected and analysed.

This study had not taken into account sector differences on the perceptions on training programmes. Sector-wise differences would throw more light on how each sector takes training programmes seriously and the differences in perception would help training firms to formulate different modules for different sectors. The difference in perception on training programmes between the employees and HR managers have not been established. Measurement of differences would help HR managers to again re-align training programmes with the needs of the employees. In short, an occupationally heterogeneous sample of employees in diverse sectors, departments etc., should be compared. This study has not captured the cultural aspects of the employees. The cultural differences that include expatriates who are Muslims and non Muslims and local Saudis have not been studied. Finally, this study was limited by not taking into account intra-organizational factors such as departmental differences in resources and quality of manpower and support, and it was limited by not considering inter-organizational factors such as the organizations' differences in size, number of employees, sector, area of expertise, and strategies, all of which have implications for designing training programs and enhance intent to participate in future programs.

The study calls for further research to be done on the subject of training in family-owned firms, specifically the work of validating and generalizing the model proposed here. A larger sample from a more diverse reference group over a longer period of time would be needed in order for the proposed conceptual model to be further validated.

The researcher suggests that path analysis or structural equation modeling be carried out for the model in order to confirm the relationship between predictors and criterion variables as proposed in the framework. The future study should be carried out with

improved causal models that capture the relationship between used in the study. In such case, factors that could be conceptualized as moderating and mediating variables may be used to explain the relationship between perception on training programs and intent to participate. Future researchers should consider wider array of variables such as culture, religion, etc., that control the causal relationships. As per the findings discussed above, it is observed that training has certain antecedents and alignment variables that must be measured using some scale in order for the qualitative data to have greater reliability and validity. Finally, more inputs as to the hard side of measuring the perception on training programs might be used to validate the results presented in this study.

Conclusion

Acknowledging the well-documented increase in the importance of family-owned firms in the KSA, the role of training is very important. If HR heads and owners are to succeed, they must ensure that their employees possess the skills that their organizations, and the economy in general, require. If a family-owned firm's model of management training is planned and executed effectively, it will take the firm to the next level. Small business owners need to be encouraged to invest in training and skills development for themselves and their staff. This study has shown HR managers how to plan and execute effective training, as well as to evaluate the need for training and alignment dimensions are being attended to.

Because some HR managers or owners are not very sure of the benefits of training, this study has provided enough evidence to encourage them invest wholeheartedly in management training. It has provided a clear value proposition for both the employees and the HR managers. Throughout this study, the researcher has analysed the question of the role of training within the Saudi family-owned private sector from a variety of lenses, and he also

highlighted some key concerns with the management training and some potential impediments to the implementation of training. This report has further provided a set of action plan items (HR interventions) in order to improve the quality of training and measure to improve intent to participate in future training programs. The study also contributed in proposing the mind-set change for the owners of the family-owned firms in the KSA—considering training as an investment and not as a cost function. Finally, the researcher outlined steps that, if implemented, will improve the overall HR functionality in the family-owned private sector in Saudi Arabia and will improve intent to participate in training programs.

The most significant contribution of this research is that it can pave the way for important additional work in and about the KSA. As of now, there is very little research on the subject with particular reference to Saudi economy. The Saudi economy is growing and is becoming increasingly important internationally. Many foreign investors who are interested in investing in the Saudi economy need to know how things work there. The necessary information can only be discovered and understood through research. Every economy and every subculture has its own impact on the growth and propagation of businesses. The same goes for the Saudi economy and for the private sector family-owned businesses there. This research represents a milestone for the Saudi economy, as it describes the current state of management training in family-owned firms in the KSA.

The theoretical contribution of this study is to demonstrate the current state of management training in the family-owned firms in the KSA. The study has explored various factors that affect management training in the family-owned firms in the KSA. In addition, the study provided a reliable, valid scale for measuring the quality of training effectiveness. It has tested certain hypotheses about how HR functions, especially about how the

management training function is affected by the number of years of experience that HR professionals have. The final theoretical contribution of the present study was to propose a model suited for the family-owned firms in the KSA so that these firms might develop better-quality and more effective training functions.

The present study also made practical contributions to the field of HRM. Training is a dynamic and important HRM function in the family-owned business in the KSA. This research provided insights in part by identifying perception on training programs conducted in the respective family-owned firms in the KSA. It further provided deeper insights into different dimensions affecting the management training. The study provided nine dimensions or themes that express what employees in these family-owned firms perceived about management training; these themes indicate the key concerns for HR. This study also provided recommendations for business owners and HR managers to consider as they work to enhance the quality and effectiveness of their respective training functions and thus enhance the perception of the employees on the training programs.

In the future, research on the private and family-owned business sector in the KSA can be build upon the work presented here. Some examples of what the researcher felt needed further exploration were the steps that can be taken to improve HRM in the Saudi economy, the ways in which HR systems can be automated through the use of HRIS, and the possibility of using modern techniques in TNA.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Questionnaire for Employees

1. Name (optional): _____

2. Age: _____

3. Gender: ___ Male ___ Female

4: Educational Attainment: _____

5. Position: _____

Please read the statements carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following Statements by **circling the most appropriate answer** considering 5 as highest agreement point and 1 as lowest agreement point from your side as mentioned below:

- **5= Strongly Agree**
- **4= Agree**
- **3= Neither agree nor disagree or indifferent**
- **2= Disagree**
- **1= Strongly Disagree**

1	Training in this organisation is based on changing needs of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Training in this organisation is based on current business requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Training in this organisation is based on shareholders and owners requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Training realistically mirrored my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Training is directly related to my job's function on routine basis.	1	2	3	4	5

6	I was told “why” the training was important.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Before any training program the objectives were well aligned with the strategic business objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I see strong integration of training objectives and training delivery.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The training objectives have been clearly stated and communicated.	1	2	3	4	5
10	During training I was actively engaged.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Trainer was knowledgeable regarding content.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Training was developed by people an expert on the domain.	1	2	3	4	5
13	The material given was well designed and relevant.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Training has been imparted with fine balance of on the job and off the job methods.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Trainer has used many diverse methods to deliver the content in interesting manner.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I see training as fun based learning.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Training focused on developing managerial competencies in me.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Training programme was designed to prepare for higher managerial responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Training designed to people management	1	2	3	4	5
20	I see strong alignment between Training learned and transfer on job.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I am very happy with the training given.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Management must continuously organize such training.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Such training contributes effectively to one’s motivation.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I have been eagerly waiting to have the training.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Training has helped me to change my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5

26	Training has made visible behaviour change as seen by my boss.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Training has made visible behaviour change as seen by subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I have acquired at least one newer skill over past one year.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Training has given to me addressed the skill gaps I have.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Training has imparted newer skills, knowledge and attitudes to make me well prepared for my future roles.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Training has positively contributed to my performance in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
32	As compared to last year, I will be getting higher performance rewards due to training.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Training has helped me to address the performance gaps I have.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Training has improved my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
35	The learning have helped me to improve my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Training has given me an opportunity to apply my classroom learning on my job effectively.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix II

Questions for the Semi-Structured Interviews.

1. How do you come up with the job requirements for managerial positions?
2. Do you construct job requirements based on the strategic thrusts of the organisations?
How?
3. Do you consider the needs of your customers in coming up with job requirements for the managerial positions? If yes, how?
4. Do the needs of the other shareholders influence the development of the job requirements? How?
5. How do you determine whether an applicant is suitable to the managerial positions based on the job descriptions that you have developed?
6. Do you construct your training and development programs based on these job requirements?
7. Do you consider re-evaluating your current managers, whether or not they still meet current job requirements?
8. Do you take into account the comments and suggestions of customers in further developing your job requirements?
9. Do the standards of other companies affect the standards and development of their own job requirements?
10. Do your training and development programs improve as job requirements become stricter?
11. What actions do you take on incumbent managers who do not meet what is required of their job descriptions?
12. Do you take in mind your specific company's goal and business strategies in developing training program?

Appendix III:Forms and Arabic translation

To:

HR Manager

Object: Research Questionnaire

Dear Sir,

I am writing to ask for your valuable assistance in completing a questionnaire that is part of my Doctoral research which I am undertaking during my period of study at the Management School of Brunel University in the United Kingdom.

The research is related to human resources development and my topic is “Perception on Training Programs in Family-owned Firms in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia”.

The questionnaire should not take very long to complete for all the questions you need only to tick the appropriate boxes. All the information collected will be treated as strictly confidential and anonymous. Your name and that of your firm will not appear at all in any printed material and no part of the data will be used for any purpose other than the current piece of research. For your reassurance, your name and your firm’s name are not requested in any part of the questionnaire.

Your participation in this research is extremely important. A good response in answering the question is vital and can make all the difference in coming up with the valid result which could potentially form the basis for the formulation of constructive suggestions for improving future training and development in Saudi Arabia.

If you wish to receive a copy of the research finding, once the study is completed, please contact the researcher by email.

Thanking you in advance for your kind co-operation.

Yours

faithfully

الموضوع: بحث استبياني

سعادة مدير إدارة الموارد البشرية

المحترم

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.....وبعد

أمل من سعادتكم التكرم بمساعدتي في تعبئة الاستبانة المرفقة التي تعتبر جزء من البحث الذي اجريه لنيل شهادة الدكتوراه في قسم الإدارة بجامعة برونييل في المملكة المتحدة. يتعلق البحث بتطوير الموارد البشرية. من المتوقع أن لا يستغرق ملء هذه الاستبانة وقتاً طويلاً حيث لا تحتاج معظم الأسئلة إلا لوضع علامة صح في الحقل المناسب، علماً بأن المعلومات التي تدلي بها في هذه الاستبانة سيتم التعامل معها بكامل السرية ولن يتم استخدامها الا لغرض البحث العلمي فقط ولن يطلع عليها سوى الباحث، وللاطمئنان أكثر لن يتم الإشارة الى اسم المنشأة أو أسماء الأشخاص على الإطلاق.

إن مشاركتكم في هذا البحث وإجابكم على جميع الأسئلة سيكون له الأثر الكبير في الحصول على نتائج ذات قيمة علمية والتي ستشكل القاعدة التي يبنى عليها أي اقتراح بناء لتحسين برامج التدريب والتطوير في المملكة العربية السعودية. وإذا كان لديكم أي استفسار متعلق بهذا الاستبيان، أمل عدم التردد بالاتصال بالباحث هاتفياً على الرقم () او بإرسال رسالة بريد اليكتروني على:

وأخيراً إن كنتم ترغبون الحصول على نسخة من نتائج البحث بعد الانتهاء من هذه الدراسة فالرجاء مراسلتي على البريد الاليكتروني وسوف يتم تزويدكم بنسخة حال الانتهاء من البحث وطباعته.

شاكراً ومقدراً لكم حسن تعاونكم، والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،،

الباحث

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



المملكة العربية السعودية

وزارة التجارة والصناعة

الرقم : ٤٤ / ٤٤
التاريخ : ١٤٣٧ / ٤ / ٢٩
المرفقات : ١١١٦٢

المحترم

سعادة مدير عام مصنع/شركة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،،

نفيدكم بأن طالب الدكتوراه الباحث/ خالد بن صالح الوقيصي والمبتعث من وزارة التعليم العالي لنيل شهادة الدكتوراه من جامعة برونييل في المملكة المتحدة قسم الادارة ، وعنوان البحث هو ((نموذج لممارسات تحليل احتياجات التدريب للمدراء:دراسة على شركات القطاع الخاص في المملكة العربية السعودية)).

أمل التكرم بمساعدة الباحث بتزويده بالمعلومات التي يحتاجها لبحثه المشار اليه أعلاه.

مع أطيب تيماني وتقديري،،،

مدير عام إدارة العلاقات العامة

أحمد بن عباس جمال



العنوان : وزارة التجارة والصناعة ، المرعب - طريق الملك عبدالعزيز - الرياض الرمز البريدي ١١١٦٢ - هاتف : ٤٠١٢٢٢٢ الشهرى