

Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Djillali Liabes University

Faculty of Economics, Business and Management Sciences

Innovation and Marketing Management Laboratory



DOCTORAL THESIS

Training as a Strategic Choice for Competencies Development in Enterprises – Case Study on Selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbès Province, Algeria –

Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for The Doctorate Degree in
Human Resource Management

Submitted by

Mr. RAFFAR Abdelkader El Amir

Under The Supervision of

Pr. YAHIAOUI Slimane

Defended and Approved in October 2022

| Dissertation Defense Committee | | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|------------|
| Bensaid Mohamed | Professor | University of Sidi Bel Abbès | Chairman |
| Yahiaoui Slimane | Professor | University of Sidi Bel Abbès | Supervisor |
| Benbouziane Mohamed | Professor | University of Tlemcen | Examiner |
| Kerbouche Mohamed | Professor | University of Mascara | Examiner |
| Chikhi Kamel | Professor | High School of Management Tlemcen | Examiner |
| Filali Tarek | Associate Professor | University of Sidi Bel Abbès | Examiner |

-2022-

Abstract

This study came to diagnose the nature of the relationship between training strategy as an independent variable through its dimensions (current practices for training - the commitment of senior management – training effectiveness — the use of modern technology in training), the competencies development as the dependent variable and employee engagement as mediator variable within selected SMEs in Sidi bel abbes province. 260 questionnaires were distributed to employees working in six SMEs in Sidi bel abbes province; 243 questionnaires were returned with a response rate of 93%. Of these, 12 of the questionnaires received were excluded and 231 were processed for analysis. The study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. Applying Exploratory Factor Analysis in the first stage to identify the model that contains the factors that have the most significant effect on training strategy, competencies development, employee engagement using SPSS.V29, then in the second stage the fitness of the model was tested through Confirmatory Factor Analysis. SMART PLS software has been used to test all hypotheses and make analyses with various calculation methods i.e. Pls algorithm, Bootstrapping. The finding of the study shows that (01) there is a significant effect of training strategy and their variables on competencies development, (02) there is a significant effect of training strategy on employee engagement, (03) there is a significant effect of employee engagement on competencies development, (04) there is an indirect effect of training strategy on competencies development via employee engagement in selected SMEs in the province of Sidi Bel Abbas.

Keywords: Training Strategy, Competencies Development, Employee Engagement, Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), SmartPLS3.

Résumé

Cette étude a permis de diagnostiquer la nature de la relation entre la stratégie de la formation en tant que variable indépendante à travers ses dimensions (les pratiques actuelles de la formation – l'engagement de la haute direction – l'efficacité de la formation – l'utilisation de la technologie moderne dans la formation), le développement des compétences comme variable dépendante et l'engagement des employés en tant que variable médiatrice au sein des PME sélectionnées dans la ville de Sidi Bel Abbès. 260 questionnaires ont été distribués aux salariés dans les 06 PME sélectionnées de la ville de Sidi Bel Abbès ; 243 questionnaires ont été retournés avec un taux de réponse de 93 %. Parmi ceux-ci, 12 des questionnaires reçus ont été exclus et 231 ont été traités pour l'analyse. L'étude a utilisé à la fois des données primaires et secondaires. Les données primaires ont été recueillies au moyen de questionnaires et d'entretiens. En appliquant l'analyse factorielle exploratoire dans la première étape pour identifier le modèle qui contient les facteurs qui ont l'effet le plus significatif sur la stratégie de la formation, le développement des compétences et l'engagement des employés à l'aide de SPSS. V29, puis dans la deuxième étape, l'adéquation du modèle a été testée par une analyse factorielle confirmatoire. Le logiciel SMART PLS a été utilisé pour tester toutes les hypothèses et effectuer des analyses avec diverses méthodes de calcul, à savoir l'algorithme Pls, Bootstrapping. Les résultats de l'étude montrent que (01) il existe un effet significatif de la stratégie de la formation et leurs variables sur le développement des compétences, (02) il existe un effet significatif de la stratégie de la formation sur l'engagement des employés, (03) il existe un effet significatif de l'engagement des employés sur le développement des compétences, (04) il existe un effet indirect de la stratégie de la formation sur le développement des compétences via l'engagement des employés dans les PME sélectionnées dans la ville de Sidi Bel Abbès.

Mots-clés : Stratégie de la Formation, Développement des Compétences, Engagement des Employées, petites et moyennes entreprises (PMEs), SmartPLS3.

ملخص الدراسة

جاءت هذه الدراسة لتشخيص طبيعة العلاقة بين استراتيجية التكوين كمتغير مستقل من خلال أبعاده (الممارسات الحالية للتكوين - التزام الإدارة العليا - فعالية التكوين - استخدام التكنولوجيات الحديثة في التكوين)، وتنمية الكفاءات كمتغير تابع وإشراك العاملين باعتباره متغير وسيط ضمن عينة مختارة من المؤسسات الصغيرة والمتوسطة في ولاية سيدي بلعباس. تم توزيع 260 استبانة على العاملين في 06 مؤسسات صغيرة ومتوسطة في ولاية سيدي بلعباس؛ تم استرجاع 243 استبانة بنسبة استجابة 93%، تم استبعاد 12 استبانة ومعالجة 231 قابلة للتحليل. استخدمت الدراسة كلا من البيانات الأولية والثانوية، كما تم جمع البيانات الأولية من خلال الاستبيانات والمقابلات. تم تطبيق التحليل العامل الاستكشافي في المرحلة الأولى لتحديد النموذج الذي يحتوي على العوامل التي لها أكثر تأثير على استراتيجية التكوين، تطوير الكفاءات ومشاركة العاملين باستخدام SPSS، ثم في المرحلة الثانية تم اختبار ملاءمة النموذج من خلال التحليل العامل التوكيدي، تم استخدام برنامج SMART PLS لاختبار جميع الفرضيات وإجراء التحليل باستخدام طرق حساب مختلفة، مثل خوارزمية PLS وعملية مضاعفة حجم العينة 5000 مرة توليد (Bootstrapping). أظهرت نتائج الدراسة أنه (01) يوجد تأثير لاستراتيجية التكوين بأبعاده على تنمية الكفاءات، (02) يوجد تأثير لاستراتيجية التكوين على إشراك العاملين، (03) يوجد تأثير لإشراك العاملين على تنمية الكفاءات، (04) يوجد تأثير غير مباشر لاستراتيجية التكوين على تنمية الكفاءات من خلال إشراك العاملين في المؤسسات الصغيرة والمتوسطة محل الدراسة في ولاية سيدي بلعباس.

الكلمات المفتاحية: استراتيجية التكوين، تنمية الكفاءات، إشراك العاملين، مؤسسات صغيرة ومتوسطة، منهجية SmartPLS3.

Acknowledgment



“In the name of Allah, the beneficent, the merciful”

First, I would like to present my thankfulness to Allah (God) for giving me the strength to finish my Ph.D.

I would like to express my first and sincerest gratitude to my supervisor Professor YAHIAOUI Slimane. his continuous motivation, constant support, and endless patience direct me to complete this research. he has always been generous with offering me countless and invaluable advice, encouraging me to develop my research skills. his professional attitude deeply influences me on the way to being a researcher. he has great knowledge and experience in the human resource management field and he guided and motivated me immensely to achieve my research objectives effectively and promptly. he gave me a lot of time and he was available for me always. I do not have sufficient words that could describe the efforts that Professor Yahiaoui put into my research.

My thanks also go to my family, who are always there for me. My greatest appreciation goes to my Mother, who has always trusted in my actions. Your firm decision not to allow me to quit research and studies has borne fruit. Now, I must definitely agree with you that education is the most important asset for any individual. My sincere gratitude also goes to my sisters. I realize that no amount of money could repay the love and care you all have given me. My thanks would not be complete without expressing my gratitude to my wife and lovely daughters RIHEM, DJIHEN, and MED IYED FIRAS, who are part of this journey. I appreciate all of you for the effort you have made in trying to understand and support me during the good and bad times.

I also would like to thank the members of my dissertation defense committee, Pr BENSaid Mohamed, Pr BENBOUZIANE Mohamed, Pr KERBOUCHE Mohamed, Pr CHIKHI Kamel, Dr FILALI Tarek for such excellent feedback on my project. I appreciate the intellectual conversations I have had with each of them. Thank you for having accepted the invitation to review and assess my thesis.

I would like to mention Pr. DJEMIL Abdeljalil, Dr. BELKHRISSAT Rachid, Pr. BENSAID Mohamed, Pr. OUIRED Zouaoui, Pr. TAFER Zoheir, Pr. BENDIDA Houari, Pr. BOURAHLA Allal, Pr. BEHIIH Abdelkader, Pr. BACHONDA Rafik, Mr. SAADOUNI Chaouki, Dr. KATEB Karim for their time, understanding, encouragement, continuous help, unconditional support, and comments throughout the various stages of my research and all the happy times we spent together. I would also like to mention Dr. Bensaid Lakhdar for all your support during my time as an Associate professor. I would also like to express gratitude to all of those who have kindly and generously provided me comments and feedback in all the conferences where I have presented this work.

I wish to express heartfelt thanks to Dr. MAAMIR Abdellatif for his continuous help, support and comments throughout the various stages of my practical research.

Many thanks also go to CHOUAF Djamel assisted me in my Ph.D. journey. I wish to thank all of my colleagues for all the emotional support, camaraderie, entertainment, and care they provided to me.

Lastly, I am very grateful to the professors and the administrative staff in the faculty of economic, business, and management sciences of Djilali Liabes University in Sidi bel abbes for all their help, their intellectual insights and suggestions have given me support and helped me to enjoy the research journey.

Thank you!

Dedication

This Research Work is Dedicated to my Wonderful and Beloved Mother Who Has Laid the Solid Foundation of my Education, her Tireless Effort, Unquenchable Love, and Support Throughout the Duration of the Program.

To the Memory of my Father, in Remembrance of the Sacrifice, he Made for Us.

To my Wife, my Sisters for their Love, Patience, and Sharing Every Moment with me Throughout this Work.

To the Honorable Families **RAFFAR, BENHABARA, MEDJAHED, MEKKAOUI, BENATIA, and BENAMRA.**

To all my Professors, Friends and Colleagues Who Assisted me one Way or the Other I Really Appreciate your Kind Gestures Towards me may God Reward you all.

I Dedicate this Thesis to them for their Love, Patience, Understanding, and Sacrifice.

Finally, I Would Like to Thank all of those Individuals Who Assist Me with Access to Organizations and Participated in my Research. I Appreciate the Time you Have Given.

El Amir Abd-el-Kader RAFFAR.

Declaration

I declare that the Ph.D. thesis titled “**Training as a Strategic Choice for Competencies Development in Enterprises –Case Study of Selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbas Province, Algeria**” is my work and effort and has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

I confirm that appropriate credit has been given in this thesis where reference has been made to the work of others.

This thesis has been completed under the supervision of Professor Yahiaoui Slimane at the University of Djilali Liabes Sidi bel abbes.

Signed.....

Date.....

Publications

Conference Proceedings-Refereed

1. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Advanced SWOT analysis of blockchain technology in the banking industry. The first national Virtual Conference on Electronic Transactions in Algeria between Reality and Hope Lessons learned from the Covid-19 pandemic, 01 march 2021, Bechar, Algeria.
2. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Knowledge management and open innovation: what are we learning from the response to the time of crisis and opportunity? The seven International Virtual Conference on Crisis Management and Anticipating Future Opportunities after Corona - Transforming the course of crises from threats to opportunities, 26-27 May 2021, Bechar, Algeria.
3. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Is digital marketing coming of age? an overview of the penetration of social media. The national Virtual conference on E-marketing as a mechanism to raise the competitiveness of economic institutions, 30 march 2021, Bouira, Algeria.
4. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Moving from traditional to digital marketing in the era of industry 4.0. The national Virtual conference on E-marketing between job opportunities and the risks of fake markets, 13 march 2021, Adrar, Algeria.
5. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Electronic human resource management E-HRM and effective decision making - the experience of Alicante university Spain -. The international Virtual conference on digitization is a guarantee of the quality of higher education and the achievement of sustainable development, 21-22 Feb 2021, Boumerdes, Algeria.
6. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Adapting HR management with information technology: a study of HR transformations toward the digital age in Mexican firms. The international virtual conference on the future of digitalization applications in the light of pandemic - reality, challenges, and perspectives, 10-11 April 2021, Tindouf, Algeria.
7. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Industry 4.0 and digital marketing: investigating the past and predicting the future. The international Virtual conference on the economic, commercial, and management sciences, 27 march 2021, Oran, Algeria.

8. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). From linear to a circular economy: exploring industry 4.0 technologies as a proposed integration to accelerate sustainable development. The second international Virtual interdisciplinary conference on evaluating the economic impacts of the waste recycling process, 27-28 Feb 2021, Setif, Algeria.
9. **Raffar, A.A. & djemil, A.** (2021). Remote working: why is it important during the COVID 19 lockdown. The international Virtual conference on Corona Virus Pandemic: Reflections, Challenges, and Opportunities for Prosperity, 13 march 2021, Blida, Algeria.
10. **Raffar, A.A. & Yahiaoui, S.** (2021). The experience of the e-learning implementation in higher education institutions in MALAYSIA: virtual universities in the third millennium. The national Virtual conference on a forward-looking vision for the future of digital education in Algeria, 21 Dec 2020, Msila, Algeria.
11. **Raffar, A.A. & Yahiaoui, S.** (2021). The strategic value of electronic human resources within successful organizations: The Chinese experience. The national Virtual Conference on Electronic management applications and ways to secure them in Algerian institutions - the reality of application and future challenges, 05 Jan 2021, Tissemsilet, Algeria.
12. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). 2021 Perspective on «Islamic crowdfunding platform and fintech for bridging the funding gaps of start-ups in Islamic banking. The national Virtual conference on Activating the financing mechanisms for micro and start-up enterprises in Algeria, 27 Jan 2021, Sidi Bel Abbes, Algeria.
13. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). The role of technological prognosis and vigilance in improving universities to the state of excellent performance. The international Virtual conference on the methods of using modern technologies in the educational process - reality and challenges, 06-07 Feb 2021, Adrar, Algeria.
14. **Raffar, A.A. & Bensaid, L. & Djemil, A.** (2021). Circular economy as a panacea for accelerating the sustainable development. The national Virtual conference on the Investment diversification and its effects on sustainable development in Algeria, 30 July 2021, Sidi Bel Abbes, Algeria.
15. **Raffar, A.A. & Djemil, A. & Bensaid, L.** (2021). E-learning and crisis: what lessons have we learned? a comparative study during Ebola epidemic and Covid 19 pandemic. The national Virtual conference on The reality and prospects of

- digital orientation in light of the Corona crisis, 30 May 2021, Sidi Bel Abbes, Algeria.
16. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). The integration of learning organizational with open innovation: the central key of the knowledge management system. The International Virtual Conference on Knowledge management between theoretical approaches and practical practices, 29 May 2021, El Oued, Algeria.
 17. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Turning of banks towards blockchain technology in the time of crisis management. The national Virtual Conference on International finance and the problem of economic development in developing countries, 13 May 2021, Sidi Bel Abbes, Algeria.
 18. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Promoting of stay-at-home learning via Algerian universities during the COVID-19 pandemic. The international Virtual conference on Corona crisis and the world - a reading of reality and an outlook for the future, 26 May 2021, Biskra, Algeria.
 19. **Raffar, A.A.** & Oured, Z. (2021). Living in uncertainty in the economic sector: challenges to entrepreneurship education and innovation during COVID-19. The national Virtual conference on Entrepreneurship in the university environment, 14 Nov 2021, Sidi Bel Abbes, Algeria.
 20. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Smart Contracts and Block Chain Technology in The Financial Industry. The international Virtual conference on Digital finance and its role in promoting financial inclusion to ensure sustainable financing, 01 Dec 2021, Bechar, Algeria.
 21. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). From Corona Virus to Corona Crisis: The Entrepreneurship Education and Innovation as The New Panacea for Economic Growth. The national Virtual conference on Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial work in Algeria and the mechanisms for its activation in the university community, 24 March 2022, Bourdj Bou Arreridj, Algeria.
 22. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Islamic Tourism as an Anchor Industry for Economic Development: a Case Study of Indonesia Tourism Revenue Growth 2002-2021. The International Virtual Conference on Algeria's Tourism Economy, 20-22 March 2022, Setif, Algeria.
 23. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Entrepreneurship education: Solution for Promoting Enterprises Socio-Economic Development. The National Virtual Conference on

Entrepreneurial education and institution establishment, 31 March 2022, Djelfa, Algeria.

24. **Raffar, A.A.** & Bensaid, L. (2022). The Circular Economy as a Pathway to Sustainable Economic Welfare. The Fifth National Virtual Conference on Mechanisms for diversifying the Algerian national economy and promoting foreign trade outside the fuel sector, 10 May 2022, Bechar, Algeria.
25. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). An overview on systematic literature reviews in web-based marketing: a new tool for international marketing. The National Virtual Conference on The Reality and Importance of International Marketing Management in Contemporary Organizations, 12 May 2022, Msila, Algeria.
26. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). too far to care? Work-from-anywhere under covid-19. The National Virtual Conference on Digital Transformation in the Human Resource Management Function (Remote Working), 11 May 2022, Annaba, Algeria.
27. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Why Especially Women Leadership and Empowerment Became Necessary? New Concepts from Action. The National Virtual Conference on Economic empowerment of women and their role in sustainable development, 30 May 2022, Sidi Bel Abbes, Algeria.
28. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Towards the Spanish Electronic Model on Human Resource Management Decision Making. The National Virtual Conference on Electronic Management and the Necessities of Digital Transformation in Human Resource Management, 20 June 2022, Bouira, Algeria.
29. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Blockchain for Intelligent Grids Management: A Case Study for Various Projects and Initiatives. The International Virtual Conference on the Big Data and the Digital Economy, 18 June 2022, El Oued, Algeria.
30. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). A short introduction to the world of blockchain-based cryptocurrencies: A Developing Asset Class. The International Virtual Conference on The use of technology in financial institutions and emerging institutions, 05 June 2022, Berlin, Germany.
31. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Islamic Crowdfunding in Indonesia: why are investors Bullish on Fintech Sector? The first virtual international conference entitled: "Financial technology as a mechanism to stimulate digital financial inclusion in light of the Corona pandemic crisis", 28 September 2022, algiers, Algeria.

32. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). Islamic Banking and Fintech Revolution: New Forms of Financing Under the Umbrella of the Future Agenda? The Virtual International Conference Entitled: " The Digital Platform Economy - Opportunities and Challenges -", 28 June 2022, Kolea, Algeria.

Journal Articles: Submitted-Under Review

1. **Raffar, A.A.** (2020). Human Capital Investment as a Generator for Innovative Practices in Algerian Start-ups: Reality and Challenges. *Annals of Bechar University in Economic Sciences*, 7 (3), 548–563.
2. **Raffar, A.A.**, & Yahiaoui, S. (2021). Training and Incentives as Determinants of Employee Performance Improvement in Algeria Tramway Companies " Empirical Evidence from Setram Company Located in The City of Sidi Bel Abbas". *Al Bashaer Economic Journal*, 7 (1), 1013–1031.
3. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Designing Digital Game-Based Learning Approach to Facilitate Educational Objectives: Exploring New Technological Tools for Education. *Society and sports Journal*, 4 (2), 203–215.
4. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Does electronic human resources management (E-HRM) lead to improve organizational performance? *International journal of human settlements*, 5 (1), 116–129.
5. **Raffar, A.A.** (2021). Augmented reality technology as a spatial and visual learning tool in education in the age of COVID-19 pandemic. *International journal of human settlements*, 5 (1), 98–115.
6. **Raffar, A.A.** (2022). The economic and financial context of well-being: an integrated explanation of the social capital. *Social empowerment journal*, 4(1), 98–115.

Acronyms/Abbreviations

ASTD: American Society for Training and Development.

CIRO: Context evaluation, Input evaluation, Reaction evaluation, and Outcome.

KSA: Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes.

T&D: Training and Development.

HRD: Human Resource Development.

HRM: Human Resource Management.

SHRD: Strategic Human Resource Development.

TNA: Training Needs Analysis/Assessment.

HR: Human Resources.

CIPP: Context, Input, Process, Product Evaluation Model.

SHRD: Strategic Human Resource Development.

SMEs: Small and Medium Size Enterprises.

SEM: Structural equation modelling.

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Science.

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis.

KMO: Kaiser Meyer Olkin.

AVE: Average variance extracted.

HTMT: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations.

SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

NFI: Normed Fit Index.

R2: R Square.

F2: F square.

SD: Standard Deviation.

List of Contents

| | | |
|--------|--|-----|
| 1 | Chapter one | xxx |
| | Introduction | 31 |
| 1.1 | Research background:..... | 31 |
| 1.2 | Problem Statement..... | 36 |
| 1.3 | Research questions | 37 |
| 1.4 | Objective of the Study | 37 |
| 1.4.1 | General Objective..... | 38 |
| 1.4.2 | specific objectives: | 38 |
| 1.5 | Definition of key concepts..... | 39 |
| 1.6 | The Significance of the Research | 40 |
| 1.7 | justification for selecting SMEs in Sidi bel abbes city | 40 |
| 1.8 | Research Design: Justification for Using the Multimethod Approach..... | 41 |
| 1.9 | Justification for The Study | 41 |
| 1.10 | Limitation of the study..... | 42 |
| 1.11 | Thesis Structure | 43 |
| 1.12 | Research hypothesis..... | 44 |
| 1.12.1 | Hypothesis 01:..... | 44 |
| 1.12.2 | Hypothesis 02:..... | 45 |
| 1.12.3 | Hypothesis 03:..... | 45 |

| | | |
|--------|--|-----|
| 1.12.4 | Hypothesis 04:..... | 45 |
| 1.13 | Previous Studies..... | 45 |
| 1.14 | The Critical of Previous Studies and Research Gap | 65 |
| 2 | Chapter Two..... | 70 |
| 2.1 | Human Resource Management..... | 73 |
| 2.1.1 | The Resource-based view..... | 73 |
| 2.1.2 | Limitations of resource-based view and development of dynamic capabilities 77 | |
| 2.1.3 | The emergence and characteristics of HRM | 78 |
| 2.1.4 | Defining HRM..... | 80 |
| 2.1.5 | The Micro- and Macro-Perspectives of HRM..... | 86 |
| 2.1.6 | HRM Roles..... | 87 |
| 2.1.7 | Overview of Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM)..... | 88 |
| 2.1.8 | Towards an integration of the perspectives/approaches..... | 94 |
| 2.1.9 | HRM in the 21't Century and the Importance of Training | 95 |
| 2.2 | Human Resource Development: A Theoretical Perspective | 97 |
| 2.2.1 | Human Resource Development..... | 98 |
| 2.2.2 | HRD as a process with multi-perspective | 101 |
| 2.2.3 | The origins of HRD | 102 |
| 2.2.4 | Characteristics of HRD | 102 |
| 2.2.5 | History of the rise of HRD | 103 |

| | | |
|--------|---|-----|
| 2.2.6 | T&D and HRD | 105 |
| 2.2.7 | Intended Beneficiary and General Purposes of HRD..... | 107 |
| 2.2.8 | HRD and Learning Organization | 109 |
| 2.2.9 | Location of HRD within the Organizational Structure | 109 |
| 2.2.10 | HRD and Systems Theory..... | 112 |
| 2.2.11 | HRD and Alignment Models..... | 114 |
| 2.2.12 | The relationship between HRM and HRD | 118 |
| 2.2.13 | HRM and Innovation and Creativity | 120 |
| 2.2.14 | The Definition of SHRD | 123 |
| 2.2.15 | SHRD Main Characteristics: Factors Influencing T&D Effectiveness..... | 126 |
| 2.2.16 | Strategic Training and Development (STD) programs | 127 |
| 2.3 | The Emergence of Training and Development..... | 128 |
| 2.3.1 | World War II, Training Within Industry (TWI)..... | 128 |
| 2.3.2 | The Emergence of Systems for Training and Instructional Technology .. | 129 |
| 2.3.3 | Origins of OD..... | 130 |
| 2.3.4 | The Concept of Training | 133 |
| 2.3.5 | Purpose of Training..... | 136 |
| 2.3.6 | Benefits of Training and Development | 137 |
| 2.3.7 | The Objectives of Training | 138 |
| 2.3.8 | Reasons for Carrying Out Training and Development..... | 140 |

| | | |
|--------|---|-----|
| 2.3.9 | Factors Hindering Training and Development..... | 142 |
| 2.3.10 | Systematic T&D Approach and Process | 144 |
| 2.3.11 | Training Methods | 163 |
| 2.3.12 | Learning and Education and Their Relation To T&D..... | 169 |
| 2.4 | Definition of Competencies..... | 172 |
| 2.4.1 | The Purposes of Competencies | 175 |
| 2.4.2 | Benefits and Limitations of Using Competencies..... | 177 |
| 2.4.3 | Key Elements of Competences | 178 |
| 2.4.4 | Characteristics of Competence..... | 180 |
| 2.4.5 | Using Competencies in Organizational Contexts..... | 182 |
| 2.4.6 | Relationship Between Competencies and Human Resource Development 184 | |
| 2.5 | The History of Employee Engagement | 186 |
| 2.5.1 | Employee Engagement..... | 187 |
| 2.5.2 | Employee Engagement as a Unique Construct | 189 |
| 2.5.3 | Enhancing Employee Engagement..... | 190 |
| 2.5.4 | Human Resources Management and Employee Engagement..... | 191 |
| 2.5.5 | Employee Engagement and Training | 193 |
| 3 | Chapter three | 195 |
| 3.1 | SMEs definition..... | 196 |
| 3.1.1 | Case Study of AZZOUZ Mills..... | 196 |

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 3.1.2 | Case study of CHIALI-Tubes subsidiary | 198 |
| 3.1.3 | Case study of FAMAG (manufacture of agricultural equipment) | 200 |
| 3.1.4 | Case study of the FROMALAIT company (dairy production) | 202 |
| 3.1.5 | Case study of the company KCA (KHENTEUR COMPOSANTS AUTOMOBILES)..... | 203 |
| 3.1.6 | Case study of MED IJK | 205 |
| 3.2 | Justification for Methodology | 207 |
| 3.3 | Research Design and Approach..... | 208 |
| 3.4 | Research Philosophy | 212 |
| 3.5 | The Ontology Philosophy | 213 |
| 3.6 | Epistemology philosophy | 213 |
| 3.7 | Multi-method Approach | 214 |
| 3.7.1 | Quantitative Approach | 215 |
| 3.7.2 | Qualitative Approach: (interview) | 216 |
| 3.8 | The Design and Rationale of the Study | 217 |
| 3.9 | Target Population, Sampling Techniques, and Sample Size | 218 |
| 3.9.1 | Target Population | 218 |
| 3.9.2 | Research sampling..... | 219 |
| 3.9.3 | Sampling Techniques | 220 |
| 3.10 | Sources of Data | 222 |

| | | |
|--------|---|-----|
| 3.10.1 | Data Collection Plan and Analysis Timeline | 223 |
| 3.10.2 | Instrument of Data Collection | 223 |
| 3.11 | Procedures of Data Collection | 232 |
| 3.11.1 | Pilot Testing | 232 |
| 3.11.2 | The Timing of the Research | 233 |
| 3.11.3 | Research validity and reliability..... | 234 |
| 3.12 | Method of Data Analysis | 240 |
| 3.13 | Ethical Considerations | 241 |
| 3.14 | Data Analysis Approach | 242 |
| 3.15 | Review of Research Methodology and Analytical Methods | 245 |
| 3.16 | Introduction to Structural Equation Modelling and Partial Least Squares ... | 246 |
| 3.17 | A Review of Applications of PLS-SEM..... | 247 |
| 3.17.1 | PLS-SEM in Strategic Management | 247 |
| 3.18 | Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling..... | 248 |
| 3.18.1 | The PLS-SEM Algorithm | 248 |
| 3.19 | Factor Analysis | 249 |
| 3.20 | Measurement Model | 250 |
| 3.20.1 | Principle Factor Model..... | 251 |
| 3.20.2 | Composite Latent Model..... | 251 |
| 3.20.3 | Similarities Between Two Models | 252 |

| | | |
|--------|---|-----|
| 3.21 | Model Evaluation..... | 253 |
| 3.21.1 | Assessment of the Measurement Models..... | 253 |
| 3.21.2 | Assessment of the Structural Model | 257 |
| 3.22 | Mediating Effect | 259 |
| 3.23 | Chapter Summary | 259 |
| 4 | Chapter four..... | 260 |
| 4.1 | Data Analysis and Interpretation | 261 |
| 4.2 | Personal Information of the Respondents..... | 261 |
| 4.2.1 | Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents..... | 263 |
| 4.3 | Analysis of Collected Data..... | 268 |
| 4.3.1 | Descriptive Data Analysis..... | 268 |
| 4.3.2 | Targeted Questions Related to the Subject Matter of the Study | 268 |
| 4.3.3 | Exploratory Factor Analysis | 298 |
| 4.3.4 | Confirmatory Factor Analysis..... | 302 |
| 4.3.5 | Assessment of Normality | 303 |
| 4.4 | Measurement Model Assessment..... | 304 |
| 4.4.1 | Internal Consistency Reliability | 305 |
| 4.4.2 | Indicator Reliability..... | 305 |
| 4.4.3 | Convergent Validity | 305 |
| 4.4.4 | Discriminant Validity..... | 309 |

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 4.4.5 | The Goodness of Model Fit..... | 311 |
| 4.5 | Structural Model..... | 311 |
| 4.5.1 | Coefficient of Determination (R2)..... | 312 |
| 4.6 | Path Coefficients | 313 |
| 4.7 | Hypotheses Testing | 314 |
| 4.8 | Mediating Effects | 316 |
| 4.9 | Effect Size (f2 Value)..... | 317 |
| 4.10 | Predictive Relevance Q2..... | 317 |
| 4.11 | Interview Analysis and Findings | 318 |
| 4.12 | Chapter Summary | 326 |
| 5 | Chapter five..... | 327 |
| 5.1 | Summary of the Finding..... | 328 |
| 5.2 | Summary of Hypothesis | 329 |
| 5.3 | Conclusion..... | 340 |
| 5.4 | Contributions to Knowledge..... | 343 |
| 5.4.1 | Theoretical Contributions..... | 343 |
| 5.4.2 | Practical Contributions..... | 344 |
| 5.4.3 | Contributions to HRD Knowledge..... | 345 |
| 5.5 | Recommendations and Future Research..... | 345 |
| 5.6 | Process for Developing an Effective and Well-Constructed Training Program .. | 351 |

| | |
|------------------------------------|-----|
| 5.6 Limitations of the Study | 353 |
| References | 355 |
| Appendices | 408 |

List of Tables

| | |
|---|------------|
| <i>table 1 Key Definitions of Human Resource Management</i> | <u>82</u> |
| <i>table 2 Characteristics of formative and summative assessment</i> | <u>153</u> |
| <i>table 3 Differences in Emphasis in Qualitative versus Quantitative Methods (Ghuri et al., 2020).</i> | <u>209</u> |
| <i>table 4 Representation of SMEs</i> | <u>221</u> |
| <i>table 5 The choice of the sample the Fieldwork of the Study</i> | <u>222</u> |
| <i>table 6 Content validity</i> | <u>237</u> |
| <i>table 7 Reliability statistics</i> | <u>240</u> |
| <i>table 8 rules of thumb between selecting CB-SEM and PLS-SEM</i> | <u>244</u> |
| <i>table 9 Summaries of validity guidelines for assessing reflective measurement model</i> | <u>255</u> |
| <i>table 10 indices of global model fit</i> | <u>257</u> |
| <i>table 11 Structural model validity guidelines for assessing reflective structural model</i> | <u>258</u> |
| <i>table 12 Personal Information of the Respondents</i> | <u>262</u> |
| <i>table 13 Comparison Base for Mean Score Values of Five Point Likert Scale Instruments</i> | <u>269</u> |
| <i>table 14 indicator of variables “training needs assessment”</i> | <u>269</u> |
| <i>table 15 indicator of variables “training design”</i> | <u>270</u> |
| <i>table 16 indicator of variables “training delivery”</i> | <u>271</u> |
| <i>table 17 indicator of variables “training assessment”</i> | <u>272</u> |
| <i>table 18 indicator of variables “the commitment of senior management”</i> | <u>273</u> |
| <i>table 19 indicator of variables “training effectiveness”</i> | <u>273</u> |
| <i>table 20 indicator of variables “the adoption of modern technologies”</i> | <u>274</u> |
| <i>table 21 indicator of variables “competencies development</i> | <u>274</u> |
| <i>table 22 indicator of variables “employee engagement</i> | <u>276</u> |
| <i>table 23 Factor 1 (training needs assessment)</i> | <u>277</u> |
| <i>table 24 Factor 2 (training design)</i> | <u>280</u> |
| <i>table 25 Factor 3 (training delivery)</i> | <u>283</u> |

| | |
|--|------------|
| table 26 <i>Factor 3 (training assessment)</i> | 285 |
| table 27 <i>Factor 3 (the commitment of senior management)</i> | 287 |
| table 28 <i>Factor 3 (Training Effectiveness)</i> | 289 |
| table 29 <i>Factor 7 (the adoption of modern technologies)</i> | 290 |
| table 30 <i>Factor 8 (competencies development)</i> | 292 |
| table 31 <i>Factor 9 (employee engagement)</i> | 296 |
| table 32 <i>Exploratory Factor Analysis</i> | 302 |
| table 33 <i>Measurement model assessment</i> | 306 |
| table 34 <i>Inter-correlation Matrix</i> | 310 |
| table 35 <i>Model fit indexes</i> | 311 |
| table 36 <i>The value of R2</i> | 312 |
| table 37 <i>latent variables correlations</i> | 313 |
| table 38 <i>Path Coefficients, Observed T- Statistics, Significant Level for all hypothesized Paths</i> | 314 |
| table 39 <i>Mediator Test (Special indirect effects)</i> | 315 |
| table 40 <i>Summary of Hypothesis Testing</i> | 316 |
| table 41 <i>The value of effect size (f2)</i> | 317 |
| table 42 <i>Predictive Relevance</i> | 317 |
| table 43 <i>summary of hypothesis</i> | 376 |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|-----|
| <i>Figure 1 The relationship between traditional SWOT analysis, the Resource-based model,</i> | 76 |
| <i>Figure 2 The Harvard model (Beer et al, 1984)</i> | 91 |
| <i>Figure 3 The Michigan Model (Fombrun et al., 1984)</i> | 91 |
| <i>Figure 4 Commonalities and Differences Between T&D and HRD</i> | 106 |
| <i>Figure 5 intended beneficiary of human resource development</i> | 108 |
| <i>Figure 6 interrelated functions of human resource development</i> | 108 |
| <i>Figure 7 parallel nexus</i> | 110 |
| <i>Figure 8 proxy nexus</i> | 111 |
| <i>Figure 9 HRD based on KM, OL and LO theories and practice</i> | 114 |
| <i>Figure 10 HRD learning and development process and activities based on alignment theory</i> | 117 |
| <i>Figure 11 Parallel pathways of HRM and HRD</i> | 120 |
| <i>Figure 12 A model or scale of training maturity, Lee (1996)</i> | 125 |
| <i>Figure 13 strategic training and development process</i> | 127 |
| <i>Figure 14 A timeline of the early history of T&D and OD.</i> | 131 |
| <i>Figure 15 Some situations that create a need for training and development</i> | 142 |
| <i>Figure 16 The training and development process model</i> | 145 |
| <i>Figure 17 Training needs analysis sources</i> | 148 |
| <i>Figure 18 Factors affecting the planning and implementation of training programmes</i> | 151 |
| <i>Figure 19 Kirkpatrick's model for evaluating T&D outcomes</i> | 155 |
| <i>Figure 20 Methodology Framework</i> | 210 |
| <i>Figure 21 Gender of the respondents</i> | 263 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 22 Age distribution of the respondents | 264 |
| Figure 23 Education level | 265 |
| Figure 24 Current position | 266 |
| Figure 25 Work experience | 267 |
| Figure 26 training courses | 268 |

List of Appendices

| | |
|--|------------|
| <i>Appendix 01 Questionnaire.....</i> | <i>410</i> |
| <i>Appendix 02 Interview</i> | <i>423</i> |
| <i>Appendix 03 Data collection Schedule.....</i> | <i>428</i> |
| <i>Appendix 04 Assessment of normality.....</i> | <i>430</i> |
| <i>Appendix 05 The Cross -Loading Output Using Smart PLS</i> | <i>431</i> |
| <i>Appendix 06 Basic Model With PLS Path Modeling.....</i> | <i>432</i> |
| <i>Appendix 07 Model After Correcting Errors.....</i> | <i>433</i> |
| <i>Appendix 08 AVE values.....</i> | <i>434</i> |
| <i>Appendix 09 CR values</i> | <i>435</i> |
| <i>Appendix 10 Q2 values</i> | <i>436</i> |
| <i>Appendix 11 R2 values</i> | <i>437</i> |
| <i>Appendix 12 Alpha Cronbach values</i> | <i>438</i> |
| <i>Appendix 13 Path Coefficient</i> | <i>439</i> |
| <i>Appendix 14 history of training</i> | <i>440</i> |

1 Chapter one

General introduction

Introduction

Training and development as a function of human resource management are concerned with the organizational activity that is aimed at improving the skills of the workforce and groups in organizational settings. Training and development are two terms that are used to refer to the same thing. Organizational training and development results in increased profits for the company while also creating more favorable attitudes toward profit orientation among employees. Individuals benefit from training and development since it increases their work expertise while also assisting them in identifying with the aims of the business. It is possible to describe training and development as the systematic planning of learning events that prepare people to execute their present and future tasks.

Employee and organizational training have risen to become the most significant factors in the modern corporate environment since training promotes the efficiency and effectiveness of both people and organizations. Through learning, education, teaching, and carefully organized experience, training may be used to systematically reshape one's behavior, attitude, and abilities. Training is intended to alter or enhance the behavior of people in the workplace in order to increase their productivity and efficiency. Adding value to a company's human capital is the primary goal of training, which is to aid the business in achieving both short- and long-term goals. Not only are training and development activities carried out for the sake of training, but they are also carried out to meet specific demands.

An overview and backdrop to the research of the influence of training strategy on the development of skills in SMEs chosen from the province of Sidi bel abbes are provided in the first chapter of this book. Following a discussion of the research backdrop, the chapter moves on to discuss the research goals and objectives, the research questions, the research hypothesis, the necessity for the study, and ultimately the study's structure.

1.1 Research background:

As we enter the second decade of the twenty-first century, change continues to be a recurring topic. Organizations in both the commercial and governmental sectors will need to adapt to social, technical, economic, and political change in a timely and flexible manner if they are to survive and succeed. This indicates that the organization's capacity to deal with both

external and internal needs will determine its survival and development prospects. Thus, current and new employees will need to constantly update their knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and views as a result of the organization's strategic plan (Buckley & Caple, 2009). Training may be used by a company to help workers overcome their shortcomings. Effective training may often result in productivity benefits that more than cover the expense of the training. Education and training are particularly crucial in businesses where technology is constantly developing. In the context of an organization, training is a learning process through which people acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to aid in the achievement of organizational objectives. Considering that the learning process is related to a range of organizational goals, training equips workers with particular, recognizable information and abilities that they can put to use on the task at hand. It is no longer an issue of whether or not an organization wants to grow its people resources; rather, it is a question of survival whether or not an organization wishes to develop its human resources.

Every company was founded with a certain set of goals in mind that it wished to accomplish. It is possible to fulfill these goals by making use of available resources such as people, equipment, materials, and money. Even while all of these resources are significant, manpower is by far the most crucial of them all. It is critical in the completion of tasks necessary for the achievement of the objectives. Person performance is defined as the mannerisms and attitudes that an employee exhibits while at work. The workers are expected to carry out their responsibilities following the established standards established by the employer.

Skills and expertise may become outdated in the same manner that machinery and technology can, if not more quickly. As a result, for an organization to continue, it must be maintained up to date continuously. Myers (1981) said that no firm has the ability to choose whether or not to teach its staff in favor of this position. Employees, regardless of their educational background or professional experience, must be trained throughout the duration of their employment. Continued training, they said, might aid workers in developing their learning abilities by allowing them to adapt quickly and easily and learn how to utilize new types of equipment as well as cope with drastic changes in the nature of their jobs and work-related activities.

Organizations such as businesses and other organizations have taken notice of the aforementioned fact, and they are actively involved in offering their workers with training and

development possibilities. Organizations are investing a large amount of money on employee training and development on a constant basis these days, with the awareness that money spent on staff development programs should not be created and implemented only for the sake of doing so.

The purpose of employee training is to develop the skills and potential of workers in order for them to perform their responsibilities more effectively. Effective training programs contribute significantly to the improvement of an organization's competitiveness, productivity, sustainability, and the quality of the product/service provided to customers; they reduce the need for close supervision, increase morale, and increase the organization's ability to adapt to new methods and technologies (Cowling & Mailer, 2013). As a result, training programs are very beneficial to both individuals and the business when they are implemented in a planned and methodical manner.

Training, on the other hand, was defined by Cascio and Boudreau (2012) as a structured program done to increase employee knowledge, skill, and social behavior in order for the organization's performance to improve significantly. According to Griffin (2010), training is often defined as the process of educating an operational or technical employee how to perform the duties for which they have been employed. According to the criteria above, it is easy to conclude that all academics agree on the fact that training equips workers with distinct, recognizable knowledge and abilities that they may apply to their current occupations.

The words training and development are sometimes used interchangeably. However, there are certain parallels and distinctions between training and development. Regarding the similarities and differences between training and development, Robbins and DeCenzo (1999) state that both are similar in the methods used to affect learning, improve employees' and organizations' competencies, and prepare them to deal with the challenges of a constantly changing environment. However, they vary in terms of time span, with training being more present-day focused; its emphasis is on people's existing employment, strengthening those particular skills and talents that will allow them to execute their duties immediately. Development, on the other hand, is a long-term activity that is concerned with the needs of future employees in an organization's workforce. Griffin (2010) defined the distinction between training and development as follows: training is the acquisition of knowledge and skills, often through the use of a manual for a specific job, whereas development is the improvement and

Chapter One : General Introduction

growth of an individual's faculties, and attitudes, insights, and traits. Training is the acquisition of knowledge and skills, often through the use of a manual for a specific job.

According to Vemi (2007), training should not be done only for the purpose of training itself. It must be tailored to the specific aims of the organization in question. It is critical to understand what skills are now in place and, in light of the agreed-upon objectives, what training is necessary to achieve those goals. Training also assists an employee in acquiring the appropriate combination of information, skills, and attitudes, allowing them to effectively complete their work duties (Kumpikaite, 2008). Effective training may often result in productivity benefits that more than cover the expense of the training. When it comes to industries with quickly changing technology, training is very vital. In today's industrial world, the necessity for training staff is widely acknowledged in order to keep the workforce up to date with the latest developments. Organizations must be more realistic in their approach to maintaining their human resources up to date in order to succeed. Managers must pay close attention to all aspects of human resource management when carrying out this task. Accordingly, this research will go on to address one of the most important tasks of human resources, namely training, employee performance, and how the former influences employee performance.

In many cases, the issue of why human resources are vital may emerge. This is a valid question. Because human resources are the intellectual property of the organization, employees have proven to be a valuable source of gaining competitive advantage (Houger, 2006), and training is the only means of developing organizational intellectual property through the development of employees' competencies. In order to be successful. Organizations must be able to collect and efficiently employ human resources. For companies to accomplish their goals and objectives, they must build their human resource management systems in a manner that is compatible with the organization's organizational structure. Furthermore, firms must support their employees in acquiring the essential skills and increasing their level of dedication.

For employees to carry out their duties effectively and efficiently, they must have the relevant skills, knowledge, values, attitudes, and competencies as well as understand their organization's culture.

Chapter One : General Introduction

As a result, the purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of training strategy on the development of competencies in SMEs in the province of Sidi bel abbes and to provide suggestions and recommendations to the enterprises on how they can make the best use of training programs to ensure that their employees perform well on the job. Specifically, in order to fully comprehend the study's purpose, emphasis should be placed on conducting need analyses for training provided, identifying and delivering existing training programs within enterprises, and evaluating them, as well as the effectiveness of the training provided. Finally, the effects of training strategy on competencies development through employee engagement should be thoroughly investigated.

despite a large number of researches on the relationship between training as a strategic choice and the development of competencies, there appears to be a gap, concerning the study of the effect of training on competencies development.

The degree to which employees feel job satisfaction and an emotional connection to the success of their organization is defined by Kahn (1990) as the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles as a result of which they are psychologically present when occupying and performing an organizational role. Employee engagement refers to an individual's interest with, contentment with, and excitement for his or her job duties. It is a state of mind that is associated with one's job and is characterized by energy, devotion, and absorption. Employees' opinions about the organization, its management, and the workplace culture are referred to as cognitive engagement. In terms of the emotional side, it refers to how workers feel about their organization, their leaders, and their colleagues, while the behavioral factor refers to the value-added component, which is represented by the number of effort individuals put into their job.

The purpose of this study is to close this gap by deeply investigating this phenomenon through the relevant literature, shedding more light into the relationship between current practices of training effectiveness, the commitment of senior management to employee training, the use of modern technologies as a basis for the implementation of strategic training programs, with the level of development employee competencies in SMEs selected, and providing suggestions to the firms as to how they can make the best use of training programs to make their employees perform well on the job.

1.2 Problem Statement

Training and development of human resources in developing countries are still understudied, despite the growing impact on training strategy and its relationship to the development of competencies, as well as growing concerns from organizations' customers about low-quality services in the economic sector. The fact that research on difficulties related to training in less-developed nations is infrequent should be noted as well. While much is known about the economics of training in the industrialized world, Human resource management (HRM) has been the focus of most previous research in this area, which leaves questions unanswered about, for example, how training affects competency development via employee involvement. It is hoped that this research will help to fill up some of the gaps in the literature about human resource management in Algeria and training strategy in particular.

Though there are challenges confronting companies there is increasing realization of the effect of human resource training. Though some researchers believe that training and its effect towards the enhancement of employee performance as well as organizational performance are very important.

Elnaga and Imran (2013) found that most governmental, corporate, and multinational companies do not realize the need for training to boost their workers' productivity and that when the economy slows or earnings decrease, many organizations immediately seek savings in their training expenditures. As a result, staff turnover will be high, increasing the expense of hiring new personnel and, ultimately, decreasing the profitability of the business.

For example, Saleem et al. (2011) claimed that a good training system assists firms in ensuring that workers understand the status of the company and that they are up to date on the skills necessary to accomplish their day-to-day activities. This demonstrates that human resource training allows the human resource department to play a more strategic role in employee performance development.

According to Tahir et al. (2014), training is an essential component of HRM, and it is vital for firms to hire trained and capable workers for improved performance, and people will be competent when they have the knowledge and competence to accomplish the job. Employees would benefit from training in order to further their careers and get a better position in firms.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to find out the relationship between training strategy and its effect on competencies development in the sample SMEs selected in the province of Sidi bel abbes. From the above, the following main problem can be posed:

- To what extent does the implementation of training strategy contribute to competencies development in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province?

1.3 Research questions

The research questions were drawn in line with the objectives as follows:

1. What is the level of the implementation of training strategy in its dimensions (current practices for training - the commitment of senior management – training effectiveness — the use of modern technologies in training) in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province?
2. What is the level of possessing the necessary competencies to face future environmental challenges in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province?
3. What are the current practices of training in the sample selected in terms of how is Training Needs Assessment (TNA) is conducted, what are the training delivery methods and how is training evaluation and follow-up conducted?
4. What processes are used to identify training needs and to plan and organize training programs and how are these programs evaluated?
5. is there a significant direct effect of training strategy on competencies development in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province?
6. What are the views of employees concerning the impact of training programs on improving their skills and abilities, and positively changing their behavior?
7. Is the training strategy, mature and effective in terms of helping the sample SMEs to improve their human competencies?
8. What is the mediating role of employee engagement in the relationship between training strategy and competencies development?

1.4 Objective of the Study

The study comprised of the general objective and specific objectives that emanated from basic research questions.

1.4.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to investigate the effect of training strategy with its dimensions on competencies development through employee engagement in the sample SMEs.

1.4.2 specific objectives:

It could be argued that this study is an exploratory attempt conducted in the context of the Algerian SMEs, aims to add more to, enrich, and fill the gaps in the literature on training and development issues in the province of Sidi Bel Abbas ... In one sentence it is an exploratory study conducted in the sample selected, aiming to explore the current practices of training and evaluating its strategic position and role in helping the enterprises to improve their employee's skills and knowledge's through employee engagement.

The research sought to achieve its main goal of identifying the impact of implementing the training strategy on the development of competencies in the sample SMEs selected for the research, Therefore, this study is specifically concerned with achieving the following research objectives:

1. To explore current management T&D practices in the sample SMEs selected; management of Training Needs Assessment (TNA) process, T&D delivery, and management of training evaluation process.
2. To know to what extent senior management is committed and supported the adoption of strategic training in the SMEs selected.
3. To identify to what extent the sample SMEs selected is adopting modern technologies as the basis for the implementation of strategic training programs.
4. To assess the effectiveness of training and development of employees and the extent to which it improves their skills and knowledges.
5. To ascertain the effect of training strategy on employee engagement.
6. To analyze human competencies improved as a result of the training strategy.

7. To find out the relationship between employee engagement and the development of human competencies.

8. To identify the mediating effects of employee engagement on the relationship between training strategy and the development of competencies.

The results of this study are expected to help highlight the ways in which HR training can be beneficial not only to SMEs but also to the career development of their employees. All in all, the results pave the way for improving the human resource competencies necessary for the competitive performance of companies operating in the same business sector as sample SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes and Algeria in general.

1.5 Definition of key concepts

Human resource management: is the way organizations manage their staff and help them to develop in order to be able to execute organizations' missions and goals successfully (Nassazi, 2013).

Human resource development: is the integration of individual, career, and organization development roles in order to achieve maximum productivity, quality, opportunity, and fulfillment of organizations members as they work to accomplish the goals of the organization (Nassazi, 2013).

Development: is a broad ongoing multi-faceted set of activities (training activities among them) aimed at bringing someone or an organization up to another threshold of performance, often to perform some job or a new role in the future (Nassazi, 2013).

Training effectiveness: The benefits that the company received from training (Daba, 2019).

Competencies: Knowledge, skill, and attitude are competencies to be acquired by the trainees used to perform the actual job (Daba, 2019).

Training Evaluation: The process of collecting the outcomes needed to determine whether training is effective or not (Noe & Kodwani, 2018).

Strategic Human Resource Management: The interface between HRM and strategic management. It involves taking a broad and long-term view of where the business is going and ensuring the strategic thrust is maintained Boxall & Purcell (2011).

Training: It involves the application of a formal process to impart knowledge and help people to acquire the skills necessary for them to perform their jobs satisfactorily (M. Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

Employee engagement: engaged employees have a positive attitude and have a work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption and these make the employees psychologically present at work, which minimizes their possibility to do work-related mistakes and errors (Sendawula et al., 2018).

1.6 The Significance of the Research

This study is important because:

1. There is an increasing interest in training strategies, human resource development, competencies development, and especially employee engagement in the Arab countries, particularly in Algeria.

2. The literature on strategic human resource development indicates the need to link the strategic function of training to the strategies of the organizations.

3. Few studies have assessed training strategies in Algeria, and this study adds to the body of information available.

4. This study is considered as the first to focus on the strategic dimensions of training SMEs employees in the province of Sidi bel abbes, as most Algerian studies focus only on traditional training that is not linked to organizational strategies.

1.7 justification for selecting SMEs in Sidi bel abbes city

This research focuses on the SMEs fields because:

1. SMEs are one of the most dominant enterprises in Sidi bel abbes, characterized by structural stability and clear organization.

2. Algeria is in a transitional phase and is changing from a central economy to a free-market economy; this requires an efficient SMEs sector.

3. There is a lack of studies about training and development in the Algerian SMEs fields.

This study focuses on SMEs as they remain the cornerstone of the economic sector in the province of Sidi bel abbes. These enterprises employ the largest number of staff and have long experience working in Algeria.

1.8 Research Design: Justification for Using the Multimethod Approach

The research used a multi-method approach, including survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaires addressed training needs, planning and design, training evaluation, senior management commitment, training effectiveness, the use of modern technologies as the foundation for training program implementation, the level of competency development, and the level of employee engagement. Training and development procedures and tactics, as well as difficulties and challenges, were discussed in the interviews. The researcher was able to integrate the findings obtained by employing both ways of data collecting, keeping as much as possible away from the disadvantages of using a single methodology. Furthermore, statistical analysis (SPSS, AMOS, SEM PLS) of quantitative data acquired through questionnaires assisted in making comparisons and generalizations, and qualitative data produced from interviews gave further explanations and insights.

1.9 Justification for The Study

Any organization's growth is dependent on its employees. Training and development are very important for corporate productivity. Training and development are critical to the performance of businesses as well as people's work experiences. Training affects both productivity and personal growth. All companies that employ people must train and develop their employees. Most firms are aware of this obligation and devote time and money to training and development. Training is the act of enhancing an employee's knowledge and abilities for a certain profession. It employs a systematic and planned method for acquiring technical

information and abilities. It also implies that operational workers working in the organization's primary business areas, such as production, maintenance, sales, marketing, and management support, must devote some of their time and effort to supporting training development.

The study's findings serve as input for companies to re-examine how beneficial prior training expenditures are made by firms toward boosting employee performance to take remedial action in the future. As a result, this research has significant consequences since it will assist Algerian SMEs and other public organizations in conducting training to improve the competencies of their employees. It is also believed that the findings of this research would assist the senior management of the chosen firms in making sound training choices. It also acts as a secondary source of data for individuals interested in doing more research in this area.

The findings of the research would be beneficial to the SMEs under investigation, as they would provide better methods to improve their performance via the introduction of actions for problems impacting the efficacy of training in the organizations under investigation. It also provides suggestions for SMEs on how to deal with current challenges, and it may be utilized as a supporting document for other comparable company groups. Furthermore, the article would serve as a resource document and a stepping stone for those scholars who have an interest in the subject and want to pursue further research in the field after reading it.

Lastly, the findings of this study would act as a stimulus for future investigation into the subject matter in question. According to the research hypothesis, the study will offer a theoretical addition to the body of knowledge linked to the practice of training and its impact on employee capabilities, with a specific focus on SMEs in Algeria.

Even though the training is very essential to organizations, despite the efforts of the sample of SMEs chosen in putting in place various training programs, no study has been conducted to analyze their impact on the development of skills in the organizations. This research seeks to examine the impact of training and development strategies on the development of human competencies as a result.

1.10 Limitation of the study

There were several limitations to this research, to be sure. As a result, in addition to the numerous minor issues that the researcher encountered while conducting this research, there

are a few issues that are worth mentioning here. Some of the limitations that the research encountered when collecting data from the respondents were a lack of understanding among respondents about the need of filling out surveys with care and returning them on time, as well as a lack of motivation to fill out questionnaires.

1.11 Thesis Structure

Chapter One: discussed a general introduction and an overview of the background to the research, statement of the problem, research objective, research questions, significance of the research, scope, and limitation of the research, brief methodology, and the structure of the research.

Following this introduction, Chapter Two, 'Human resource management and Human Resource Development: A Theoretical and Practical Perspective, begins with an introduction to the concept of HRM and HRD, followed by the Emergence of Training and Development Training and development concepts and definitions, Reasons for Carrying Out Training and Development, Factors Hindering Training and Development, Systematic T&D Approach and Process, Training Need Assessment (TNA), Design and developing training programs, Implementation of Training programs, Evaluation of Training and Development Programs, Models of Evaluation and their Practice, training techniques (methods) used and Learning and Education and Their Relation To T&D.

Chapter two discussed competencies management concepts and definitions, Benefits, and Limitations of Using Competencies, the Relationship between competencies and human resource development, the chapter concludes by pointing out The History of Employee Engagement, Human resources management and employee engagement, and finally Employee engagement and Training.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology. This chapter explains the adopted research design and strategy of the study. The philosophical position of the research is also discussed, it introduces the multi-method approach used (qualitative and quantitative) and the criteria for research design. Then the chapter discusses the population for the study and choice of the sample, data collection procedure, and data collection and analysis. The pilot study, the

fieldwork, and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data collected in this study are described in his chapter.

Chapter Four: 'Discussion of the Results and Findings,' focuses on the results of the analysis. It discusses the descriptive statistics, assessment of measurement model and assessment of structural model, the interviews with managers and investigates the following sections; training strategy, competencies development, employee engagement. The chapter discusses the results achieved from the survey and interviews and the findings of the research. It also provides a full discussion of the results and reflects on the literature review. This chapter sums up the ideas presented throughout the thesis and the results attained. It also discusses the findings of the research in the light of training strategy and its impact on competencies development via employee engagement.

Chapter Five: Conclusions, Implications, Contribution, and Recommendations for future research. This final chapter provides the final conclusions of the research, and it demonstrates the academic and managerial contribution of this research attempt. The limitations of the study are also discussed, along with offering recommendations for future research.

1.12 Research hypothesis

1.12.1 Hypothesis 01:

H1/ there is a significant direct effect of training strategy in its dimensions (current practices for training - the commitment of senior management – training effectiveness — the use of modern technology in training) on competencies development in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province.

H1/A- there is a significant direct effect of the current practices for training on competencies development.

H1/B- there is a significant direct effect of the commitment of senior management on competencies development.

H1/C- there is a significant direct effect of training effectiveness on competencies development.

H1/D- there is a significant direct effect of the use of modern technology in training on competencies development.

1.12.2 Hypothesis 02:

H2/ there is a significant direct effect of training strategy on employee engagement.

1.12.3 Hypothesis 03:

H3/ there is a significant direct effect of employee engagement on competencies development.

1.12.4 Hypothesis 04:

H4/ there is a significant indirect effect of training strategy on competencies development via employee engagement in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province.

1.13 Previous Studies

A study is carried out by Al-Obeidi (2013) to investigate the influence of creative direction and training strategy on the performance of workers at the Kuwait Oil Company. Results of this research revealed that there is a relationship between the components of the creative approach and elements of training strategy in terms of the performance of workers in Kuwait Oil Company who have a high degree of creativity and innovation. The results also revealed that components of the creative approach influenced the growth of workers' performance at the Kuwait Oil Company, according to the researchers. Furthermore, it demonstrated the influence of the training plan on the development of employee performance at the Kuwait Oil Company.

According to Al-Qathi (2012), research was carried out in order to determine the strategic relationship practices of human resource management and their impact on the performance of private institutions across Jordan. The results revealed that strategic methods in human resource management had a statistically significant impact on the performance of workers at private institutions in Jordan, according to the study. Additional findings revealed that the recruiting process, training, development, and engagement of workers all had a statistically significant impact on the performance of private institutions in Jordan. There was also no statistically

significant impact of remuneration methods on the performance of private universities in Jordan, according to the findings.

A study conducted by Al-Samarrai (2010) in the Ministry of Electricity in Iraq sought to determine the impact of training strategies (trainees and their desire to train; coaches; training curricula; managerial and supervisory services and their impact on the success of the training program) on the development of human resources (achievement of course objectives and transfer of them to training needs; motivation; and desire for change). Results revealed that there was a statistically significant association between training methodologies and the development of human resources in the Ministry of Electricity in Iraq, as shown by the results. The data also revealed that the most effective criteria for the success of the training process from the perspective of coaches are attendance at training and increasing the efficiency of the trainees via the use of educational seminars and training courses, which were conducted. The results also revealed that one of the most significant challenges faced by trainers throughout the training process is a lack of practical application of the skills learned by the learner, a conclusion that is supported by the majority of the research conducted on the subject.

Al-Otaibi (2010) performed a research to determine the influence of the usage of information technology on the performance of human resources at the Australian International Academy in Melbourne, as well as the impact of information technology on individual job performance. Also included in the study were human resource systems currently in use in educational institutions, as well as systems of electronic educational services, due to their significant role in the trend toward the use of information technology in human resource management. The study discovered that there was a clear vision in the sample study in regards to the importance of the use of information technology in human resource management, as well as their numerous benefits. Furthermore, the results revealed that infrastructure was available at the information technology center in the academic setting and that electronic educational services were available at the institution.

Al-Shra'a (2008) investigated the extent to which activities related to the existence of a clear strategy for training are implemented, as well as the impact of this on the level of performance of employees in Jordanian public shareholding industrial enterprises. There was a statistically significant positive correlation between the application of the stages of the training process from a strategic perspective and the performance of its employees in the Jordanian

Public Shareholding Industrial Companies, and there was also a statistically significant positive correlation between the degree of diversity in training programs offered in these companies and the performance of its employees, according to the findings. As a result of the research, it was discovered that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between the extent to which these companies' senior management adopted a training strategy and the level of performance of their employees. It was also discovered that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between using modern technology as the foundation for implementing training strategy programs in these companies and the level of performance of their employees. Furthermore, the data revealed that these organizations were confronted with several challenges when implementing an effective training plan, including a lack of organizational culture, a scarcity of highly skilled trainers, and the rigidity of the rules and regulations.

Al-Otaibi (2010) performed a research to determine the influence of the usage of information technology on the performance of human resources at the Australian International Academy in Melbourne, as well as the impact of information technology on individual job performance. Also included in the study were human resource systems currently in use in educational institutions, as well as systems of electronic educational services, due to their significant role in the trend toward the use of information technology in human resource management. The study discovered that there was a clear vision in the sample study in regards to the importance of the use of information technology in human resource management, as well as their numerous benefits. Furthermore, the results revealed that infrastructure was available at the information technology center in the academic setting and that electronic educational services were available at the institution.

A research was carried out by Erhim (2002) in order to uncover flaws in the training system and to define training requirements as a fundamental and fundamental phase in the training process. It also had the goal of identifying the most significant issues that were impeding the development of the training process. The results revealed that each of the management levels important to the company's strategy had a complete strategic plan, with plans for each of the management levels relevant to the company's strategy. Furthermore, there were no long-term training plans in firms where the bulk of the plans was just for a year or two at the most. Furthermore, there was a lack of knowledge of the widespread acknowledgment of the critical role that training programs play in achieving the company's objectives. Finally, in certain corporations, there were specific laws for job descriptions and job assessment, as well

as a significant lack of coordination between these systems and between the procedures for identifying training needs in these organizations.

A study conducted by Abdelgadir and Elbadri (2010) looked at the practices of training activities in Polish Commercial Banks. According to the findings of the research, many of the surveyed Polish Commercial Banks overlook the identification of training requirements while developing processes for their banking operations. Furthermore, the findings revealed the lack of a mechanism for assessing the outcomes of training programs and the influence of those results on the level of performance of employees.

Gasco and colleagues (2004) carried out a research to determine the influence of information technology on human resource management practices, namely the training strategy, at the Spanish Telecommunications Company (Telefonica). Results revealed that the use of information technology in training significantly improved the use of managers' time, increased participation by trainees, improved the evaluation of the effectiveness of training programs systems, and improved the overall quality of these software systems, according to the research findings. Furthermore, the results revealed that this service organization wished to establish future training based on self-e-learning for all of its workers and staff members in the near future.

Adesola (2017) researched to analyze the training and development process of Radisson Blu Anchorage Hotel and if training has enhanced staff performance. Employees of the Radisson Blu Anchorage Hotel were asked to complete a questionnaire that had structured questions in order to gather primary data. The outcomes of this study revealed that the different types of training provided at the Radisson Blu Anchorage Hotel have an influence on employee performance, but that the training package itself has to be reviewed by management to ensure that it continues to be effective. The majority of workers believed that training and development were helpful instruments for achieving personal and organizational success on both levels. According to the findings of the data analysis, the numerous training programs offered at the Radisson Blu Anchorage Hotel have an influence on the personnel who participate in them.

Bshina (2016) carried out a research to explore training and development in Libyan public commercial banks in connection to enhancing policies and practices to enhance skills and performance in order to improve skills and performance he monitors and evaluates training and

development from the viewpoints of managers and personnel. The research examines how organizational culture influences the assessment of employees and their needs, as well as the relationship between gender, experience, qualifications, and the training choices made by employees. The findings are presented in a report.

The research looked at the difficulties that students and instructors face throughout training, as well as how these difficulties might be avoided. Through 351 survey questions and 12 interviews with bank executives at three different levels, the opinions of three management levels, including top executives, human resource managers, and training and development managers, were gathered. At the banks under investigation, no systematic training needs assessment was conducted in a professional manner. The specialized training that employees get is often conducted outside of Libya, and it is influenced by international banks and financial organizations whose working techniques may be incompatible with those of Libyan banks and cultures. Lectures, dialogues, seminars, and other conventional techniques of training are the most common types of training material used in organizations. This is one of the first studies to try to understand the nature of strategic training and development initiatives in Libyan commercial banks. It identifies the issues and problems that have arisen as a result of the training strategies that have been implemented to improve organizational performance. The research also identifies and suggests elements that will enhance staff training, as well as training assessment and evaluation methodologies that are necessary for the context of a business sector that is critical to economic growth.

Singh et al. (2020) mentioned that a systematic review was conducted in order to assess the abilities of primary healthcare providers who are involved in health coaching patients with chronic health problems. Singh et al. (2020) provided an example of a systematic review. To locate peer-reviewed studies about the skills of health professionals participating in health coaching, the databases CINAHL, EMBASE, PubMed, Psych INFO, and SCOPUS were searched for relevant articles. The findings reveal that nine important abilities were shown by health professionals and that these qualities were associated with excellent patient outcomes as a consequence of health coaching. Comparisons of the basic health coaching skills to the competencies for coaches developed by the International Coaching Federation and European Mentoring and Coaching Council indicated great resemblance. However, the comparison also highlighted the need of making clear the abilities that are distinctive to health coaches. It has been demonstrated that health coaching can improve the health outcomes of patients with

chronic health conditions. As such, there is a need to establish an evidenced-based competence framework particular to health coaches. Because there is currently no competence framework upon which to base health coach training, the results of patients who get health coaching might be considerably harmed at this time. The practical consequences of this research include increasing the regulation and quality of health coaching, as well as, more crucially, the health outcomes of patients who use the service.

Ugbomhe and colleagues (2016) investigated the influence of training and development on the performance of employees in firms. The study used a survey research design, and the participants were all commercial banks in Nigeria's Edo North Senatorial District. The study's population included all commercial banks in Nigeria's Edo North Senatorial District. The research was limited to a small sample size of 30 respondents taken from five banks in Edo North, and it was conducted in English. The data was collected using a structured questionnaire using a five-point Likert scale as the primary instrument of analysis. We used t-test statistics to evaluate two hypotheses that were generated for this research and were found to be significant at the 0.05 percent level of significance. As a consequence of the results, it was concluded that effective training and development of banking personnel may result in more efficient execution of their tasks. A report based on these results advocated for management to devise suitable training and development programs for each type of employee who needs training and development.

Al-Mzary et al. (2015) did a study to analyze the opinions of administrative leaders and administrative workers towards the training courses given, as well as the influence of training on employee job performance at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The research is being conducted in a Malaysian small and medium-sized firm (SME). The findings revealed that training courses are somewhat connected to the training requirements of workers and that there are some factors that influence the selection of individuals who are eligible for training. Additionally, the findings revealed that there is a link between successful training and workers' overall job performance. There were many recommendations made as a result of the findings of the study.

Habib et al. (2016) researched to analyze the influence of training on employees' performance in the Nigerian hotel business (Sheraton Hotel and Resorts, Lagos) as a case study. A significant source of worry for enterprises in Nigeria, particularly in the hospitality sector, is

that regular assessment of training is seldom viewed as a serious step in evaluating workers' performance, and as a result, it is often done as an afterthought. The study evaluated the performance of workers at the Sheraton Hotel and Resorts in Lagos, Nigeria, in order to achieve its goal of improving organizational efficiency via training in the Nigerian hospitality business. The purpose of this study is to determine the impact of training on workers' ability to complete the case obligation. It has been demonstrated that there is a statistically significant association between the quality of training and the use of incentives to push staff to improve their performance at the Sheraton Hotel and Resort in Lagos. The results of the study also reveal to a considerable degree that excellent training would at various combinations help to the motivation of employees and boost employees' performance in Nigeria hotel business. Employees should be encouraged to participate in incentive programs, which are beneficial to both the firm and the community. Simplifying administrative processes should accompany the use of different training techniques to greatly improve workers' performance in the hospitality sector by Sheraton hotels and resorts in Lagos, which has been shown to be effective. (A27)

Moh'd Abu Bakir (2019) investigated the effect of human resource development strategy (training, development, and learning programs) in increasing workers' strategic thinking abilities in Jordanian information technology (IT) firms. This research analyzed the influence of Jordanian (IT) firms in increasing workers' strategic thinking abilities using an analytical quantitative technique. The survey surveyed 140 companies, and human resources and operations managers from each company were selected to complete the study's questionnaire. The study's findings indicated that the surveyed companies are developing and implementing three development strategies and that there is a statistically significant relationship and impact of development and learning programs on enhancing strategic thinking competencies. Meanwhile, there is no statistically significant association or effect of training programs on workers' strategic thinking abilities. Additionally, the study's findings indicated that recently graduated personnel lacked strategic thinking abilities. Based on the study's findings, it was proposed that the content of training programs be modified and that strategic thinking abilities be included in the primary (IT) courses offered at Jordanian universities.

Dabale et al. (2014) performed a research in Mutare City Council, Zimbabwe, to ascertain the association between training and employee performance. This study used a correlational research methodology in an effort to characterize and quantify the degree of relationship between performance and training. A total of 132 respondents (91 men and 41 females) were

picked from the workforce (population) using a purposive sample approach and structured questionnaire. Quantitative approaches, including inferential statistics, were used to examine the data. It was shown that there was a considerable positive correlation between staff training and performance. All stakeholders should be engaged in some manner in training to improve employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies, and behavior.

Rumman & Al-Rahahalh (2016) investigated the relevance of training strategy and its effect on employee performance at Al-Balqa Applied University, as well as the most significant training programs offered to workers. Additionally, it tries to ascertain the degree to which senior management is committed to the adoption of a training strategy and the use of contemporary technology as the foundation for the implementation of university-based training programs. To accomplish the study's aims, hypotheses were developed, a questionnaire was created and disseminated to all appropriate levels of management at the University, and results were analyzed using SPSS software. The study's results suggested that there is a greater knowledge of the university's array of training programs. Additionally, the data indicated a favorable association between senior management commitment, training plan adoption, and employee performance at the institution. Additionally, it demonstrated a statistically significant positive association between the use of current technology as the foundation for training plan implementation and the level of performance of university personnel. The study recommended that the university focus on providing the necessary financial and material resources for the training process, as well as on educating senior management about the foundations of modern technology in training in order to ensure that employees receive the most up-to-date training programs and are evaluated on their performance following completion of training courses.

Choperena et al. (2020) researched to examine the preliminary effectiveness of narratives for the development of three nursing professional skills —respect, deliberate presence, and knowing the person— for delivering person-centered care. Between September 2016 and June 2017, a pilot study with a total of 34 nurses enrolled in a nursing specialized training course was performed using a pre-post quasi-experimental design. Each nurse got a multi-component intervention based on the approach of Critical Reflective Inquiry. This program's techniques included the creation of three narratives, attendance at two masterclasses, participation in a discussion group, and a face-to-face interview. The results were assessed using the NarratUN Evaluation instrument. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to analyze changes in nurses. The results indicate that the difference in means between pre-and post-intervention scores for

respect [0.59 (95 percent confidence interval [CI] 0.23-0.95; $p=0.001$)], intentional presence [0.75 (95 percent CI 0.32-1.17; $p0.0001$)], and knowing the person [0.62 (95 percent CI 0.25-0.99; $p=0.001$)] were statistically significant. The gap in mean scores for narrative and reflective writing also grew considerably [0.65 (95 percent confidence interval [CI] 0.32-0.98; $p0.001$). The use of narratives in conjunction with other reflective tactics (masterclass sessions and discussion groups) was shown to be helpful in assisting nurses in developing their professional skills.

Bala et al. (2014) performed a study to determine the effectiveness of training and development as a technique for increasing staff productivity, with a focus on several chosen small-scale companies in Gombe. The research was conducted using a survey approach that used both primary and secondary data sources. Additionally, the chi-square statistic was utilized to analyze the data and determine the validity of the hypothesis. According to the report, training and development have a critical role in increasing staff productivity. However, there are several issues influencing the industry's degree of training and development. Management is advised not to underestimate the importance of training and development, regardless of its duration. Because more sectors attempt to minimize upfront training costs, the cost of training will continue to rise in the future. Additionally, management should identify issues with the training and development program and devise a strategy for resolving them.

Howard and Gutworth (2020) did a meta-analysis to ascertain the overall efficacy of virtual reality training programs for social skill development, as well as the impact of many moderating factors that may affect the success of these programs. They examine whether certain characteristics of the applied hardware (e.g., input devices, output devices), the applied software (e.g., game elements, Second Life), the participant population (e.g., general/specialized), and the study design (e.g., type of control group, type of measure, and others) have an effect on the success of these programs. EBSCO and Google Scholar were used to identify sources, and 23 samples were included in our meta-analysis once they satisfied their inclusion criteria. We demonstrate that, on average, VR training programs perform better than other training programs for improving social skills when using a random-effects method, but practically all of the other results contradict prevailing perceptions of these programs. Notably, gamified programs outperformed non-gamified programs, while programs leveraging immersive technology (e.g., head-mounted displays) outperformed non-immersive ones (e.g. monitors). They provide recommendations on the usefulness of virtual reality training for social skills in comparison to

other training methodologies, the characteristics of VR training programs that result in superior results, and future research and practice directions.

Kock & Ellström (2011) conducted a study to increase understanding of the relationships among the workplace as a learning environment, strategies for competence development used by SMEs, and learning outcomes. Specifically, there is a focus on a distinction between formal and integrated strategies for competence development, the conditions under which these strategies are likely to be used, and their effects in terms of individual learning outcomes. The study was based mainly on questionnaire data collected through a survey of 14 SMEs that had received support from the European Social Fund's Objective 3 programs. In addition, data collected through interviews and analyses of documents were used. The results indicate interactions between the strategy of competence development used by the firms (formal vs integrated) and the type of learning environment in the workplace (constraining vs enabling). The use of an integrated strategy in an enabling learning environment was the most successful combination in terms of learning outcomes, while the use of an integrated strategy in a constraining learning environment was the least successful combination.

Sal and Raja (2016) investigated the link between training, development, and training and development, as well as employee performance and productivity, in a group of Jordanian private sector transportation enterprises in Jordan's southern area. The research was based on a series of hypotheses in which H0s: hypothesized that there were no correlations between variables, whereas H1-H6 thought that there were. A quantitative method is used. A systematic questionnaire was used to obtain relevant data. A total of 254 workers participated in the survey, accounting for 60% of the overall target population of 420 persons. Only 188 of the 254 structured questionnaires issued to workers on the workplace site were appropriate for statistical analysis. Of the 212 questionnaires returned, only 212 were suitable for statistical analysis. For data analysis, SPSS version 16 was employed. For data analysis, descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized. The statistical methods were in line with the research's goal. Frequency tables, percentages, means, and standard deviations were produced and interpreted for this purpose. To see whether there was a significant positive association between the independent factors (training and development) and the dependent variables, inferential statistics like Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) and linear regression were utilized (performance and productivity). The data suggested that training and development were favorably connected and claimed statistically significant association with employee

performance and productivity. The significance threshold for the analysis and interpretations was set at 0.05. Training and development, according to the report, have a significant influence on staff performance and productivity.

Carneiro and Jorge (2020) researched to define the professional skills model of Portuguese optometrists and to identify any training gaps that were identified. A questionnaire study was conducted using the Portuguese optometric population as the target group to determine academic credentials, the most often done clinical procedures, training requirements, and confidence levels in doing particular operations. The 444 verified surveys reflect 28.41% of the total population of the research, making it a representative sample. Graduates, Masters, and PhDs in Optometry made up 78.8%, 20.5 percent, and 0.7 percent, respectively, of the validated sample. Conclusions: Based on the findings of this study, we can conclude that the most commonly performed competencies by Portuguese optometrists are a very reductive view of the internationally stipulated, based on Refraction, Basic Ocular Health Assessment, Contactology, and Pediatric Optometry in School Age (>6 years old). Applied Ocular Pharmacology, Prismatic Prescription, Optometry in Special Requirements Populations, Contactology in Special Cases, Low Vision, and Clinical/Hospital Internship are the most critical training needs. Professional experience of 10 years or more, as well as a Master's or Ph.D., leads to increased skills, increased confidence, and fewer training requirements. High levels of confidence and fewer training requirements in the region result from more frequent execution of particular operations.

Mahmud et al. (2019) investigated the influence of training needs assessments (TNA) on the performance of workers in Bangladesh's telecommunications industry. Employees from the commercial departments of two telecommunication companies provided primary data. The Simple Random Sampling (SRS) approach was used to choose a total of 136 workers. The impact of TNA on employee performance was assessed using the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) technique. TNA was shown to have a beneficial impact on employee performance in this research.

Rochette et al. (2017) investigated whether a training program for shopping mall employees could improve their knowledge of disability and perceived self-confidence in interacting with people with various disabilities. Using a control group, a quasi-experimental design was used with pre-and post-training measurements, as well as 3-month follow-up

measures. Employees of a shopping mall who worked at least three shifts each week were included in the study. The outcome was a quiz-style questionnaire created in collaboration with specialists to assess knowledge of disability and self-confidence in engaging with clients with diverse disabilities. We employed non-parametric statistics. When comparing scores before training with post-training and three months later, the experimental group ($n = 7$) improved in knowledge ($p = 0.009$) and self-confidence ($p = 0.03$), whereas the control group ($n = 11$) did not show significant differences in scores for either knowledge about disability ($p = 0.40$) or self-confidence in interacting with people with disabilities ($p = 0.37$). These findings imply that a 3-hour training program, which includes theory and practice of what it's like to live with a handicap, will boost shopping mall personnel's knowledge and felt confident in dealing with this customer.

In order to guarantee the survival and expansion of the banking industries, Oni-Ojo et al. (2014) investigated how best training may be utilized to minimize waste, the high rate of industrial accidents, lateness to work, weariness, and absenteeism. The survey method was chosen. The most common method of data gathering was via questionnaires. One hundred and eighty-five (185) employees and executives from the chosen banks in Lagos were surveyed. Statistical Package for Social Sciences was used to do correlation analysis and chi-square. The data demonstrated that staff training had a major impact on organizational performance, albeit some of these banks failed because they sent their workers on training programs without providing them with the machinery or equipment they would need to practice when they returned. Training will be little more than a pipe dream if management does not commit.

Jehanzeb and Bashir (2013) performed research to offer a conceptual study on the advantages of an employee training and development program. The structure and aspects of an employee training and development program will be examined in this article, and the research will then provide the good effects for individuals and businesses. In the current global economy, it is challenging for businesses to remain competitive. Employee development programs are becoming more important for businesses looking to gain a competitive edge. Employees are a valuable resource for the company, and their performance determines whether the company succeeds or fails. As a result, businesses are spending a lot of money on staff training and development. Furthermore, it is beneficial for businesses to place a focus on workers' knowledge, competence, and abilities in training programs. The impact of development programs on both employees and organizations is a topic of heated debate among professionals

and scholars. The research provided here is a careful examination of the literature on the fundamentals of employee development programs and their advantages to both businesses and individuals.

Sung and Choi (2018) looked at how training and development (T&D) affects company innovation. They elaborate on the numerous aspects of T&D, intermediate employee outcomes, and boundary conditions to illuminate the routes of T&D toward company innovation, given the conflicting results on the performance implications of T&D and the absence of research on the T&D–innovation link. They distinguish two unique T&D characteristics, namely corporate investment and good employee views. The former and latter represent top-down and bottom-up methods, respectively. They claim that these two factors have an indirect impact on corporate innovation by increasing employee competence and commitment. They also believe that T&D-related factors (such as employee involvement and T&D assessment) modify T&D's indirect impacts on company creative performance. They look at the present framework utilizing multisource data from 325 Korean companies gathered at three stages over a five-year period. Our findings show that T&D has a higher positive indirect influence on firm creative performance via workers' competence and dedication (a) when employees freely engage in T&D and (b) when businesses do not use T&D assessment. This research offers relevant and accurate theoretical explanations as well as practical insights into the design and execution of T&D in businesses.

Omran (2016) investigated the impact of training tactics on the performance of workers in Libyan construction firms. Employees from construction enterprises in Libya's eastern and central regions made up the study's population. To gather information on training methodologies and human resource development, a thorough literature analysis was conducted. A total of 400 structured questionnaires were sent at random to personnel in the chosen organizations, including managers, heads of departments, technicians, and laborers. A total of 243 surveys were completed and returned, producing a 60.8 percent response rate. As a consequence, the perception level of training tactics was determined to be high (mean=3.34, sd=0.62). The findings revealed that there were strong links between all aspects of training tactics and goal attainment. The training was shown to have a high link with target success ($r=0.620$, $p<0.01$), followed by administrative and supervisory services ($r=0.589$, $p<0.01$), training program curriculum ($r=0.529$, $p<0.01$), and trainers ($r=0.418$, $p<0.01$) from the perspective of the

trainers. There were also strong links between motivation and the desire to change and the accomplishment of training goals.

Sultana et al. (2012) investigated the influence of training procedures on employee performance in Pakistan's telecommunications sector. This study examines how, for any business to achieve the goals of its training program, the design and execution must be planned and methodical, customized to improve performance and productivity, based on a mix of literature research and questionnaire surveys. Questionnaires were provided to workers of five telecom firms for this research 360. Most businesses fulfill their training demands on an ad hoc and haphazard basis, but others begin by recognizing their training needs, then create training activities in a logical manner, and lastly review the training outcomes. According to the findings, investing in the correct sort of employee training may improve employee performance as well as competencies and abilities. Furthermore, training is viewed as a valuable tool for dealing with changes brought on by technological innovation, such as market competitiveness, organizational restructuring, and, most significantly, improving employee performance.

Tshukudu and Nel (2015) performed research to identify potential ways for improving public sector training and development programs. Two goals were pursued in order to accomplish this goal. To begin, the paper discussed crucial aspects affecting training and growth. Second, the essay gives principles for evaluating training and development with the goal of bolstering recognized essential organizational success determinants and contributing to enhanced performance management in the public sector. These essential organizational success characteristics include the establishment of a high-performance culture, the development of performance leadership, the establishment of a learning organization, and the alignment of an individual, team, and organizational objectives. To help with the assessment of training and development, a ten-phase technique was created to reinforce the essential organizational success aspects mentioned before. The indicated ten-phase plan for assessing training and development projects may serve as a guide for companies seeking to manage training and development pro-actively, as well as assist in conducting constructive evaluations of training and development programs.

Khanfar (2011) performed a research to assess training programs at Jordan's five-star hotels and their influence on improving staff performance. The researcher randomly selected (50) workers and managers from five-star hotels, with the study (questionnaire) including the

mentioned main factors. The research found that there were negative aspects to the techniques employed in training that were not commensurate with the purpose of training, where the training program's goals were often not in the best interests of the job. Additionally, there was a deficiency in the selection of professional trainers with expertise in various areas of management operations, reception, and food and beverage. Additionally, the researchers discovered a substantial association between factors (techniques and methods utilized in training programs, length of programs, trainer selection, and training plans) and the degree of efficiency of personnel in Jordan's five-star hotels. Thus, the research suggested the need of developing training plans and procedures that are appropriate to the training courses' goals. Second, the need for certified trainers capable of guiding participants toward the course's objectives. Third, develop new methods of training that are appropriate to the training operations' unique aims. Finally, competent teachers have been located.

Wang (2005) analyzed the training and development (T&D) procedures of many Chinese four- and five-star hotels from the Western human resource development (HRD) viewpoint and contrasted the outcomes between Chinese state-owned and Sino-foreign joint ventures using several case studies. The findings seem to indicate that the western approach to training and development does not always result in greater training results in the Chinese environment as compared to those utilized by state-owned hotels. It implies that a more effective T&D model for Chinese hotels may develop as a result of learning from the best practices of both types of hotels.

Nnanna (2020) examined the influence of training on employee performance at an Abuja-based telecoms business, Airtel Networks Limited. This study uses a survey research approach via a questionnaire to allow the researcher to effectively obtain insight into the issue. The outcomes of this research indicate that in order for firms to experience increases in employee performance, they must implement training programs and guarantee that their most essential resource, their staff, is constantly taught. This research suggests that the selection technique, training design, and delivery style of training all have an effect on the results of training programs and, ultimately, on employee performance.

Hassan et al. (2016) conducted an examination of the function of training strategy in boosting training effectiveness by using the Performance Leadership Assessment Tool (PLAT) to quantify leadership influence in developing successful training programs in organizations.

The researchers submitted 100 questionnaires to a random sample of Algerian managers, trainers, and trainees. The researchers found that developing a successful training program requires a rigorous process of performance evaluation for leadership, trainers, and trainees, as well as the development of a well-defined plan for the company's training strategy.

Ariani (2013) just completed a research in which she examined the association between employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). In Yogyakarta, Indonesia, the author administered the employee engagement scale, the organizational OCB scale, and the CWB scale to 507 participants from service sectors. The questionnaire's contents were evaluated using validity and reliability tests. The findings demonstrated a substantial positive relationship between employee engagement and OCB, as well as a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and CWB and OCB and CWB. Additionally, this study suggested that there were no variations in employee engagement between male and female employees. This finding indicates that there is a difference in the mean OCB and CWB scores between males and females.

Sanneh and Taj (2015) evaluated the many determinants of employee engagement and their influence on organizational performance in West Africa's public sector, focusing on the Gambia Ports Authority, one of the country's largest public employers. A case study technique was used, with questionnaires being developed and delivered to 327 workers of the Gambia Ports Authority, one of the country's main public sector employers. Employees at all levels were surveyed, including senior managers, directors, and entry-level personnel. The findings indicate that a variety of variables, with the exception of team and coworker relationships, have a substantial effect on employee engagement. Leadership, among other things, has the greatest impact on employee engagement in the African public sector. In general, there was a favorable correlation between employee engagement and organizational performance. Additionally, individuals who feel engaged and linked to the business demonstrate increased excitement for work (work engagement) and the organization (organizational engagement), which may result in enhanced performance.

Nawaz et al. (2014) performed a research to determine the effect of two High-Performance Work Practices on employee creativity via employee engagement. 400 respondents from 110 organizations provided data on textile, fast-moving consumer goods, cement, petroleum, fertilizers, pesticides, chemicals, electronics, and medicines, among other

areas. Factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha, correlation, and regression analysis were all performed using SPSS 17. Employee involvement, the data indicate, somewhat mediates the association between human resource practices and employee innovation. The report also discusses the theoretical and managerial implications, as well as the limits and suggestions for further research.

Andrew and Sofian (2012) conducted a study with 104 human resource officers from the Malaysian Inland Revenue Board to ascertain the degree of uncertainty regarding the influence of individual factors of employee engagement on work outcomes, using employee engagement measures (job and organizational engagements) as mediating variables and social exchange theory as the theoretical underpinning. For data analysis, the mean, standard deviation, t-test, and multiple regression were used. The study's results indicated a considerable difference between job engagement and organization, with coworker support serving as a key individual element influencing both engagement measurements and work outcomes. (D20) it Matter (2013) undertook a research to determine the effect of training on employee engagement, with a particular emphasis on Stress Management (SM), Error Management (EM), Ethics, and Conflict Management (CM). If handled, training about stated aspects has a substantial impact on employee engagement, which is critical for the organization's ultimate success. Thus, offering the appropriate sort of training and development may have a positive or negative effect on employee engagement. The questionnaire had a total of 28 questions for six independent and one dependent variable on a five-point Likert scale, and data were gathered from 226 workers from three Pakistani telecommunication businesses using a random selection procedure.

Gichohi (2014) performed research to determine whether or not staff involvement has an effect on the degree of creativity and innovation in libraries. He examined the impact of employee involvement on creativity and innovation and proposes a more effective methodology. The research examined three purposefully chosen libraries using a descriptive cross-sectional survey approach. The study data were gathered using structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The acquired data were analyzed using descriptive, correlation, regression, t-test, and ANOVA. A response rate of 91 percent was obtained from a sample of 31 library workers. Both staff involvement and creativity and innovation were found to be reasonably high in the three libraries, at 81.85 percent and 78.03 percent, respectively. The mean values of these two variables were not substantially different and showed an 83.1 percent correlation. There was no discernible difference between the two constructions, but the result

was contingent on how important elements were constructed. The research suggests that employee involvement plays a vital role in the development of workplace creativity and innovation. Throughout the configuration process, library leaders serve as important catalysts and facilitators. The research recommends that libraries should question their work procedures, surroundings, systems, and habits of thought in order to foster an empowering culture. There has been a proposal for an integrated model of employee involvement in terms of creativity and innovation.

Rashid et al. (2011) examined the factors that influence employee engagement and the relationship between EE and personal and organizational performance in Pakistan's banking industry. To elicit responses, a quantitative technique was utilized in the form of closed-ended structured Five Point Likert-scale questionnaires. The data were analyzed using AMOS/SPSS software employing structural equation modeling and independent sample t-tests on 250 workers of private commercial banks in Pakistan. The outcome exemplifies how the following aspects affect employee engagement: decision-making and coordination, employee performance appraisals, performance reward systems, employee involvement, training, and career development, and human resource practices. The findings indicate that there is a substantial association between Employee Engagement and Decision Making/Coordination, Performance Reward Systems, and Employee Involvement, however, Training and Career Development and Employee Performance Appraisals have no relationship. The research should be expanded to include international and public sector banks, as well as a bigger sample size of workers, in order to account for other variables such as motivation and non-monetary advantages.

Otuko et al. (2013) investigated the influence of training factors on employee performance using the Mumias Sugar Company in Kenya as a case study. The research attempted to determine the impacts of training needs assessment on employee performance, training content on employee performance, and training evaluation on employee performance. The research surveyed 150 workers and six department heads in total. We utilized questionnaires and interview schedules. Purposive sampling was used to pick department heads, whereas an ordinary random sample was used to select personnel. The researcher employed content validity; internal consistency was determined using Cronbach's Alpha, which resulted in an alpha of 0.86, indicating that the instruments were trustworthy. The researcher next evaluated the data using descriptive and inferential statistics, concluding with regression

analysis to determine the relationships between the study variables. The findings indicate a favorable and statistically significant relationship between training needs assessment and employee performance at Mumias Sugar Company Limited. The substance of training has a positive and substantial influence on employee performance at Mumias Sugar Company Limited, while the assessment of training has a favorable and significant effect on employee performance.

Cotes & Ugarte (2021) used a case study technique to demonstrate how the International Bank's process is carried out. It raises concerns about the TNA's alignment with the organization's goals and employee performance. As a consequence of this study, an enhanced and complete TNA model is proposed, one that prioritizes strategic objectives above competency analysis in order to address performance gaps. The new TNA process leverages data analytics from numerous Human Resource Management (HRM) procedures to optimize the relationship between training demands and business goals. Additionally, the in-depth data analytics evaluation of performance and competence recommends a flowchart of additional human development procedures that are often accomplished incorrectly via training.

Ding et al. (2020) performed research to determine the system's efficacy and the self-motivational claims included in virtual cognitions. A 48-person empirical investigation was done. The research used a between-subject design and divided the participants into three groups: waitlist, training with self-motivational statements, and training without self-motivational statements. Additionally, 24 waitlist participants were randomly allocated to the program and completed it after the waiting time. The findings suggested that 1) the system considerably raised people's understanding of negotiation and self-efficacy, and 2) the self-motivational words included in virtual cognitions elevated self-efficacy even more. Additionally, these effects persisted for many weeks.

Elbadri (2001) undertook a research to examine training methods and activities in detail after significant investment in training and development since 1990. This research surveyed 30 Polish businesses. The research discussed industry standards for training and how Polish businesses adhere to them when defining training requirements, implementing training programs, and evaluating training results. The study's key conclusion was that many businesses fail to identify training requirements and evaluate the effectiveness of their training initiatives. There are recommendations and proposals for improvement.

Gascó et al. (2004) undertook a research to determine the impact of information technology on HRM (Human Resource Management), especially on training policies, using the experience of a Spanish telecommunications company, Telefonica. The examination of this example permitted the identification of the following aspects that contribute to the effectiveness of a training policy: Flexible time management for training; active participation of trainers; establishment of control mechanisms to ensure that training takes place; creation of high-quality content; promotion of interactive elements among trainers, students, and among themselves; and use of standardized and developed technologies and their gradual implementation. In terms of future aims, the firm examined is focused on advancing the use of E-learning as a means of adapting the training process to the new E-business culture.

Chiaburu and Tekleab (2005) examined the individual and contextual antecedents of learning, transfer of learning, generalization of training, and training maintenance in a work setting. On data from 119 workers who attended training sessions, the hypotheses were evaluated using hierarchical regression analysis. The findings indicate that data support the existence of a link between a continuous-learning culture, supervisor support, and motivation for training. Although training motivation was shown to be directly associated with just training maintenance, it influenced training transfer and generalization in conjunction with performance goal orientation.

Liambo (2018) researched to determine the efficiency of training and development initiatives used by KMP Holdings in Zimbabwe to increase employee performance. The investigation was done at KMP Holdings, a Zimbabwean construction business. The study used a quantitative research methodology and a survey approach to collect data from all 110 KPM Holdings workers. The data collection instrument was a structured closed-ended questionnaire. The personal data gathering strategy resulted in a substantial response rate of 93.58 percent. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for Windows was used to collect and analyze the questionnaire answers. Multiple hypotheses were developed and evaluated using Pearson's chi-square and Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficients. The data indicated that the factors had substantial connections. Additionally, the results of the research at KMP Holdings suggested that the organization's training and development initiatives were not linked with technology. According to the suggestions, senior management should verify that all equipment and tools utilized for employee training are compatible with current technology. Additionally, the guidelines urge that management recognize that the

majority of people do not arrive at their employment with the whole knowledge and expertise necessary to function flawlessly. Thus, at KMP Holdings, employee performance should be boosted by providing staff with the necessary training to achieve the required results.

Alias et al. (2019) researched to determine the association between variables affecting training design and training effectiveness in the Malaysian public sector. The purpose of this research is to determine the influence of training design parameters on the efficacy of training programs attended by public service personnel at one of Malaysia's public training centers. Through a self-administered survey, 215 public sector personnel from the managerial and professional groups who had undergone management and leadership training participated in this research. SEM-PLS study revealed that training design parameters such as training design, training technique, and teacher competence had a substantial impact on training efficacy. Trainer competence contributed the most to training effectiveness, followed by training approach and content. As a result, training providers must prioritize these criteria when planning and delivering successful training. The study's results may be used by training centers, government departments, and agencies to develop training programs that are relevant to the employment context, use a range of methodologies, and are delivered by experienced trainers to maximize training efficacy.

Schmid Mast et al. (2018) performed a research to demonstrate how immersive virtual reality (IVR) technology may be utilized in enterprises to teach employees on interpersonal skills. They discussed the unique characteristics of IVR, as well as its possible advantages and disadvantages for interpersonal skills training. There is an urgent need for further empirical data, which is why they presented a study program aimed at developing IVR interpersonal skills training in the human resource development sector. The suggested study topic included ten hypotheses covering two dimensions: (a) variables affecting training transfer and (b) personality traits. They demonstrated how these ideas may be experimentally evaluated and discussed the limits and future responsibilities of human resource development experts in this kind of study.

1.14 The Critical of Previous Studies and Research Gap

The reviewed literature revealed inconsistent findings regarding the effect of training strategies with multiple dimensions on the development of human competencies in businesses,

making it difficult to draw conclusions about the effect of training as a strategic choice for strategic human resource management practices on the development of human competencies in organizations.

Second, the research was conducted mostly in developed nations, where the environment and needs may differ from those in poor countries, particularly Algeria. SMEs in the Arab world, and particularly in Algeria, have not placed a premium on employee engagement as a moderating variable between training strategy and competency development.

Bshina (2016) researched to examine training and development in Libyan public commercial banks with the goal of enhancing policies and practices that promote skill development and performance improvement. He reviews and evaluates training and development programs from the managers' and employees' perspectives. The research examines how corporate culture affects how employees are evaluated and their training requirements are identified, as well as the link between gender, experience, credentials, and employee training preferences. The research examined the difficulties that trainees and instructors face throughout training and how they might be avoided. Three management levels, top managers, human resource managers, and training and development managers, were surveyed and 12 interviews with three levels of bank managers were conducted. At the banks reviewed, no systematic evaluation of training requirements was conducted professionally. Staff receives specialized training from international banks and financial organizations whose operational techniques may contrast with those of Libyan banks and culture. The majority of training information is delivered through lectures, debates, seminars, and other conventional methods of instruction. This is one of the first studies to try to characterize the strategic training and development initiatives carried out by Libyan commercial banks. It highlights issues and difficulties with the training tactics used to boost organizational performance. Additionally, the research analyzes and suggests aspects that will enhance staff training, as well as assessment and evaluation methodologies that are necessary for the context of a critical business sector for economic growth.

Moh'd Abu Bakir (2019) investigated the effect of human resource development strategy (training, development, and learning programs) in increasing workers' strategic thinking abilities in Jordanian information technology (IT) firms. This research analyzed the influence of Jordanian (IT) firms in increasing workers' strategic thinking abilities using an analytical

quantitative technique. The survey surveyed 140 companies, and human resources and operations managers from each company were selected to complete the study's questionnaire. The study's findings indicated that the surveyed companies are developing and implementing three development strategies and that there is a statistically significant relationship and impact of development and learning programs on enhancing strategic thinking competencies. Meanwhile, there is no statistically significant association or effect of training programs on workers' strategic thinking abilities. Additionally, the study's findings indicated that recently graduated personnel lacked strategic thinking abilities. Based on the study's findings, it was proposed that the content of training programs be modified and that strategic thinking abilities be included in the primary (IT) courses offered at Jordanian universities.

Howard and Gutworth (2020) did a meta-analysis to ascertain the overall efficacy of virtual reality training programs for social skill development, as well as the impact of many moderating factors that may affect the success of these programs. They examine whether certain characteristics of the applied hardware (e.g., input devices, output devices), the applied software (e.g., game elements, Second Life), the participant population (e.g., general/specialized), and the study design (e.g., type of control group, type of measure, and others) have an effect on the success of these programs. EBSCO and Google Scholar were used to identify sources, and 23 samples were included in our meta-analysis once they satisfied their inclusion criteria. We demonstrate that, on average, VR training programs perform better than other training programs for improving social skills when using a random-effects method, but practically all of the other results contradict prevailing perceptions of these programs. Notably, gamified programs outperformed non-gamified programs, while programs leveraging immersive technology (e.g., head-mounted displays) outperformed non-immersive ones (e.g. monitors). They provide recommendations on the usefulness of virtual reality training for social skills in comparison to other training methodologies, the characteristics of VR training programs that result in superior results, and future research and practice directions.

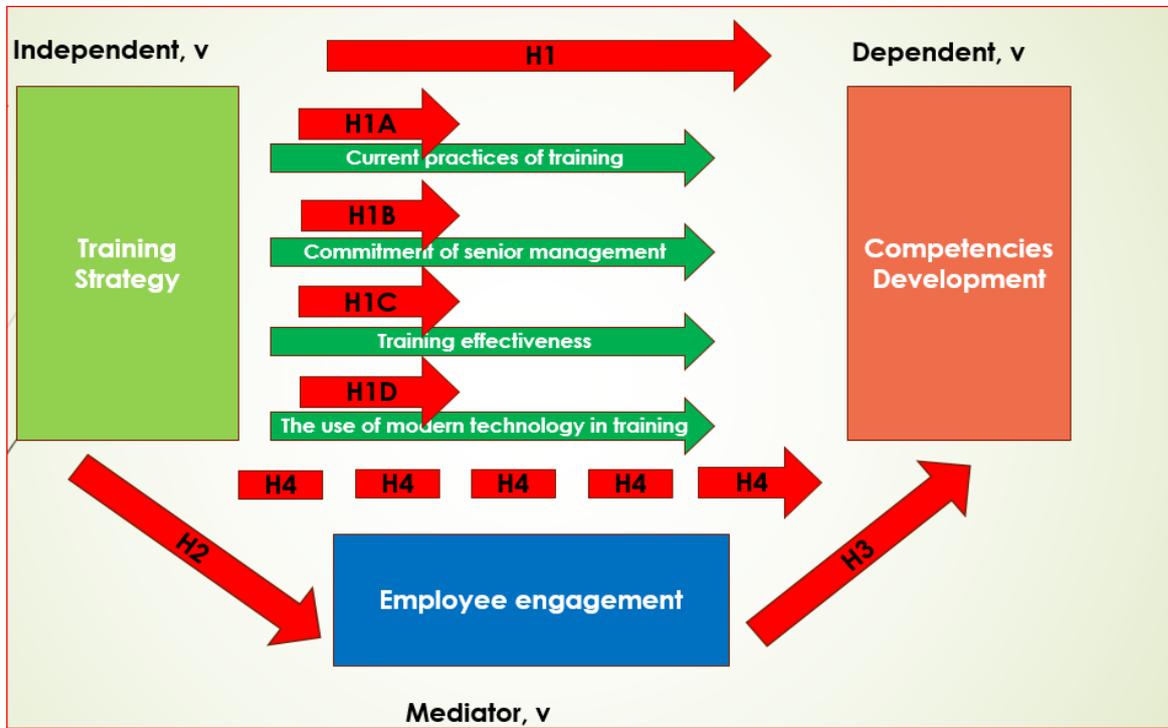
the previous studies were mainly done in mostly developed countries where the situation may not be the same as those in the developing countries and Algeria in particular, (environment).

The previous studies did not cover the employee engagement as a mediator variable in current field.

Chapter One : General Introduction

This study looked at the effect of training strategy on competencies development via employee engagement in SMEs in Sidi bel abbes province in Algeria.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



2 Chapter Two

Literature Review

Chapter Two : Literature Review

This chapter reviews literature related to training strategy and human resource development under three subheadings such as theoretical review, and empirical review.

Introduction

In recent years, the literature on human resource management (HRM) and human resource development (HRD) has underlined the importance of training and development in the workplace in terms of improving organizational competency and competitiveness.

The most valuable asset a community can have is its human capital, which is the sum of all of its individual members. Organizations need exceptionally competent personnel who possess the necessary abilities to carry out their responsibilities effectively to achieve this. T&D is a critical issue when it comes to expanding human resources and effectively managing them. The philosophical perspective on human resource development encompasses views, attitudes, and ideas concerning the development of human capital (Wang, 2008). Chandrasekar (2011) stated that the workplace has two types of impacts on the morale, productivity, and engagement of the workforce: positive and negative. If you put out a decent effort in a given setting, the effect will be positive. Organizational goals may be achieved effectively if the personnel in such societies have enough training and development opportunities. When it comes to a worker's performance, training and development should be a critical component of the process.

Employees, according to Garavan (1997), are unable to function effectively if they have not had prior training. According to Tharenou et al. (2007), private and public enterprises are now recognizing the critical need of progressing in the coaching system in order to affirm outstanding performance and increase outputs in the workplace. T&D is essential for a variety of reasons, one of which is the significance of HRM activities, especially in the area of HRD (Gubbins & Garavan, 2009).

Training offered to employees is typically targeted on increasing their performance, and many have a transitory effect while human resource has a long-term impact on the performance (Jackson et al., 2014). nonetheless, Sultana et al. (2012) suggest that training and development verifies an appropriate supply of socially and technically trained individuals capable of career advancement into certain professions or managerial roles. and on the premise of the notion that

Chapter Two : Literature Review

training and development boost organizational competitiveness, organizations are investing ever-increasing expenditures in the training of their staff.

Organizations obtain sustained high performance by the systems of labor they agree to adopt, and this comprises enhancing act through the individuals they have a functioning and also through the progress and deployment of a high-performance culture. Today's firms must represent how human resources function and may provide value to the corporation if they want to keep them, and this involves publicly understanding the human resource strategies which have the most important effect on employee development. HRD is the building of qualified and competent employees inside a learning culture to boost the performance of enterprises and make them ready for variation in keeping with the changes that are occurring in this global era (Kissack & Callahan, 2010).

Organizations should recognize the function performed by their personnel and the obligation to provide the proper training to assist them to develop their abilities. It has been discussed that ongoing technological advancement develops skills scarcity among staff and demands for training to cover the abilities gap (J. P. Wilson, 2005).

It is the goal of this chapter to provide a conceptual framework to describe the many relationships between the company's training and development initiatives and its strategic human resource management practices. Analyzes past research and the numerous gaps connected to strategy training and development and their impact on the development of competencies. The various associated literature.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.1 Human Resource Management

2.1.1 The Resource-based view

Originated from (Ricardo, 1817) farmland example to demonstrate that scarce resources can generate more profits; the resource-based view is developed based on this logic and the work of Penrose (1959) represents the beginning of the resource-based view of the firm (RBV). Porter (1980) proposed that enterprises must study their environment to establish business strategies and obtain essential resources to execute these plans. Based on Porter's framework, a business must maximize environmental possibilities and internal strengths of the firm while eliminating the hazards to the environment and weakness of the firm, Before the early 1990s, human resources were seen as just serving to apply the general strategies pioneered by Porter (1980) and ensuring the application of the strategies. However, at the turn of the early 1990s, academics (J. Barney, 1991; Ulrich, 1991; Grant, 1991) started to underline the resource-based approach and the importance of the internal setting on an organization's competitive edge According to Prahalad & Hamel (1994), human capital or human resources with their indivisible assets (such as knowledge and expertise) may offer firms with sustainable competitive advantages.

As per this framework, studies in the field of strategic management focus on both internal and external factors of the firm. Wernerfelt (1984) suggested that RBV defines the strategic deployment of internal resources as the path to a company's competitive advantage.

In contrast, J. Barney (1991) outlined the resource criteria that must be met to achieve a sustained competitive advantage. In his remarks, he stated that resources that are uncommon, valuable, inimitable, and non-substitutable can contribute to long-term competitive advantage, and he outlined the two assumptions of the resource-based perspective as follows:

- (1) resources are distributed heterogeneously across firms.
- (2) these productive resources cannot be transferred between firms without cost.

Barney (1991) places a strong focus on how businesses' levels of intellectual capital, whether existing or newly acquired, may yield above-average rent in the form of increased company performance, which is the primary goal of the resource-based approach. According to researchers who hold this approach, the amount of intellectual capital in general, and the level

Chapter Two : Literature Review

of human capital in particular, is directly impacted by human resource management techniques aimed at selecting/hiring, training/developing, and retaining personnel (P. M. Wright et al., 2005). The importance of intellectual capital has been recognized in the firm's resource-based view; however, when it comes to strategic human resource management, the level of human capital is critical because human capital, consists of employees' key performance indicators (KSAs) and their competencies, is the means by which strategic implementation is carried out and performance results are obtained.

Given that organizational knowledge contains both the total value of knowledge that its members possess and the collective knowledge held among its members, research has concluded that the use of various human resource management practices by managers may have conflicting effects on individual and collective knowledge, skills, and abilities within the organization.

According to one example, "if a company overemphasizes human resource management approaches that foster individual motivation as well as knowledge, skills, and abilities, it is likely to impair the development of collective knowledge, skills, and abilities, as well as motivators." As a consequence, internal frictions and inefficiencies may arise, which may, in turn, undermine the core purpose for the organization's existence, i.e. collective synergy" (Zhao et. al., 2009).

There are a lot of resources that may assist a company gains a competitive edge, according to various writers. A company's physical assets, human capital, and organizational processes may be categorized according to J. Barney (1991). Technology, facilities, and their equipment, as well as their location and availability of raw materials, are examples of tangible assets.

In addition to a company's structure, official and informal planning, and linkages between the company and its surroundings, organizational routines encompass a company's organizational culture. A company's human capital consists of the training, experience, intellect, judgment, connections, and insights of its management and employees (J. Barney, 1991).

In contrast to other physical assets that are simpler to duplicate, the complex and dynamic nature of human resource management makes it difficult to duplicate (Sheehan, 2014). As a result, human resource management (HRM) may be regarded a crucial source of competitive

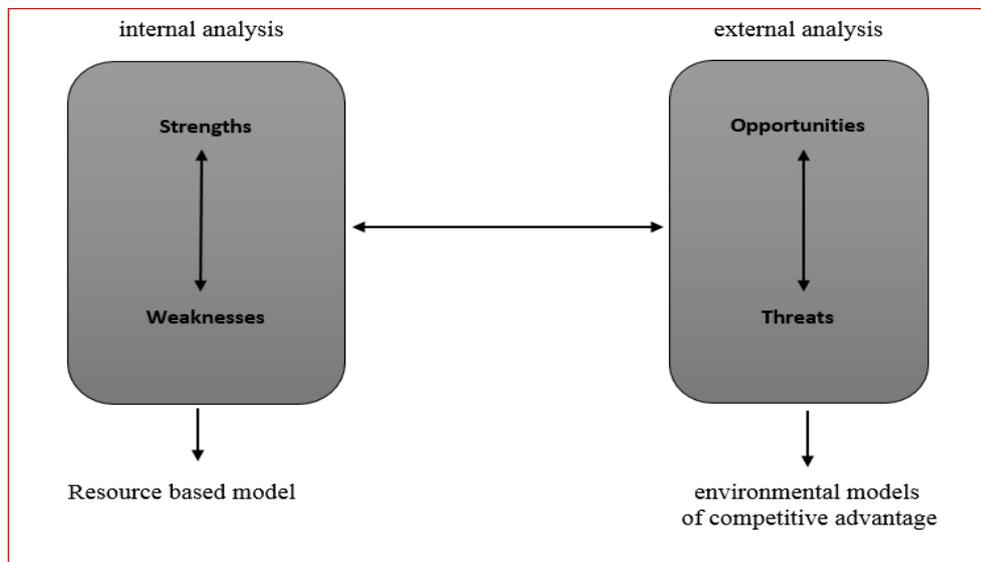
Chapter Two : Literature Review

advantage (J. B. Barney & Wright, 1998). Furthermore, the rarity of human resource management practices is associated with path dependence (Collis & Montgomery, 1995), which introduces a dynamic and temporal aspect into an examination of human resource management practices within the RBV framework (Nelson & Winter, 1982; Sheehan, 2014). Path dependence suggests that human resource management methods are comprised of policies that have been developed over time and cannot be easily copied by rivals (B. Becker & Gerhart, 1996). Even though rivals are interested in adopting a system that is useful, it takes time and administrative work to completely execute the plan. Furthermore, rivals may have difficulty reproducing socially complex factors like as culture and interpersonal connections, which are difficult to replicate (B. Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

In the strategic management discipline, the resource-based theory describes the relationship between organizational strategy and the internal factors, which is utilized to examine the company's strategic formulation of the organization's internal resources (Grant, 1991; J. Barney, 1991). For example, Jay B. Barney (2001) describes resources as “the physical and intangible assets a corporation utilizes to determine and execute its strategy (p.54)”. The 'five forces model' developed by Michael Porter in 1980 focuses on the relationship between strategy and the external environment (industry structure and competitive positioning). A summary of the link between the classic 'weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) analysis, the resource-based model, and models of industry attractiveness is provided by Barney (1991).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 1 The relationship between traditional SWOT analysis, the Resource-based model,



Source: (barney,1991)

As HRM is viewed as a critical element to the resource base of the business (J. B. Barney & Wright, 1998; B. E. Becker et al., 1998; Sheehan, 2014; Wright et al., 2001), many academics have searched for the importance of HRM to firm performance from the RBV standpoint. The discussion arose about how HRM adds to sustainable competitive advantage (Sheehan, 2014).

Ferligoj et al. (1997) claimed that competitive advantage is produced by the human capital themselves, and not by the Hr systems (i.e., staffing; recruit, hire or retain them) (i.e., staffing; recruit, employ or retain them). Along with Ferligoj et al. (1997), Wright et al. (1994) similarly claimed that HRM practices couldn't be a source of a durable competitive advantage since they may be imitated by competitors. Alternatively, they claimed that human resources or human capital may be seen as a source of competitive advantage (Wright et al., 1994).

On the other hand, some propose that HRM practices might be seen as a source of competitive advantage because the alignment of the set of practices, and complementary of the HRM would be unique (J. B. Barney, 1997; Narasimha, 2000; Oinas & Van Gils, 2001). Overall, these data points of perspective show that human resources are crucial contributors to the firm's performance directly or indirectly. Furthermore, the correlation between HRM and

Chapter Two : Literature Review

performance is anticipated to be enhanced when the application of HRM methods rises (Sheehan, 2014).

The resource-based view is a very good way to think about how to reach your company's goals by using rare, valuable, and unique resources and leveraging core competencies. However, the theory doesn't work very well in turbulent and more unstable developing markets (Sallinen, 2004; Akwei et al., 2007). This leads to the tendency to link the proactive attitude to capability realignment to the achievement of competitiveness. Recent studies (Wojcik, 2015) try to bring together two different perspectives on competitive strategies when they talk about the link between human resource management and competitive strategies.

2.1.2 Limitations of resource-based view and development of dynamic capabilities

The resource-based approach has also been critiqued as a static paradigm, particularly when a corporation works in a dynamic environment (Teece et al., 1997). According to Teece et al. (1990), it is not just the bundle of resources that matters but the processes through which businesses learn and acquire new skills and capacities, and the pressures that constrain the pace and direction of this process. They describe dynamic capabilities as “the firm’s capacity to integrate, create, and reconfigure internal and external skills to handle the continuously changing environments”.

From the "input (initial) – transformation – output (new)" process, Cepeda & Vera (2007) show how dynamic capabilities come from the way resources and operational routines are set up and changed. With the resource-based view, dynamic capabilities look at how valuable resources can be made and kept up to date in a changing environment. Ambrosini & Bowman (2009) write down the factors that help and hurt a company's dynamic capabilities: External factors include levels of dynamism in the outside world (e.g. uncertainty, complexity, and generosity), as well as the history of the company. Internal factors include managerial behavior (e.g. managers' perceptions of the environment, proactive behavior, leadership), learning, the existing set of resources, and social capital, as well as the history of the company.

Bowman & Ambrosini (2003) extend the resource-based view to inform our understanding of corporate-level strategy by incorporating the dynamic capability perspective; they conclude that "corporate centers may possess resources but must demonstrate dynamic

Chapter Two : Literature Review

capabilities or they will destroy shareholder value." In terms of human resource management, (Wright et al.2001) link human resource issues to the understanding and development of dynamic capabilities, stating that "it is facilitated by managerial promoting the change of both the stock and flow of knowledge within the firm, enabling the firm to continually renew its core competencies."

2.1.3 The emergence and characteristics of HRM

Personnel Management (PM) is said to be undergoing a drastic transition away from the conventional approach to human resource management as a result of global developments (HRM). And it is now widely understood that organizations must integrate human resource functions in order to operate as a collective unit and achieve their goals (Schuler & Jackson, 1996).

According to Drucker's philosophy, the focus in human resource management is on coherence and internal consistency. Drucker also emphasized the need of seeing human resources as an asset rather than a cost to the organization, elucidating what would become the FIRM's fundamental concept.

Armstrong (2006) states that human resource management should be "a systematic and cohesive approach to the management of an organization's most valuable assets - the people who work there and contribute individually and collectively to the attainment of the organization's goals." Similarly, Bratton & Gold (2017) define HRM as a strategic approach to managing employment relations that emphasizes the importance of leveraging people's capabilities in achieving long-term competitive advantage, which is accomplished through a distinctive set of integrated employment policies, programs, and practices.

World War II (WW2) has been considered as a watershed moment for the personnel function. Due to a relative lack of competent employees, labor relations have shifted, while government pay rules have necessitated the establishment of organizational policies on compensation schemes (Arthur, 2006). Moreover, collective bargaining had been dominated by critical issues such as benefit plans, health, and safety; hence, regular monitoring of social laws was necessary.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

HRM has originally been referred to as “personnel management” (PM), with the HRM word arising after WW2 as an endeavor to remove and deepen itself from the organizational settings and thus to strengthen its integrity (Haslinda, 2009). (Haslinda, 2009).

Traditionally, PM was about recruiting and firing personnel in firms, coupled with giving incentives and training. Therefore, PM has been stated as “the conventional term used to refer to the organizational function or department associated with managing the employment relationship”(Wilton, 2016). However, its function and purpose faced widespread criticism for fulfilling trade unions’ demands instead of controlling and conducting HRM operations to effectively adapt to different work situations (Haslinda, 2009). Thus, given the lack of a competent workforce, training opportunities were provided. Furthermore, due to the growth of employment, training, incentives, and perks, performance monitoring and assessment systems were also created.

Finally, both unionized and non-unionized employees started to acquire a stronger collective voice and eventually formalized employment regimes were developed.

Following significant employment-related legislative changes implemented globally in the 1960s and 1970s (as a result of massive business mergers), businesses were forced to consider and promote "equal employment opportunities" (EEO) and "affirmative action," with both having an impact on virtually every aspect of the employment relationship (Torrington et al., 2008; Arthur, 2006). As a result, the HRM phrase has been prevalent in pertinent conversations. Although it has gained popularity in the corporate sector, its dominant definition was inextricably linked to the work conducted in PM (Haslinda, 2009).

However, HRM reemerge in the early 1980s, and it was differentiated from PM by emphasizing those strategic HRM efforts that were connected to the individual corporate strategic goals (Dyer, 1983). HRM advised a proactive role for its activities via a "managing by anticipation" strategy, replacing the conventional emphasis of PM on personnel utilization (Ruona & Gibson, 2004).

The main concept is that while financial and technological resources are crucial for every business, human resources are the most important since without a skilled staff, the company would not be able to fulfill its objectives. It is argued by Schuler (1998) that Human Resource

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Management is critical to an organization's ability to function and that this understanding of the environment is achieved through activities such as staffing the organization, evaluating employee behavior, compensating employee performance, providing training, and monitoring and assessing the workplace environment (i.e., all of the above).

2.1.4 Defining HRM

There is not an existing definition that is universally acknowledged by all scholars studying HRM. Nevertheless, certain definitions will be offered and explored here to expose as much as possible about HRM. Resources, within an organizational environment, are characterized as everything that might be a probable strength or weakness for a certain organization, including physical and intangible assets (Wernerfelt, 1984).

Price (2007) describes HRM as “the concept of people management which is founded on the assumption that human resources are particularly significant in sustaining economic performance. HRM is finally geared at recruiting talented, adaptable, and devoted people, supervising, and rewarding their performance and growing their competencies”. Although HRM has primarily been regarded as the phrase to explain and clarify HR administration and development. also shows the interaction between an enterprise and its workers, combined with an extra centrum to behavioral change via its learning activities (Haslinda, 2009).

Thus, within a larger context, HRM may be described as: “the framework of philosophies, rules, procedures, and practices for the management of the relationship between an employer and an employee” (Wilton, 2016).

Organizational resources may fall into three broad categories: human resources, financial capacity, and technology resources. Individually and collectively, workers (human resources) contribute to the attainment of the goals of the complete business and form for many firms, the cornerstone for a competitive edge over all rivals. The main difficulty for firms is to locate the most suited personnel out of a pool of available applicants; train and finally retain them (Wiseman, 2001).

Graham (1978) argued that the main function of HRM is to ensure that the employees of an organization are utilized in such a way that the employer obtains the greatest possible benefit

Chapter Two : Literature Review

from their abilities while employees obtain both material and psychological rewards from their work.

Bratton & Gold (2017) appear to concur with Storey, stating that "HRM is a strategic approach to managing employment relations that emphasizes the critical importance of leveraging people's capabilities for competitive advantage, which is accomplished through a distinctive set of integrated employment policies, programs, and practices." According to J. Storey (1992), "human resource management is a separate approach to employment management that aims to gain competitive advantage via the strategic deployment of a highly devoted and skilled workforce using a variety of cultural, structural, and people strategies."

Human resource management policies and actions are practically always carried out by the organization's managerial staff, even if they do not completely comprehend or are familiar with all of the specifics of an HRM system. A critical review of human resource management in big organizations for the Cypriot National Guard. Typically, a specialized human resource management department exists that employs specialized employees responsible for developing policies and communicating them to line managers. Line managers are often responsible for enforcing these regulations in addition to their other responsibilities. Human resource management is concerned with the many facets of employee involvement in achieving organizational objectives (Arshad et al., 2014).

The extent of human resource management is shown via a system of strategies, rules, procedures, and practices that facilitate and explain successful employee engagement. While human resource management strategies and policies successfully define the approach to human resource management objectives, the practices are regarded as effective ways of connecting human resource management strategies and goals to workers' necessary activities. The following table 2 contains essential definitions for human resource management.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Table 1 Key Definitions of Human Resource Management

| Authors | Definitions |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Beer et al (1984) | Management decisions that affect the nature of the relationship between the organization and its employees |
| Guest (1987) | A set of policies designed to maximize organizational integration, employee commitment, flexibility, and quality of life |
| Storey (1989) | A set of interrelated policies with an ideological and philosophical underpinning |
| Jackson and Schuler (1995) | “An umbrella term that encompasses (a) specific human resource management practices such as recruitment, selection, and appraisal (b) formal human resource policies which direct and partially constrain the development of these policies (c) overarching human resource philosophies which specify the value that informs an organization’s policies and practices” |
| Greenwood (2002) | Involves the effective management of people to achieve organizational goals. |
| Panayotopoulou et al. (2003) | Organizational orientation toward management of employment |
| Boxall and Purcell (2003) | “All those activities associated with the management of employment relationship in the firm” |
| Price (2007) | “A philosophy of people management based on the belief that the human resources are uniquely vital to the business success” |
| Marchington and Wilkinson (2008) | Management of employment |
| Armstrong (2009) | “A strategic, integrated and coherent approach to the employment, development, and well-being of the people working in an organization” |
| Beardwell and Claydon (2010) | The collection of policies used to organize work in the employment relationship; it centers on the management of work and the management of people who undertake this work |
| Bal et al (2013) | Concerned with both the structure of work in a company and with all the related employment practices that are needed to carry out the work |
| Arshad et al (2014) | HRM embraces varied employee dimensions in the achievement of organizational goals |
| Weerakoon (2016) | A process of creating values utilizing such fundamental practices like recruitment and selection, training and development, incentives and appraisals, planning and |

Source: (Nwachukwu, 2016)

As seen in Table, the literature on the concept of human resource management identifies several critical aspects that comprise human resource management theory. The significant factors are those about employee management (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Armstrong, 2016), which is founded on philosophies, policies, and practices (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007), and is

Chapter Two : Literature Review

carried out within an organization in order to create value (Price, 2007) and accomplish organizational goals (Arshad et al., 2014).

While these variables emerge from the definitions to provide a broad overview of human resource management theory, they also demonstrate the discipline's variety and, potentially, its contention over its definition. Whereas the majority of definitions place a premium on workers and the establishment of an appropriate relationship pattern in the management of the workforce, a few studies have approached human resource management through the lens of organizational orientation toward maximizing employee potential (Marchington et al., 2016). Nonetheless, some alternative definitions place a greater focus on the tasks and functions of human resource management (Weerakoon, 2016; Armstrong, 2009).

Certain definitions attempt to connect human resource management to purposeful and coordinated measures that concentrate on the development of necessary personnel but leave out the influence of external factors on employees. Additionally, a few studies have placed a greater focus on the organization of labor.

Recently, HRM research has tended to concentrate on tactics and practices rather than on HRM policies and ideologies (Othman, 2009; Ugheoke et al., 2015). Whereas most research on competitive strategy begins with human resource strategy, several contextual HRM and SHRM studies (Othman, 2009; Brand & Bax, 2002; At Razouk & Bayad, 2009) have concentrated on evaluating employee management practices in organizations.

Due to the substantial effect of settings on a range of HRM activities, which has been extensively recognized in the literature, examining behaviors that have no clear connection to HR strategy may be reasonable. The authors have proposed a systems approach to the implementation of sets of HRM concerning practices (Batt & Colvin, 2011; McClean & Collins, 2011).

Although human resource management models vary significantly in terms of their emphasis and presentation, several common purposes and features of general human resource management may still be discovered. For instance, (Armstrong, 2006; Schuler & Jackson, 1996; Sisson & Storey, 2000):

Chapter Two : Literature Review

- Emphasizing the role of human resources in influencing an organization's long-term success or failure.
- Emphasizing the importance of managing organizational cultures.
- Emphasizing constant organizational change and improvement.
- Emphasizing employee and management development.
- Emphasizing "strategic fit", including the integration of business and HR strategies and the integration and mutual support among different HR functions (such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and appraisal, and reward and retention policies).
- Emphasizing management responsibility and commitment to human resource management performance and delivery, which includes different levels of managers and HR specialists.

Early studies on HRM suggest that there are two distinct forms of HRM: soft and hard and accordingly the soft and hard variant models of HRM (Katou & Budhwar, 2014).

According to Guest (1987), the soft or hard model of human resource management is determined by whether the focus is on people or resources. The soft HRM paradigm is believed to be individual-centered, in that "employee behavior is essentially self-regulated rather than governed by external fines and pressures, and relationships inside the company are built on a foundation of trust" (Wood, 1996).

On the other hand, the Hard model of human resource management stresses 'the quantitative, calculative, and business strategic components of managing the "headcount resource" in the same "logical" manner that every other unit of production is managed' (J. Storey, 1992; Legge, 2004). The hard HRM model focused on the alignment of HRM policies and practices with the firm's strategic goals, referred to as an external fit, and on the alignment of practices with the final goal, referred to as internal fit (Truss et al., 1997). According to the hard model of human resource management, external and internal fit contribute to competitive advantage (S. Storey & Sisson, 1993; Truss et al., 1997).

According to this definition of the two models, a soft model of human resource management promotes more personal and humanitarian approaches, whilst a hard model of

Chapter Two : Literature Review

human resource management is more aligned with economic goals. Even HRM rhetoric always sounds more like the soft model, however, in actuality, it is always discovered that the hard model of HRM benefits corporations more than individuals (Truss et al., 1997).

HRM researchers (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007) have tried to resolve these controversies by providing increasing prominence for hard and soft approaches to HRM. These two distinct approaches depict the managerial process of application of HRM philosophy, policies, and practices.

Soft human resource management is associated with purposefully influencing workers' talents and abilities to develop secondary skills that are beneficial to the organization. Additionally, the soft HRM strategy aims to leverage workers' dedication, quality, and adaptability toward achieving organizational objectives; as such, it appeals to employees' behavior (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007). The hard variation of HRM would imply that human resources, like other organizational resources, must be utilized to accomplish organizational objectives (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007).

Haggerty & Wright (2009) suggest that HRM should be understood more as significations provided to the workers by management about methods of carrying out their jobs. For them, this would assist in the rise beyond conceptual dichotomies current in the realm of human resource management. There are implications for HRM in that a clear difference between practices, policies, and the decision-making process for HRM must be made.

Another question that was disputed in the early HRM studies was whether HRM should use a universalistic approach (best practice) or a contingency approach (best fit). Researchers adopting the universalistic approach recommended specific HRM practices that are always better than others, and all businesses should embrace the best practices to increase performance (Delery & Doty, 1996; Mark, 1995; Katou & Budhwar, 2014). Researchers have stated that there are a variety of HRM strategies that are viewed as “best practices” like involvement and empowerment, incentive pay, job security, promotion from within, and training and skill development.

These practices include stringent selection procedures, internal merit-based promotions, and grievance mechanisms; cross-functional and cross-trained teams; high training levels;

Chapter Two : Literature Review

information sharing; participatory mechanisms; group-based rewards; and pay based on skills that are not explicitly agreed upon as being the best practice (Datta et al., 2005). Many studies have demonstrated that there is a substantial association between the application of ‘best practices and employee productivity and business success (Guthrie, 2001; Mark, 1995; Prennushi et al., 1997; MacDuffie, 1995).

On the other hand, other researchers advocate for the ‘best-fit’ strategy or the contingency approach. The contingency approach implies that a company’s HRM policies must be coordinated with other components of the organization (Delery & Doty, 1996), while the universalistic approach claims that best practices generate identical performance results without addressing contextual circumstances. Internal and external elements, such as management style and structure, and the interaction of external surroundings with enterprises' industrial context, are all included in the contingency approach to human resources management (Datta et al., 2005; Kim & Wright, 2011; Sun et al., 2007).

HRM must be aligned with both horizontal and vertical fit, according to Wright and McMahan (1992). The horizontal fit represents the internal alignment of the organization’s HRM and other activities whereas vertical fit refers to the consistency of the HRM with other organizational features such as business strategy. In this approach, it is critical to realize that the strategy of the company or organization has an impact on the link between HRM practices and organizational success.

2.1.5 The Micro- and Macro-Perspectives of HRM

From a resource’s micro-perspective Wilkinson et al. (2010) suggested that HRM encourages procedures that ensure employee capacity and incentive to succeed. Recruitment, selection, training, development, performance evaluation, rewards management, and job design are some of these techniques. Globally, HRM should develop policies to help manage the number of employees in organizations, use tactics to help develop human resources as a core competency and a contributor to organizational performance, hire people who are compatible with both the work and the organization's culture, and finally create a workforce that can adapt to change and innovation on an ongoing basis.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Wilkinson et al. (2010) discussed the micro-and macro-perspective of a human resource management system, emphasizing the human, resource, and management facets. HRM is responsible for controlling the nature of employment, employee engagement and involvement, employee experiences at work, and work-life balance from a micro-perspective of the human focus. From a macro perspective, human resource management must lay the groundwork for establishing excellent employee and labor relations, facilitating collective bargaining, ensuring the fairness of discipline policies, promoting ethical behavior, including equal opportunity, in all facets of business life, and establishing health and safety policies that must be enforced at all levels of production.

The human emphasis encompasses the HRM concern for workers as human beings, while the resource focus is focused on the contributions of human capital to organizational success. The management emphasis is on human resource management as a whole. The micro-perspective of the present era compels human resource managers to think strategically about the various effects of adopted policies. Strategic thinking is associated with change management and the development of an organizational culture that is distinct from others. The macro-perspective on human resources management has resulted in the emergence of new types of human resource managers, such as human resource generalists. Human Resource Management in the Cypriot National Guard: A Critical Analysis. that work in collaboration with human resource professionals and are supported by a broader administrative network.

2.1.6 HRM Roles

HRM must fulfill four functions to achieve its objective. It must be administrative, advocate for employees, operational, and strategic. Human resource management's administrative function is the most fundamental and can be handled by operating managers or even contracted specialized firms (Bates, 2001). The employee advocate job guarantees that workers are treated fairly and impartially and provide answers to employee concerns, whether work-related or not (Mathis & Jackson, 2004).

This function helps companies avoid expensive litigation. The operational function necessitates collaboration between human resource experts and operations management to identify and implement the necessary programs and policies. Finally, there is the strategic

Chapter Two : Literature Review

importance of human resource management. HRM should concentrate on the long-term consequences of human resource management challenges and their influence on the organization's strategy in order to attain a strategic role. To play a strategic role, human resource management must be involved in significant organizational transformations and changes such as restructuring, reengineering, mergers, acquisitions, expansions, and size reductions, as well as in general, all organizational functions requiring strategic planning (Mathis & Jackson, 2004).

2.1.7 Overview of Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM)

2.1.7.1 Theoretical Perspectives of Strategic Human Resource Management

For a long length of time, human resource management was seen as a secondary role inside corporations, as a division that absorbed finances and sometimes advocated for employee rights, therefore slowing down the organization's decision-making process. The attitude toward human resource management has changed throughout time as employment regulation has become more complicated, litigation against businesses has multiplied, and recruiting and maintaining bright employees has become tough competition between enterprises.

SHRM research is distinguished from conventional human resource management research in two significant respects. To begin, SHRM prioritizes organizational performance above individual performance; and, secondly, it highlights the significance of human resource management systems as solutions to business issues rather than isolated human resource management practices (B. E. Becker & Huselid, 2006).

But strategic HRM (SHRM) focuses more on the interrelationships between human capital and the organization's structure and strategy, as well as the external environment (M. Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). It investigates individuals' actions inside organizations and explores the manner in which they might evolve and change (Jackson et al., 2014) It also looks at the influences on the behavior and performance of individuals and organizations (Truss et al., 2012).

As a result, Rees and Smith (2017) describe SHRM as "the formulation and execution of a set of explicit and covert strategic human resource management philosophies, programs,

Chapter Two : Literature Review

strategies, and policies, all of which are geared toward accelerating the attainment of the strategic business goals." In summary, the SHRM idea evolved from organizational behavior (OB) and management studies within industrial relations and people management theories, demonstrating how its practices might be matched with business goals through a "hard" or "soft" HRM approach.

Kaufman (2015), Kramar (2014), and Buller & McEvoy (2012) all imply that SHRM, company strategy, and business success are inextricably linked. According to Armstrong & Taylor (2014) and Müller et al. (2013), the ongoing economic, political, and corporate transformation has demanded the adoption of a more strategic human resource management strategy inside firms to compete successfully on a global scale, beyond maintaining survival.

Taking all of this into consideration, various SHRM models (Michigan Model, Matching Model, Harvard, Guest's Model, Warwick, Sparrow, and Marchington Model) have been developed to demonstrate how strategic alignment between human resource objectives and corporate objectives and strategies can be achieved (Cross & Carbery, 2016; French et al., 2015; Wilson, 2014).

Given the relationship between HRM and HRD concepts, the SHRM models' propositions can be viewed as precursors to the development of the respective SHRD models, as the majority of their recommendations are contained within the latter's strategic components (e.g., consideration of stakeholders' interests, employee voice, contextual factors, behavioral change, HR-corporate strategy integration, etc.). Nonetheless, given the ever-changing business and economic circumstances, it is critical to advance HRD's strategic position inside businesses by building a modified SHRD framework defining the characteristics of an SHRD mature company.

Greer & Greer (2001) observed, "There is an increasing acknowledgment of the link between an organization's overall strategy and its human resource practices." When human resources are employed to achieve or maintain a competitive edge over rivals, they acquire strategic value. Numerous firms strategically use human capital, establishing a strong core competency that is difficult for rivals to copy or "steal."

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Armstrong (2006) defined strategic HRM as "a method for managing human resources strategically in line with the organization's aspirations about the future path it wishes to pursue." This statement establishes the need for a long-term strategy that assists and directs the organization in achieving its vision, purpose, and goals via methodical operational actions.

According to early conceptions, SHRM systems are influenced by a variety of management and situational circumstances. This review places a premium on SHRM's fit theories, which explain how and why the connections between forces and human resource strategy are developed. Additionally, it examines the relationship between external environmental components and raises the issue of the degree to which human-environment strategies might be fashioned differently in response to environmental changes.

The evolution of HRM models is shown by the establishment of the idea of SHRM, as Wright & McMahan (1992) and Boxall (1996) identify two major discourse threads in HRM. The first is predicated on the premise that human resource management is a commitment-based paradigm of labor management. The second examines the link between strategic management and employee relations inside businesses.

The Harvard model (Beer et al., 1984) and the Michigan model (Fombrun et al., 1984) became the essential models of human resource management, both emphasizing the need of distinguishing the idea and science of human resource management from personnel management. Both approaches take into account the situational aspects of human resource management. As seen in Figure 2, the Harvard model categorizes components according to their antecedents.

The first category is the environment of societal values, laws, the labor market, and the business conditions where the organization operates.

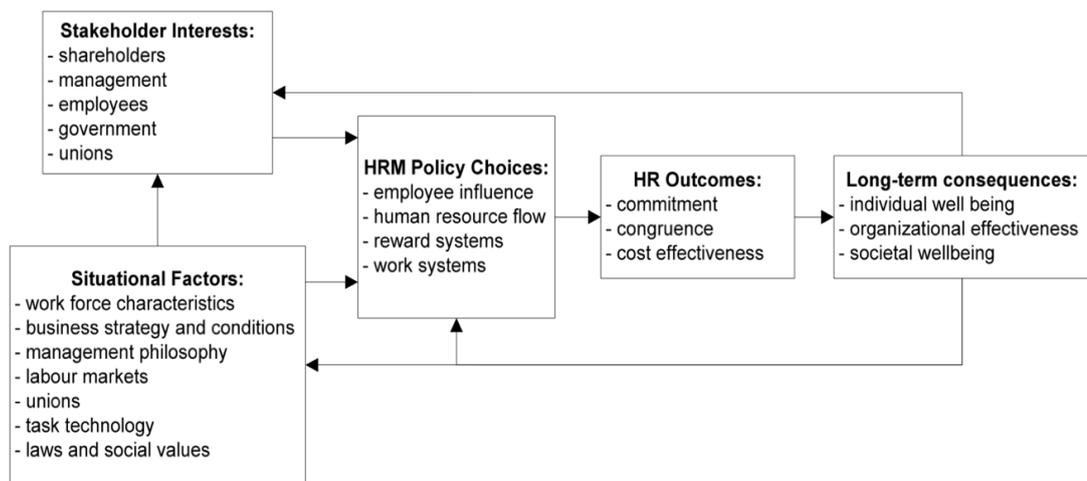
The second category is the elements that are under the organization's control but are limited by previous managerial decisions and history, including workforce characteristics, task technology, and unions.

The third category includes the elements that are directly related to the business, including management philosophy and business strategy.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

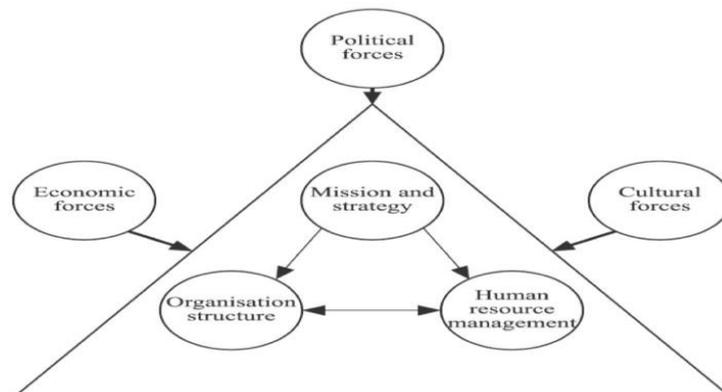
Internal and external influences are both counted in terms of the items included within these categories. Except for the first category, which is wholly composed of external variables, the third category of company strategy may also be influenced by external factors. As seen in Figure 3, situational components in the Michigan model take into account both internal and external settings, including purpose, strategy, and organizational structure, as well as cultural, economic, and political pressures. Thus, even these early models encourage further investigation of the relationship between situational environment and human resource management.

Figure 02 The Harvard model (Beer et al, 1984)



source: (Shi, 2018)

Figure 03 The Michigan Model (Fombrun et al., 1984)



source: (Shi,2018)

Chapter Two : Literature Review

This is consistent with a number of the critical criteria highlighted in the well-known Harvard and Michigan models of human resource management. In these, an emphasis on human capital became a prominent theme, with assertions that cost-effective human resource management may be the difference between company survival and success. Similar to previous HRM models, contemporary research continues to emphasize the need for a parallel HR strategy that facilitates the execution of an organization's strategic business plan by building capacity in the workforce to accomplish the organization's strategic goals (Cascio & Boudreau, 2012).

Another recent trend in HRM studies is the focus shift from external to internal factors (Kaufman, 2015). On the other hand, the trend towards shifting the focus from external factors towards internal factors might leave gaps that are underdeveloped in terms of exploring the impacts of the aforementioned dramatic changes in the economic environment.

Human resource strategies have been defined as the alignment of certain strategic or organizational circumstances with specific human resource procedures or competencies. Meanwhile, changing corporate strategies may become a significant channel for external influences to influence HR strategy. Given that HRM strategy is critical for the efficient implementation of business strategy, and that business strategy can be formulated and influenced by a variety of environmental factors, except those directly affecting HRM, it raised the issue that the formulation and adjustment of HRM strategy should be reactive to environmental factors affecting business strategy and, in turn, HRM strategy.

Researchers have also talked about the idea of vertical and horizontal linkage in strategic HRM. Baird and Meshoulam (1988) say that HR strategy should match the life-cycle of the company, as well as make sure that all parts of the HR function work together. The vertical linkage of SHRM refers to how SHRM is in line with other important organizational processes. The horizontal linkage refers to how HRM practices that are compatible with SHRM elicit behaviors that are in line with the organization's HR conditions, rather than causing policy conflicts between them (McMahan et al., 1999).

For example, the external link between HR strategies and business strategies is like the horizontal link between HR strategies and business strategies (Schuler & Jackson, 1987;

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Pfeffer, 1998; D. E. Guest, 1987; Fombrun et al., 1984). This shows that when the business strategy needs to be changed to meet the needs of the outside world, the HRM strategy should also change to match these changes. It is important to think about the business strategy when changing HR practices. These internal and external fits can be thought of as a way to think about how important factors shape and push the development of SHRM systems.

External alignment and internal alignment are two types of strategic alignment that are talked about in the literature. External alignment is when an organization's strategy is in line with its environment. Internal alignment is when the strategy is in line with the organization itself (internal alignment). Then, we talk about things like how an organization is set up, how it is run, and how it is run (Boswell et al., 2006).

2.1.7.2 Major SHRM Approaches (Contingency, universalistic, configurational, and contextual)

In general, the efficacy of human resource management on organizational performance may be described and summarized in four ways: the universalistic, contingent, configurational, and contextual modes of operation (Susan E. Jackson et al., 1989; Delery & Doty, 1996; Martin-Alcazar et al., 2005). In the field of human resource management, research has traditionally been focused on showing the superiority of one viewpoint over another, with little consideration given to the possible complementary nature (Youndt et al., 1996.) of the many SHRM models (Youndt, 1996). In order to effectively serve the field of SHRM, it seems that the organization should consider extending and merging its "competing" ideas into a single cohesive body (D. Guest et al., 2000).

Both the contingency and configurational methods propose that firms will profit from certain alignments or "fits" in their human resource management. When it comes to human resource management best practices, the universalistic approach asserts that there is a single set of universally applicable practices that are linked to organizational advantage, whereas the contextual approach maintains that organizations, as social institutions, need to integrate themselves into the social context in which they operate.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

To achieve these objectives, strategic human resource management places a strong emphasis on an organization's ability to learn. Organizational learning is defined as the capacity of a company to learn from both its internal and external environments, and from changes (Argyris, 1999). It is also within this sector that the notion of human resource development (HRD), which will be addressed in more detail in the next section, starts to take shape. Following these efforts, strategic human resource management is centered on the interaction between strategic management and employee relations, as well as on learning, collaboration, and innovation inside the organization.

It has also been emphasized that trends in resource-based theory literature are pushing all those interested in strategy towards studies of intellectual capital, learning processes, and company adaptability (Boxall & Purcell, 2011).

Researchers in strategic human resource management could play a significant role in these developments because questions such as how to inspire, motivate, and develop employees with essential and scarce skills, as well as how to develop effective processes of work companies, should be fundamental to any model of knowledge-based competition, according to the International Organization for Standardization.

2.1.8 Towards an integration of the perspectives/approaches

In conjunction with one another, these four explanations make models more sophisticated and, as a result, improve our knowledge of SHRM. As previously stated, although some writers advocate for the concept of external and internal fit, others contend that there is a recognizable set of best practices for managing people that have universal additive position impacts on the performance of a business (Kulvisaechana, 2003).

The issue between best fit and best practice has not yet been settled, and the ongoing discussion indicates that both approaches have flaws. As previously noted, the fit viewpoint seems to have been used too simplistically, and it has often failed to take into account strategy, internal alignment, and other contextual elements suitably or simultaneously. Furthermore, research in the best practice approach has tended to be one-dimensional. Recent work suggests that the effectiveness of "best practices" (as opposed to best fit) may be dependent on the environment in which they are implemented, underlining the need for a more complex study to

Chapter Two : Literature Review

determine the appropriate application of these practices to maximize organizational advantage. According to the research, when the context of human resource management "best" practices is further defined, the full value of these practices may be noticed. Some scholars (D. Guest et al., 2000; Youndt et al., 1996) believe that the two techniques are complementary.

According to Allen and Wright (2006), the inclusion of both vertical and horizontal alignment was a big step forward in understanding how human resource management may help the achievement of strategic objectives. The four viewpoints combined demonstrate a spectrum that spans all potential techniques (Martin-Alcazar et al., 2005). Despite the clear disparities between the four viewpoints, Alcazar et al. (2005), in their study, argue that each perspective complements the others by contributing constructs, variables, or interactions not examined by others. By merging their key ideas, it is possible to build a more sophisticated/comprehensive model, which contributes to our understanding of the complicated phenomena of SHRM in general.

2.1.9 HRM in the 21't Century and the Importance of Training

A rising corpus of research has focused on the effect and impact of HRD on organizational performance. One of the most significant components of HRD is its emphasis on training as a tool to increase organizational performance and capability. The acknowledgment of human capabilities as the source of competitive advantage in the 21't century, and the decreasing dependence on natural sources drive contemporary public and commercial companies to spend more on their human capital. the changing function of human resources in contemporary production systems has transformed the emphasis of the conventional field of human resource management and its models. Budhwar & Sparrow (2002) asserts that the traditional cultures of the early industrial age concentrated on human labor rather than skills.

The necessity to extract raw materials and generate manufactured products made it imperative to concentrate on human labor for manufacturing and goods. However, Drucker (1969) contends that since the beginning of the 21't century, there has been a considerable transition from dependence on labor to talents and intelligence of human resources. The new working, postindustrial, environment no longer relied on specialized jobs and standardized line operation, but rather on the expertise of the personnel (Ducker 1969). Hence, it has become

Chapter Two : Literature Review

vital to expand the knowledge and abilities of workers by investing in their training in order to achieve better organizational productivity.

There are several advantages to be gained from the adoption of training programs, the most significant of which is an increase in work performance. For example, Arthur Jr et al. (2003) performed a thorough meta-analysis of 1152 impact sizes from 165 sources and found that, when compared to firms that did not have training programs, performance rose greatly and employee behavior improved significantly as well.

In addition, Barber (2004) discovered that job training resulted in enhanced proficiency in the use of machines as well as higher inventiveness in the way they were used in research that covered the usage of machines in Northern Indiana. In addition, numerous research done in the European environment discovered a favorable association between training and employee performance.

For example, Aguinis and Pierce (2008) conducted a survey of 457 small and medium-sized businesses in the United Kingdom, Finland, the Netherlands, Spain, and Portugal to assess the impact of training on the effectiveness of job-related indicators as well as the profitability of these businesses. According to the findings of the research, training was an important component that had a beneficial impact on both the levels of organizational effectiveness and the levels of employee satisfaction and performance.

A research done in Spain by Garcia (2005) examined the impact of training on organizational and employee performance. He questioned 78 firms with more than 100 workers to assess the impact of training on organizational and employee performance. employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction with life, owner satisfaction, and the degree of productivity achieved by the staff were the four primary factors of the organization's success that he analyzed. Results of this research revealed a significant positive relationship between training and each of the four factors examined. Conclusions As a result, these studies indicated that organizational training is an important factor in improving the performance of both public and private sector organizations, as well as keeping their knowledge and abilities up to date to compete on a global scale.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

In both the private and public sectors, several studies have been undertaken that have shown that establishing an effective human resource management strategy is essential for attaining organizational success (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). According to several reports, human resource management has emerged as a strategic issue and a top priority for firms seeking to dramatically increase their competencies and competitiveness.

2.2 Human Resource Development: A Theoretical Perspective

Introduction

Human capital is the most valuable asset that any firm may have in its possession. T&D is a critical problem in the development of human resources and the management of such resources. Perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs concerning the development of human resources are included in the philosophical viewpoint of human resource development (Wang, 2008). From a theoretical standpoint, the breadth of human resource activities has a significant impact on human resource development (Abdullah, 2009).

Organizations are in desperate need of highly qualified employees who possess the necessary abilities to carry out their responsibilities efficiently. T&D is required for a variety of reasons, one of which is the importance of HRM operations, especially in the area of HRD (Gubbins & Garavan, 2009). Human resource development (HRD) is the development of competent and qualified employees within a learning culture to enhance the performance of companies and prepare them for change in response to the changes that are occurring in this global era (Kissack & Callahan, 2010).

Many of the developments in the corporate environment that have contributed to the expansion of human resource management have also had a positive impact on the development of human resources. As identified by Garavan (1997), there are at least six primary forces that have sparked interest in human resource development: new technological development, increased pressure for higher quality, new competitive business arrangements (such as joint-venture arrangements), internationalization of the business environment, more flexible organizational structures and a scarcity of qualified human resources.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

While Human Resources Development (HRD) is a wide and complicated issue that is difficult to define, the majority of HRD definitions, such as those provided by Swanson (2001), acknowledge that training and development are essential components. Human resource development (HRD) in Western economies, according to the literature, is increasingly focusing on all learning processes as a broader issue, from individual to organizational learning and from traditional Training and Development (T&D) to some strategically aligned HRD, which links its processes and activities with organizational strategies, rather than just training programmers (Garavan, 2007).

Those who have written on human resource development throughout the years have identified several areas of theory as the most essential. As an example, Swanson (2001) argues that the discipline of human resource development is based on three fundamental theories: psychological theory, economic theory, and systems theory, whereas Weinberger (1998) identifies five theories: individual learning, systems theory (organizational learning - learning organizations), performance improvement, economic theory, and psychological theory.

Organizations should take into consideration a variety of factors, such as the ability to compete technologically and economically while operating under fewer restrictions in order to meet the expectations of the marketplace (De Wang & Niu, 2010). As a result, firms should realize the importance of their employees' contributions and the necessity to provide them with proper training to allow them to further develop their abilities. It has been suggested that continuous technological growth leads to a scarcity of skills among employees, necessitating the need for training to close the skills gap that results (F. M. Wilson, 2014). Training provided to workers is often oriented toward boosting their performance, and many of these programs have a short-term effect, but employee development has a long-term impact on employee performance.

2.2.1 Human Resource Development

Organizational development is impacted by competition and technological innovation in response to customer needs and globalization, among other factors. It is necessary to use a systematic approach to enhance the performance of human resources to better prepare them to meet the demands of changing environments (Krishnaveni & Sripirabaa, 2008). Human

Chapter Two : Literature Review

resource development (HRD) is a concept that encompasses training and development, management development, and organizational development, and it falls under the wider term human resource management (HRM) (R. A. Swanson et al., 2001). Human resource development (HRD) as a theory is a framework that encompasses the development of human capital in organizations via the growth of organizations and their employees to increase the performance of such organizations (Kelly, 2001).

According to Nadler (1970), the notion of human resource development (HRD) was initially defined as engaging human resources in the context of behavioral change, and this is the primary goal of HRD operations. A more specific definition of human resource development is as follows: 'any process or activity that, either initially or over time, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity, and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or the benefit of an organization, community, nation, or, ultimately, the entire human race' (McLean & McLean, 2001).

Garavan (1997) believes that the concepts of 'training,' 'education,' and 'development' are all important components of the learning process and that they serve to tie them all together. Merriam and Cunningham (1989) broadened the definition of human resource development to include a field of study and practice responsible for the development of long-term work-related learning capacity at the individual, group, and organizational levels.' As such, it encompasses a wide range of activities, including but not limited to training, career development, and organizational development (p. 427).

McLagan (1989) agrees with Watkin's definition, stating that human resource development (HRD) is the 'integrated use of training and development, organizational development, and career development to improve individual, group, and organizational effectiveness to improve individual, group, and organizational effectiveness.' However, according to McLagan (1989), aspects of human resource development include organization/job design, human resource planning, performance assessment systems, selection, and staffing, among other things.

Using an older definition from the authors, McLean and McLean (2001), human resource development is defined as "any process or activity that, either initially or over time, has the

Chapter Two : Literature Review

potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity, and satisfaction" whether for personal or group/team benefit or for the benefit of an organization, community/nation/or ultimately for the benefit of the entire human race (p.322). Human resource development (HRD) has arisen as a term that includes training and development, as well as more general challenges, such as organizational development.

It includes the learning system that helps companies to realize their full potential as well as the potential of their human resources via learning experiences (in class) and learning by doing (on the job) (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986). However, the idea of human resource development incorporates psychological factors, which include the goals, ambitions, and aspirations of workers, among other things. Rather than concentrating just on the physical and material components of people's lives, the concern now includes the improvement of people's lives' overall quality as well as the fulfillment of their psychological requirements (Gonzalez et al., 2008).

Training, career development, organizational development, and research and development, in addition to other organizational HR functions, were defined as follows by Slotte et al. (2004): "the function that is primarily concerned with the development of learning capacity at all levels of the organization, integrating learning culture into the organization's overall business strategy, and encouraging the organization's efforts to achieve high-quality performance."

In the view of (M. Armstrong, 2016), human resource development is essentially a business-led approach, in the sense that it is responsive to the needs of the organization in terms of the skills and intellectual capital required at present and in the future.

Human resource development (HRD) is defined as a function that includes training and development, career planning, and performance evaluation, and that focuses on the acquisition of the necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to facilitate the achievement of employees' career goals and the achievement of corporate objectives. As a result, it consists of three main activities: training, which is the short-term acquisition of the skills and attitudes necessary to make people more effective in their current jobs; education, which is the

Chapter Two : Literature Review

intermediate development of individuals' capabilities; and development, which is the long-term improvement of individuals' performance at their jobs.

Burrow & Berardinelli (2003) argue that HRD plays different roles within organizations.

- ✓ Recruiting and retention of high-quality people and organizing them effectively.
- ✓ Defining and measuring levels of performance of the existing and long-serving employees.
- ✓ Analyzing job contents in relation to the organization's objectives.
- ✓ Identifying training needs.
- ✓ Planning for, and providing, a T&D program to improve current job performance and enhance individual careers and personnel growth.
- ✓ Helping employees manage their careers and encouraging them to accept changes.
- ✓ Creating an organizational capability that contains a manageable behavioral pattern that originates from the organization-specific competencies of individuals combined with the organization structure and process in a manner, which creates both uniqueness and value to the customer.
- ✓ Creating, providing, and enhancing an atmosphere or culture that facilitates an organization's learning, innovation, and changes.

It is based on this premise that the success of any country is partially attributable to investments in its people resources via education and training, which are regarded as essential conditions for national advancement (Crook et al., 2011). In the context of knowledge management and learning organizations, human resource development is related to the original nature of the notion of human resource development and SHRD (Abdullah, 2009).

2.2.2 HRD as a process with multi-perspective

It has also been proposed that human resource development is a process with several viewpoints, including a process perspective, a function perspective, and a context and content perspective. From the standpoint of a process, human resource development is considered a system, but it is concerned with HRD as a process in which individuals from both inside and outside the business are involved. The functional view considers human resources as though it were a department with its experts and geographical locations. The content viewpoint examines

Chapter Two : Literature Review

human resource development in terms of its environment and support (R. A. Swanson et al., 2001).

The discussion related to HRD as T&D and as organizational learning from a theoretical perspective of HRD revolves around skills gap analysis. Most of the studies about the application of HRD in Arab countries reveal that there are shortcomings in the performance of individuals in Arab organizations compared to individuals in western organizations.

2.2.3 The origins of HRD

There are those who believe that the roots of human resource development can be traced back to America at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution; however, there are those who believe that it first appeared in 1913 when Ford Motor Company provided training to its employees to increase mass production within its assembly line (Stewart & Sambrook, 2012). However, at the onset of World War II in the 1940s, a key historical turning point occurred. Because of the rising need for manufacturing weapons, battleships, and other military equipment, there has been a rise in the necessity for providing thorough training to employees (Werner & DeSimone, 2011).

Those who believe that human resource development (HRD) began in the 1950s and 1960s when employee developmental theories were published and put into practice by organizational psychologists, disagree (Ruona, 2001). During the 1960s and 1970s, it was assumed that human resource executives were also responsible for mentoring and advising workers (Abdullah, 2009). Afterward, it was Nadler and Nadler (1989) recognized the expanded responsibility of the project manager and subordinated it to the larger structure of human resources, as well as the function of employee selection and development to the HRD term.

2.2.4 Characteristics of HRD

Harrison (2012) suggests that the signs that HRD is happening, that is operating within the strategic framework of the business, are that it will be:

- Internally consistent.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

- Management-led (with specialist staff playing a supportive role).
- Durable and meaningful (integral to the long-term direction of the business).
- Aligned (tied in with corporate mission and goals).

Expert (skillful provision and management of learning to improve performance).

Garavan's (1997) model of strategic HRD identifies nine characteristics, featured:

- Line manager commitment & involvement.
- Existence of complementary HRM.
- Expanded trainer role.
- Recognition of culture.
- Emphasis on evaluation.
- Integration with organizational mission/goals.
- Senior/top management support.
- Environmental scanning.
- Clearly articulated, consistent Policies & Plans.

Finally, scholarly analyses show that the content and methods of human resource development are shifting to incorporate the discursive activity of strategy creation, which is summarized as follows: Instead of senior management making decisions and 'telling' employees what to do, human resource professionals might engage in the strategic planning process. The doing now includes speaking in the form of a contribution to strategy creation rather than just offering technical instruction at the operational level. This shows that experts may be doing/saying various things in different ways depending on their field of expertise. Human resource development (HRD) has arisen as a discursive activity concerned with strategy, company goals, competency, managing change, and optimizing the usage of available resources.

2.2.5 History of the rise of HRD

The emergence of the human resource development strategy is now recognized to go much beyond the conventional idea of industrial training. According to McGoldrick et al. (2001), "the growth of human resource development may be traced historically from training and instructional design through training and development, to employee development, and

Chapter Two : Literature Review

finally to human resource development». Human resource development has been characterized in a variety of ways.

According to Bratton and Gold (2017), "human resource development encompasses the procedures and processes that are designed to provide learning activities that will improve the skills, knowledge, and capabilities of individuals, teams, and organizations in order to bring about a change in action that will result in the achievement of the desired outcomes." In general, human resource development is a long-term process of developing persons."

While training focuses on particular actions, development is primarily focused on knowledge, allowing employees to take on greater responsibilities and do various occupations. Human Resource management is evolving away from a training-based strategy to a development-based one under the New Public Management (NPM) model.

A 'fragmented' approach, a 'formalized' approach, and a 'focused' approach to training and development may all be found in companies, according to Barham et al. (1988). Training in the fragmented method is not tied to the organization's objectives. As a luxury or waste of time, it is seen as unsystematic and directed by trainers in the training department. Training takes precedence over personal growth, with little consideration given to either. A focus on knowledge and skill in the structured approach is related to the demands of human resources and is tied to an evaluation system.

Trainers are involved in the training process, which is more developmental (off-the-job). Line managers are more actively engaged in training and development, and a greater emphasis is placed on tailoring the curriculum to meet the specific requirements of each employee. Focused training and development are seen as a necessity for the long-term existence of a business. Organizational strategies and individual aspirations are intertwined in the process of learning.

On-the-job training is the primary focus (continuous activity). When it comes to learning and growth, it is up to individuals to choose what they want to learn and how they want to learn it. This strategy gives line managers additional responsibility for training. The organization's future will benefit from a more targeted strategy. From the perspective of a manager, "It is becoming more common for leaders to take on more of a supporting, rather than a directive,

Chapter Two : Literature Review

role. It demonstrates a desire to adopt a more comprehensive strategy that considers both abilities and character traits " (Barham et al., 1988).

It can be seen that the focused approach is more strategic and serves the employee and the firm. Thus, New Public Management is moving toward HRD which represents the focused approach to Human Resources training and development.

2.2.6 T&D and HRD

Nadler & Nadler (1989) came up with a short and simple definition of training and development that was easier to understand. The training was defined as "learning provided by employers that are related to the job," and development was defined as "learning for the growth of the individual that is not related to a specific job." HRD hasn't been as easy to define. However, it is still important to look at and separate HRD from T&D.

In their first definition, Nadler & Nadler (1989) defined HRD as "a series of organized activities conducted within a specified period and designed to produce behavioral change," and in their most recent definition, HRD was defined as "a set of systematic and planned activities designed by an organization to provide its members with opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands.". Human resource development and training and development have a lot in common, as can be seen from these definitions, since both focus on educating and training employees to do their best work.

Nadler & Nadler (1989) agreed that HRD and T&D can increase performance, and they backed this up. HRD and T&D, on the other hand, are claimed to be distinct in their functions and techniques by authors like Harrison (2012). Training and Development (T&D) was stated to have a far broader responsibility, including coaching, counseling, and the selection of employees (Nadler & Nadler, 1989).

Human resource development is a strategic and corporate approach to training and development of human resources in an organization for performance and organizational progress, it was suggested (Garavan et al., 1995). Figure 4 illustrates the distinction between training and development (T&D) and human resources development (HRD).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 04 Commonalities and Differences Between T&D and HRD

| | Concept | Purposes | Roles |
|----------------------------|----------|----------------------|---------------|
| Human resource development | Learning | Current & future job | Strategy & TD |
| Development | Learning | Future job | Development |
| Training | Learning | Current job | Training |

Source: (Haslinda, 2009)

Nevertheless, HRD and T&D may be similar in their concepts and purposes, as mentioned above, but HRD is different in that it has roles that extend far beyond training and development (Stead & Lee, 1996).

Human resource development (HRD) is a strategic-oriented organizational process for managing the development of human resources that are strategically linked to workers' training and development as well as overall company performance (Harrison, 2012). For the sake of simplicity, HRD is an extension of T&D that incorporates a strategic component, while T&D is a function that assists in the implementation of HRD. As a result of understanding the distinction between training and development and human resource development, it is possible to explore the essential principles behind HRD.

Human resource development (HRD) is the most advanced level of training and development since it includes teaching and improving the abilities of workers to accomplish certain goals (J. P. Wilson, 2005). However, the distinction between training and development and human resource development is that 'human resource development is seen to be more beneficial than training since it encourages the engagement of many stakeholders rather than merely the training providers' (Harrison, 2005).

Another distinction between training and development and human resource development is that human resource development is future-oriented and refers to the growth of workers'

Chapter Two : Literature Review

abilities. Therefore, companies should prepare ahead for the knowledge and skills that will be necessary for their future objectives and operations (Harrison & Kessels, 2004a). Human resource development also covers a variety of activities related to training, development, education, and learning, while several academics have noted that the relevance of HRD features in the organizational environment is still under-researched at this time.

Mabey et al. (1998) believe that training in most organizations is based on traditional models, with less concern directed at the strategic roles training HRD plays in organizations.

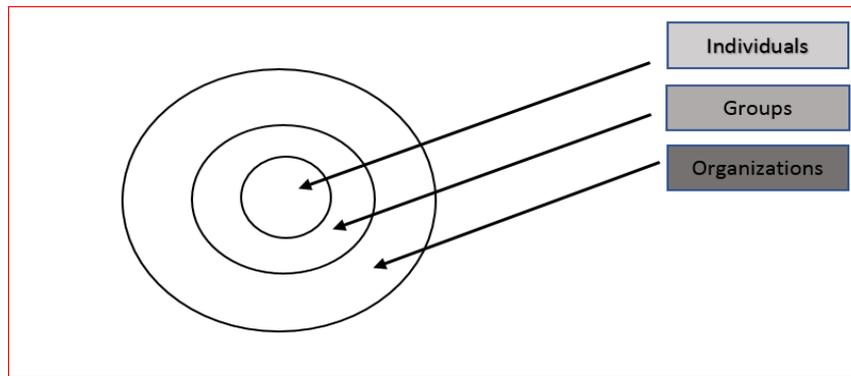
Naama et al. (2008), on the other hand, feel that training should be combined with education and human resource development in order to create a holistic undertaking that goes beyond training and development. As a result, human resource development (HRD) comprises the organizational process for managing human resources and is strategically related to the training and development of personnel and the performance of their activities. As a result, human resource development (HRD) incorporates training and development (T&D) as a strategic component, while T&D is a tool for the execution of HRD (Harrison, 2005).

2.2.7 Intended Beneficiary and General Purposes of HRD

In general, definitions of human resource development asserted that the intended beneficiary of HRD operations is the individual employee, intending to improve the behavior and performance of the employee (Werner & DeSimone, 2011). Human resource development, on the other hand, is a discipline of research and practice to improve the learning capacity of people, groups, and organizations (Harrison, 2012). While these definitions suggest that human resource development benefits solely people, groups, and organizations, the reality is that HRD in organizations may assist a variety of different beneficiaries who are not included in the statistics. Figure 5 illustrates a more straightforward method of identifying the target audience and beneficiaries of human resource development.

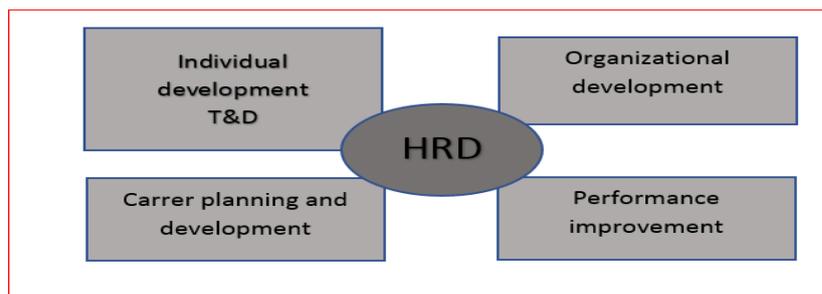
Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 05 intended beneficiary of human resource development



Source: (Albawardy, 2010)

Figure 06 interrelated functions of human resource development



Source: (Haslinda, 2009)

Nonetheless, one of the most important goals of human resource development, as identified by the numerous definitions, is performance enhancement. It has been said that performance management is one of the four core roles of human resource development since it is a significant extension of HRD philosophy (Werner & DeSimone, 2011; Gilley et al., 2002). The four major functions of human resource development (HRD), which are illustrated in Figure 6, are as follows: individual development, organizational development, career development, and performance development. These four functions can be clearly described as interrelated functions within HRD, as illustrated in Figure 6. Some researchers, on the other hand, have opposing perspectives on these four functions. In summary, the goals of human resource development may be summarized as seen in Figure 6.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.2.8 HRD and Learning Organization

Earlier, it was discussed that one of the most important concepts in human resource development is learning and the development of learning within organizations. Learning organizations are defined as those that empower their human resources to learn as they work on their tasks, while also utilizing technology to maximize both learning and output (Marquardt, 1996). However, to develop a learning organization, it is necessary to transform (Watkins & Marsick, 1993). According to Stewart (1991), the ultimate goal of organizational development is a learning organization, and transformation (which is also a major notion in human resource development) is a learning process (Watkins & Marsick, 1993). As a result of their research, Boyett & Boyett (1995) concluded that the most important basic in learning companies is to have human resources with tacit knowledge, which includes intuition and expertise as well as creativity and core competencies.

Senge (2006) agrees, stating that learning is about strengthening skills and developing the capabilities to generate new ideas and innovate new products. This, on the other hand, may set the stage for a debate over the usefulness of human resource development in building tacit knowledge, skills, and competencies. Other theorists, on the other hand, asserted that teaming organizations are concerned with the team working and performance improvement, cooperation, and collaboration, teaming through coaching, support, and feedback, and teaming based on process, intuition, and relationships, as well as strategic management (Garavan et al., 2002). As a result, organizations can anticipate and adapt more readily to environmental changes, as well as accelerate innovation (Marquardt, 1996). However, more empirical research is needed to determine the degree to which companies recognize these premises in human resource development for organization growth to anticipate change and innovation.

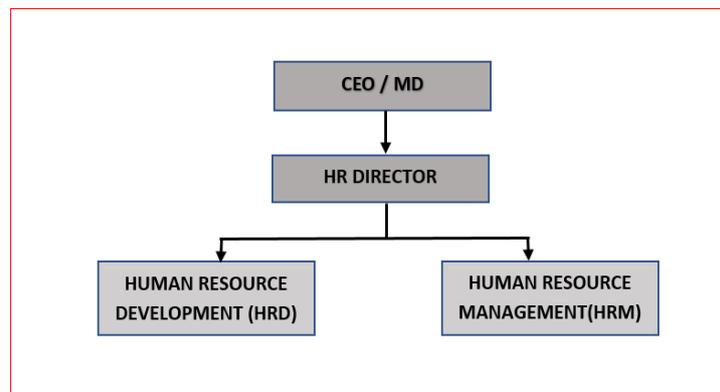
2.2.9 Location of HRD within the Organizational Structure

Several scholars have suggested that the position of human resource development (HRD) inside an organization's structure is confusing, owing to the competing and reactive perspectives of academics and HRD professionals about HRD activities and outcomes. Furthermore, the human resources department's roles in companies are seen as minor in terms of the organization's structure and its contribution to the company (Buckley & Caple, 2009).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Based on the parallel nexus between HRD and FIRM that was established in the preceding section, the HRD department is tied to and contributes to, the organization's corporate strategy and mission statement. In this context, the Human Resources Development department may be placed alongside the Human Resources Management department under the supervision of the Human Resources Director, who may report to the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or the Managing Director (see Figure 7).

Figure 07 parallel nexus

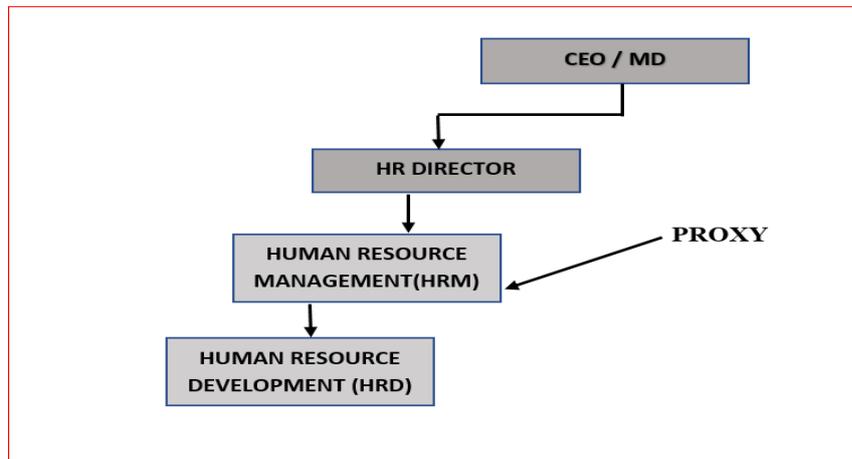


Source: (Albawardy, 2010)

This is because it is claimed that human resource development should have direct contact with senior management to secure their support and commitment towards HRD (Buckley & Caple, 2009), rather than being spoken via a proxy through a personnel function, as seen in Figure 8 below. This human resource management system, on the other hand, may differ from one firm to another.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 08 proxy nexus



Source: (Haslinda, 2009)

All the same, in some large organizations, all human resource development activities may be centralized, whereas, in other organizations, the span of control over human resource development may be decentralized by placing trainers in strategic locations and operating independently of corporate headquarters. According to reports, organizations with several large divisions may have both a corporate and regional human resource development staff, with the corporate department's role being to advise and coordinate HRD activities across the organization's various divisions, which is carried out through the regional department (Wexley & Latham, 1991).

In contrast, in smaller firms, the HRD job may be carried out by human resource professionals, who have dual responsibility for managing and developing their staff. Alternatives include having centralized employees go from one site to another or having trainees congregate at one location for training in companies when there are numerous small corporate branches located in various areas (Buckley & Caple, 2009).

It is possible to categorize the position of the HRD function inside an organization according to one of the various reporting systems. The first is a reporting structure that allows the head of the human resources department to report directly to the CEO or the board of directors of the company. Except in cases where training and development is a common practice, this circumstance may be considered exceptional. The second option is to report to the Personnel Director or the Director of Human Resources, which is considered to be a standard

Chapter Two : Literature Review

organizational structure. In this structure, the human resource development function may be seen as a specialized sub-division at times. In the third structure, human resource development (HRD) is integrated into the line management role; there is no HRD department or experts, and line managers are expected to be responsible for their workers' training and development (Haslinda, 2009).

This situation may be commonly found in small firms. Fourth, the HRD function may be viewed as an integral part of professional development, with some professionals, such as engineers or accountants controlling the professional development of junior staff under the direction of an experienced professional.

At the end of the day, human resource development operations may be regulated according to specialized roles, with particular departments being accountable for their training and development (Moorby, 1996). Although there are several methods in which human resource development (HRD) might exist in a company, the existence, and placement of the HRD department may be impacted by several variables. These factors may include the organizational environment, business goals and strategies, organizational structure and culture, the employment system and technology, and the political system, all of which are significant factors in determining where human resource development should be located within a company (Harrison, 2012).

2.2.10 HRD and Systems Theory

This part will highlight three theories that form part of systems theory concerning HRD: HRD as a sub-system, organizational learning, and knowledge management all of which have implications for HR practice and its focus on achieving organizational change.

Besides indicating that human resource development and strategic management development constitute a distinct subsystem, the research argues that human resource development is essential to organizational development and learning. As outlined by Argyris and Schön (1978), "there is no organizational learning without individual learning, and individual learning is a required but inadequate condition for organizational learning," the notion of the Organizational Learning system (OL) was first introduced.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

The relationship between change and knowledge was also talked about, and the OL system was created as a way to improve actions by using more knowledge and understanding (Fiol & Lyles, 1985). This way, the organization can improve its performance by sharing knowledge between employees to add value to their strategy (Stewart et al., 2001). The concept of OL says that learning must be very important to the change in the organization. Here, the focus must be on the whole group learning rather than on each person learning on his or her own (Dixon, 1992).

The idea of OL is often linked to learning organizations (LO). People who work in a learning organization (LO) are always looking for and solving problems, which allows the organization to keep trying new things, improving, and growing. This increases its ability to grow, learn, and achieve its goals (Daft, 2008). Another set of ideas about how people learn in groups is called "Knowledge Management" (KM). KM was broken down into three groups: formal, process, and organizational aspects (Leondes, 2005). In 1998, O'dell and Grayson said knowledge management (KM) is "a conscious strategy for getting the right knowledge to the right people at the right time and helping people share, collaborate, and put information into action in ways that strive to improve organizational performance." Wiig, (1994), on the other hand, focused on the systematic and formal aspects of KM when they said it is "the systematic, explicit, and deliberate building, renewal, and application of knowledge." This definition says that the organization must build effective systems of knowledge and support the system's ongoing improvement in order to add value to its performance. Most KM definitions try to say that knowledge is important to improve the performance of an organization.

According to Price (2000), KM theories argue that there are two forms of knowledge: explicit (which can be documented in a manual) and tacit (which is not so easy to transfer to someone else).

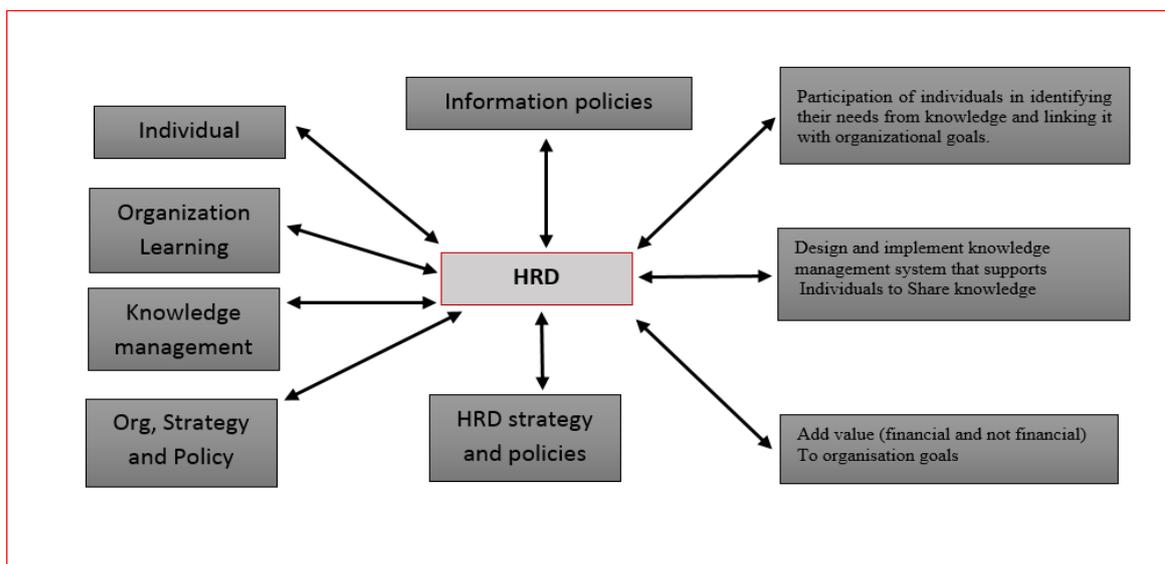
Organizational learning and knowledge management have a lot in common because they both deal with how to make the organization more innovative and change (Varun Grover, 2001). However, OL is based on a humanist learning theory, and KM is based on an economic learning theory, so they both have different ideas about how people learn (Boud et al., 2006). The HRD's main focus when it comes to thinking about and doing knowledge management is to make sure that everyone in the company is involved in continuous learning processes that help the

Chapter Two : Literature Review

company improve its performance and its knowledge assets. The implications of these theories to this thesis are about involvement and how much senior management wants to keep learning to improve the whole organization, not just their performance. Figure 9 shows the features of HRD that must be there.

2.2.11 HRD and Alignment Models

Figure 09 HRD based on KM, OL and LO theories and practice



Source: (Albawardy, 2010)

The notion that human resource development should be strategic has made major strides forward in the last two decades. The term "strategic" is often used to refer to a development that is centered on the goals of the firm, rather than the goals of an individual (Luoma, 2000) as well as those who advocate for strategic human resource development think that it is critical for the learning function to be strategic by tying its objectives, policies, goals, procedures, and activities to company strategy. Stakeholder expectations should be the focus of the strategy, according to Wilson (2005), who defines it as the direction and scope of an organization over the long term that is utilized to adapt its resources to the ever-changing environment, particularly its markets, and consumers, and clients.

Gratton & Truss (2003) highlight the distinction between the notions of fit and alignment as follows: "fit indicates a connection between two definite things whereas alignment suggests

Chapter Two : Literature Review

a far more fluid dynamic that allows for variation and flexibility". Aligning HRD practices with corporate strategy is what Sims (2006) means when he talks about "alignment."

Sims (2006) describes learning, training, and development LTD professionals as strategic partners who "participate in the process of defining organizational strategy" and when they and the strategic managers ask questions "that move strategy to action ... design HRD practices that align with the business strategy".

According to several scholars, the HRD position relates to what is known as "organizational alignment," which includes (Garavan, 2007). "Organizational alignment (OA) is a word that expresses the degree to which an organization's strategy, culture, and structure work together to generate a synergistic whole that enables the company to achieve its strategic objectives," according to Sender (1997). If the HRD's job is to concentrate on defining suitable goals, objectives, and interventions, it must keep the company's strategy, challenges, and developments in mind.

An integrated alignment process is the only way to take full benefit of competencies, according to Carroll and McCrackin (1998). Many managers' and workers' demands must be linked with the organization's present and future needs, which may be accomplished when HR policies are in line with the organization's strategy (Goss, 1997).

Organizational alignment, however, may only be fully understood by studying the literature on ideas of organizational alignment. Systematic agreement theory and strategic reference points theory are the two key ideas that explain the need for OA in organizations.

Organizational alignment may be explained using Sender's (1997) Systematic Agreement Theory (SAT). This idea gives a framework for determining how closely an organization's culture, design, and strategy are aligned to achieve its objectives. When aligning with the organization's aims and objectives and creating a competitive advantage, this should be the primary goal (Sender, 1997). The notion of organizational alignment includes the following four components:

- 1) Structural alignment which is related to the harmony between the goals of various activities and the method used to allow SHRM to behave in the way necessary to reach those

Chapter Two : Literature Review

goals.

2) Cultural alignment is related to the way that the leadership of an organization along with SHRM brings into being an organizational culture that promotes organizational strategies and helps achieve organizational targets and objectives.

3) Performance alignment is related to the degree that which an organization's actual outcomes are in agreement with the outcomes which are needed for an organization to achieve its goals and objectives.

4) Environmental alignment which mirrors the way that the demands of the external environment and the goals, vision, and tactics that the organization is striving for correspond strategically.

According to Sender (1997), certain HRD models believe that by linking processes and activities to the organization's strategy, it is feasible to achieve positive alignment. Performance may be enhanced according to these models, as long as all processes in the business are working toward the same objective.

Second, the strategic reference points theory (SRPT) combines three important elements of how best to establish alignment between the internal organization and its external environment (present and future): conditions internal to the organization, circumstances outside of the organization, and time (Fiegenbaum et al., 1996).

According to Verburg et al. (2006) to get positive alignment, organizations need to identify the following three strategic reference points theory (SRP).

1) Organizations need to set targets for strategic inputs such as quality improvement, cost reduction, and new product creation in order to achieve their internal SRP. Based on these goals, they may then evaluate their success. There are two ways to define this dimension: the strategic input, which can be defined in terms of activities that add value and are central to an organization's focus, and strategic output, which can be defined in terms of sales and profitability and hold managers accountable for performance against these targets.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2) Strategic external reference points, or external benchmarks, for example, competitors (industrial organization), suppliers and customers (resources dependence), or society in general (institutional theory) (Verburg et al., 2006). In this dimension, alignment is used to deal with any lacks or to gradually build new capabilities.

3) Time for SRP present and future which is to be considered a critical dimension (Verburg et al., 2006).

It is suggested by the alignment models that HRD's aim and policy be in line with the company's strategy and expectations of all stakeholders by ensuring that these processes and results are carried out collaboratively by those in charge of HRD and others within the organization.

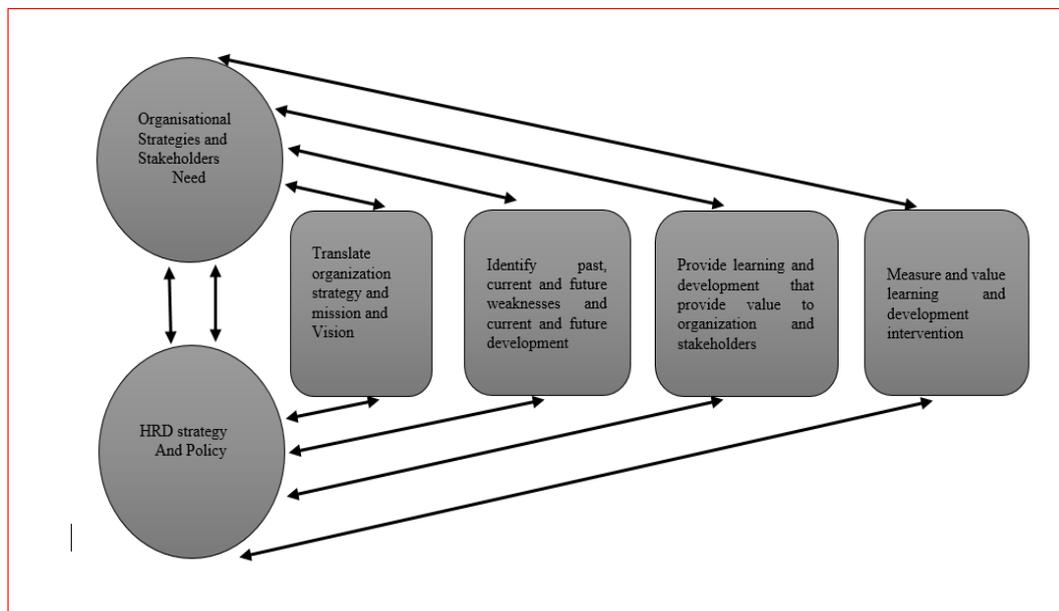
1- Determine the organization's current and future strategies, as well as the expectations of its external stakeholders, and then formulate proactive learning and development that will provide value to the organization based on financial or non-financial outcomes such as quality improvement or sales growth.

2- Agree on how to maintain ongoing alignment with the agreed strategies and how to measure the value of the HRD investment process using internal or external benchmarks.

3- An emphasis on measuring from a management point of view taking into consideration both financial and non-financial results As a result, the consideration of alignment theories shows two forms of alignment: vertical strategic alignment (vertical integration) and horizontal alignment (horizontal integration) (Garavan, 2007).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 10 HRD learning and development process and activities based on alignment theory



Source: (Albawardy, 2010)

2.2.12 The Relationship Between HRM and HRD

In the literature, it is suggested that HRD is a key component of HRM, but that each idea has its individual qualities (Mankin, 2009). The origins of HRD may be traced back to T&D, which has long been an important component of HRM. While HRD emphasizes employee training and development to help employees transition to new positions or advance in their current roles, HRM is said to place a greater emphasis on making the most of the existing workforce in their current work context. HRD, on the other hand, aims to unleash the full potential of employees through training and development to help organizations achieve their goals (Rothwell & Sullivan, 2005).

HRM is guided by the notion of selecting the appropriate people and positioning them in the correct place so that their effort may be maximized, as Yorks (2005) has said. Human Resource Development's main goal has been to assist organizations to achieve their goals by ensuring that workers are constantly prepared and developed to their fullest potential.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Through their value-driven capabilities, these principles are intertwined to provide a sustained competitive advantage (Buyens & De Vos, 2001). An organization's strengths and weaknesses may be mitigated or enhanced depending on how motivated and talented its workers are, which is why HRM and HRD are so important in helping organizations achieve their objectives (B. E. Becker et al., 1998).

The concepts of HRM and HRD are undeniably intertwined. The sort of training and development needed to enhance workers' abilities will be influenced and emphasized if the proper individual is placed in the right position. However, it is of much higher relevance for HRM and HRD strategies, policies and practices to be strategically linked either via a horizontal or vertical alignment, like that recommended by Garavan (2007).

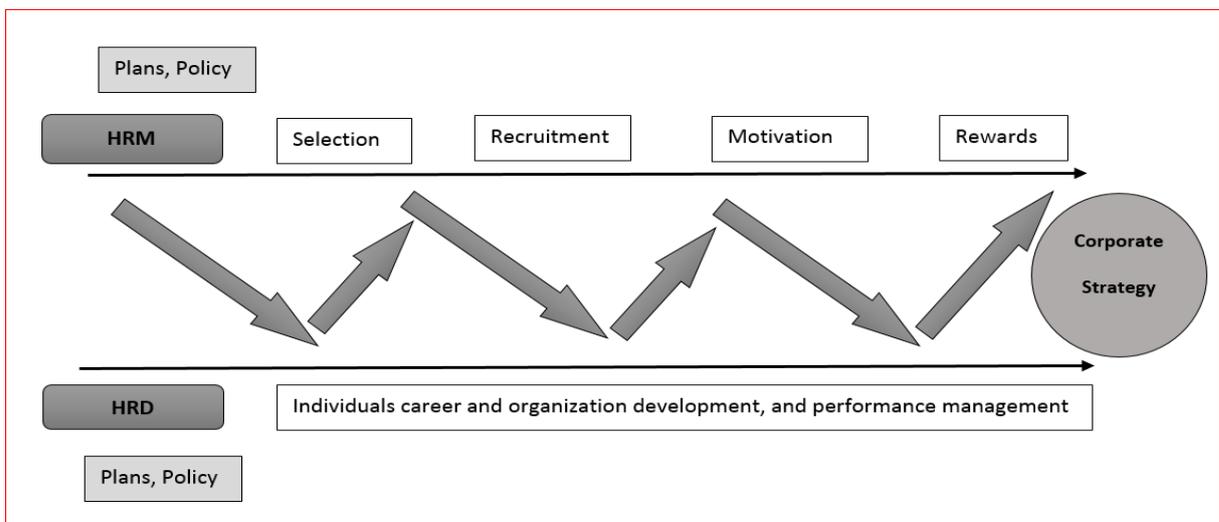
Smith (2006) further argued that high-performance work practices (HPWP) may also result in better corporate performance when T&D activities support HRM approaches. HRD's performative and/or humanitarian orientation has been called into question in contemporary research, which has taken a critical attitude toward HRD study (Sambrook, 2009). However, within today's continually changing commercial and economic environments, strategic cooperation between HRM and HRD is increasingly vital by recognizing both as the axis of an organization's existence (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

Human resource management (HRM) strategies, plans, and policies should be developed using an "environmentally-intergraded" framework that incorporates a horizontal (HR effectiveness through contribution to organizational objectives), vertical (HR efficiency through alignment of all HR practices), and external (HR sustainability/resilience) and internal (HR acceptance – equal strategic business partner) integration component. Having all these factors secured, organizational transition and change may be accomplished smoother via an acquired behavioral shift at all levels and less opposition to change.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

certain authors stated that HRD is a component of HRM in which HRD supports the HRM function in workers' T&D and the idea of T&D fitting in or integrated with HRM (D. E. Guest, 1987). It was suggested by Stewart & McGoldrick (1996) who postulated that HRM and HRD are parallel paths of HRM and HRD and in particular their similarities and focus on the aspects of corporate strategy. The parallel route as indicated by McGoldrick and Stewart (1996) is readily appreciated in Figure 11.

Figure 11 Parallel pathways of HRM and HRD



Source: (Noe et al., 2008).

HRM has the job of recruiting, selecting, motivating, and rewarding, while, HRD's purpose is to give learning, education, and training to the human resources chosen and recruited. Both the HRM and HRD routes have their own sets of goals and strategies, as well as fictionality support in the corporate strategy. Hence, this takes the debate to the notion of strategy and strategic HRD.

2.2.13 HRM and Innovation and Creativity

Organizations must improve their ability to innovate by increasing the knowledge, skills, talents, opportunities, and desire of their people to do so. Innovation and creativity are increasingly crucial factors of company success and long-term survival. HRM is a crucial influence on innovation (Peng et al., 2014). However, how HRM practices promote innovation is uncertain.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle (2008) define innovation as "the intentional introduction and application within a job, work team, or organization of ideas, processes, products, or procedures that are novel to that job, work team, or organization and are designed to improve performance." West et al. (1990) defined innovation as "the intentional introduction and application within a job, work team, or organization of ideas, processes, products, or procedures that are novel to that job, work team, or organization and are (West et al., 1990).

On the other hand, others have claimed that creativity should be defined as the development of innovative and beneficial ideas (Amabile, 1996). Although multiple definitions exist for creativity and innovation, scholars have yet to establish a consensus on what precisely produces either (N. Anderson et al., 2014).

Human resource management researchers have started to investigate the impact of human resource management strategies on corporate innovation (Armstrong et al., 2010; Shipton et al., 2006; Tang et al., 2015). Jiang et al. (2012) suggest that human resource management activities may be related to organizational innovation in two ways: how to choose, develop, and inspire people to generate ideas, and how to assist employees in implementing their new ideas.

For example, Shipton et al. (2006) discovered that human resource management systems enhance product and technology innovation using a longitudinal database of 35 UK manufacturing enterprises. Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle (2008) found, using a sample of Spanish firms, that human resource management methods foster innovation, which adds to company success. Cabello-Medina et al. (2011) discovered that certain human resource management methods such as development, selection, and empowerment have an effect on the production of human and social capital, which enhances company creativity.

On the other hand, Lopez-Cabrales et al. (2009) discovered that human resource management methods are not directly related to innovation. However, human resource management has an impact on creativity via employee knowledge. Unless training interacts with the firm's knowledge assets, De Saá-Pérez et al.(2012) 's research on Canary island with 139 SMEs gives evidence for the link between "high commitment" human resource management and organizational innovation.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Using a sample of 223 Chinese organizations, Wei et al. (2011) showed that strategic HRM has a favorable influence on firms' product innovation, and this link is greater for firms with a developmental culture. Besides these quantitative investigations, Zanko et al. (2008) utilized a case study technique to concentrate on the failure of implementing new product development in a Eurotech business. They believed that this was due to the lack of HRM practices, which came from the organizational power conflicts inside the corporation. Given the significance of HRM in recruiting and increasing the quality of the human capital of the organization, the study of whether HRM strategies may attract, motivate or retain creative individuals is crucial.

However, as previously highlighted, there are essential HRM procedures exist such as hiring, and training. Moreover, these practices might differ among the organizations, and they are informal and handled by senior executives and line managers of the company rather than HRM specialists. Thus, it is vital to establish what HRM practices exist in SMEs setting. Despite the awareness of the presence of a link between HRM, innovation, and performance, there is a major paucity of research that studies the relationship between HRM and innovation (Fu et al., 2015).

Empirical research concentrating on HRM practices and employee creativity provided evidence for the influence of HRM on employees' creative behaviors and performance. For instance, Yu et al. (2013) evaluated the influence of information sharing practice on employees' innovative behavior in Taiwanese financial and insurance organizations. They observed a favorable connection between information sharing practice and innovative activity.

Employees are likely to be more effective in problem-solving and producing new ideas if HRM practices can drive them to have more personal initiative (Jiang et al., 2012). Subramaniam & Youndt (2005) illustrate that organizational innovation is based upon the organization's knowledge base, which starts with attracting exceptional creative workers. Licuanan et al. (2007) demonstrated that training about the significance of creativity in team settings might assist the creation of unique ideas that ultimately boost employee creativity and innovation.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

On the other side, an evaluation that supports learning and development assists the employee to be more creative and performing better. Feedback, notably, provided during the assessment process may resolve the gaps between performance and objectives (Shipton et al., 2006), hence pushing workers to work creatively (Jiang et al., 2012). Literature showed evidence that HRM promotes workers to explore existing knowledge and encourages and enforces employee innovation (Shipton et al., 2006).

These results add greatly to our understanding of the link between HRM and performance; yet, our information regarding the degree to which HRM supports employee creativity, and organizational innovation is still relatively rare (Fu et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2012). The association of HRM to employee creativity directly and to organizational innovation indirectly has been predicted (Jiang et al., 2012).

2.2.14 The Definition of SHRD

In the last few years, SHRD has been getting more attention. HRD should be strategic so that it can help the organization do better and achieve its goals and strategies. This means that HRD should work with and draw from the overall organizational strategy, policies, and plans to make HRD activities important in the organization.

Garavan et al. (1995) argued that strategic HRD can be viewed as a proactive, system-wide intervention linked to strategic planning and cultural change, in contrast to the traditional view of T&D, which consists of reactive and ad hoc interventions in response to specific problems. Luoma (2000) concluded that strategic HRD is based on the need to assess and address skill deficiencies, the opportunity to acquire skills and abilities, and utilizing capabilities as a slingshot.

HRD can be viewed as a tactical approach to training and development, but Garavan (1991) distinguished strategic HRD from tactical T&D by including the numerous HRD partnerships and the concept of an organization's employees' innovativeness and creativity. Most authors suggested strategies that ranged from HRD philosophy, plans, and policies to expand the organizations' missions and goals while also integrating these policies. (Garavan, 1991; McCracken and Wallace, 2000; Harrison, 2012), SHRD (Garavan, 2007) needs to understand how HRD strategy fits into business planning and how it contributes to the

Chapter Two : Literature Review

organization's overall objectives. Instead of focusing merely on achieving performance goals, SHRD must work to enhance and build organizational self-renewal capacity and competitiveness (V. Anderson, 2009).

Many authors have addressed SHRD, but the most important contributions have been introduced by Lee (1996), who presented the concept of training maturity, and Garavan (1991), who highlights nine key characteristics of SHRD.

This term refers to "the strategic management of training and development and managerial professional education interventions to meet the organization's goals while also assuring full use of knowledge and skills of individual personnel," as described by Garavan (1991). Harrison (2012) says that SHRD combines the alignment of T&D with the organization's purposes and objectives and, via strengthening workers' skills, knowledge, learning, talents, and motivation at all levels, there will be continual organizational and individual progress.

McCracken & Wallace (2000) describe SHRD as the building of a learning culture within which a variety of training, development, and learning methodologies react to the business strategy, and also, serve to create and influence this strategy. Meeting the business's current demands is just one part of the equation; helping the organization evolve, grow, flourish, and prosper is equally important. That's why a key part of SHRD's premise is that T&D should be part of the organization's overall strategic planning. Instead of reacting to particular organizational difficulties, HRD should take a proactive approach.

Among the criteria, Walton (1999) suggests for evaluating HRD in terms of strategic sophistication is the degree of internal integration, alignment with other functional activities, functional role, and contribution to corporate strategy. This, according to Walton (1999), is a critical component for assessing HRD's strategic sophistication. The Training Maturity Model, illustrated in Figure 12, is one of several useful diagnostics of this sort that can be used for SHRD. According to Lee (1996), there are six degrees of organizational maturity in terms of the approach companies take in managing their T&D.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

The Training Maturity Model categorizes the degree of T&D sophistication and the extent to which it is integrated with the organization's corporate strategy. Figure 12: A model or scale of training maturity, Lee (1996).

Figure 12 A model or scale of training maturity, Lee (1996)



Source: (R. Lee, 1996)

Depending on how advanced their training is, the model predicts a wide range of organizations. Organizations without a formal training program are at the bottom of the pyramid. Organizational learning takes place mostly in an unstructured and unsupervised manner in these companies. At the next level, some organizations depend on training activities that emerge in reaction to the local challenges (reactive ones). As businesses develop, training activities are integrated to support operational objectives, shifting from a pure implementation function to one that helps form and influences the organization's corporate strategy.

At the top of the model, some companies have learning processes that improve their strategy. All of the activities from the previous stages are included in each stage, except for the first stage, which is not included (no systematic training). To use the model correctly, you must move from the bottom to the top. This means moving from a position where T&D is an operational, tactical, and implementation activity (a "reactive role") to a position where T&D

Chapter Two : Literature Review

is proactive in shaping the organization's corporate strategy (a "proactive role") (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

2.2.15 SHRD Main Characteristics: Factors Influencing T&D Effectiveness

Pettigrew et al. (1989) say that a lot of things can make T&D less effective. These factors are linked to the business strategy, the needs of the labor market, and the internal actors and systems. They include things like training philosophies, systems, management organization, and outside support and funding for training. Hussey (1985) talks about three important things about HRD that affect T&D activities and programs: an integrated strategy, top management support, and culture in the workplace. People who worked on Garavan et al., 1995, say that this is true. Garavan et al. (1995) say there are eight factors that affect how HRD functions and what it does: the outside world and the people who work for the company, culture, technology, structure, change, size, and power. Garavan (1991) also lists nine key characteristics or criteria for SHRD, which are related to the main organizational factors that make T&D work well. All of them are important in their way, but they all work together and connect to each other.

- ✓ HRD policies and plans must be formulated, derived from, and integrated with business plans and policies.
- ✓ Top management support and commitment.
- ✓ Line management commitment and involvement.
- ✓ Environmental scanning.
- ✓ HRD must view itself as a wider package of HRM strategies
- ✓ The expanded role of trainer.
- ✓ Recognition of organizational corporate culture.
- ✓ Emphasis on evaluation.
- ✓ Integration with an organization's missions and goals.

As a whole, it could be said that T&D should be strategic, proactive, and influential, rather than just implementing and reacting, which is what it is now. It is very important for top managers and line managers to help with strategic T&D, as well as for line managers to help. There are a lot of reasons why SHRD doesn't exist in many businesses. For example, many businesses don't have clear or well-defined goals and the cost of training and development

Chapter Two : Literature Review

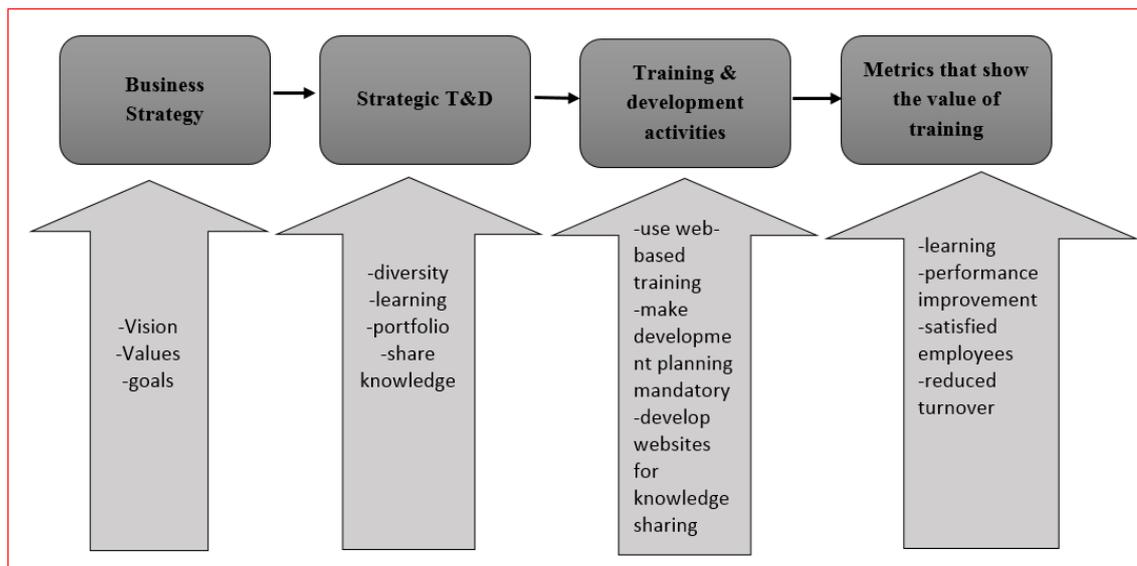
(T&D) is often seen as high in many businesses. Some businesses don't figure out how much training and development they need, and they don't look at the results of their training programs or only pay attention to how happy their employees are (Walton, 1999).

2.2.16 Strategic Training and Development (STD) programs

A lot of the time, strategic Training and Development refers to how the human resources of an organization grow. This could mean a specific job, the people who do it, how well they do it, or how much they learn and improve. In the field of human resource management, training and development are about how organizations work together to improve the performance of individuals and groups in their workplaces. There are a lot of different names for this: employee development, human resource development, learning and development, and so on (Harrison, 2005).

Many companies are now taking a more broad look at training, which is called "high leverage training." As shown in figure 13, high leverage training is linked to strategic business goals and objectives. In figure 13, you can see how strategic training and development work, with examples of strategic initiatives as well as training activities and the metrics that show how well they worked. The STD process is all about finding strategic training and development projects that will help the business achieve its goals.

Figure 13 strategic training and development process



Source: (Noe et al., 2008).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.3 The Emergence of Training and Development

In the United States, training and development began during and after World War II, when the country was a part of the war. During this time, there was a huge rise in the demand for trained workers because of the growing wartime economy and new technology. During this time, the labor movement in the U.S. also grew. This helped to grow employee training and development as well. U.S. labor movement: After a lot of people didn't like it when it started in the early 1900s, it has become a strong advocate for training (Glass, 2013).

As R. A. Swanson & Torraco, (1995) stated, “Although the popularity and influence of labor unions have undergone significant change over time, organized labor has consistently supported extending the availability of education and training seen as broadening the skill base of its membership”.

Training and development (TD) and organizational development (OD) have their beginnings in the foundations of education. A chronological examination of education from its inception reveals a progression of human progress from survival-driven learning to education rooted in antiquity, the classics, and religious beliefs; to the influences of war and military strategy on scientific and technical education; to the job skills training and scientific management spawned by the industrial revolution; to post–World War II leadership development programs and team training; and, finally, to the post–World War II era leadership development programs and team training. (R. A. Swanson & Torraco, 1995) .

Although the fields overlap, training and development and OD are considered separate fields of practice, a recognition reinforced by McLagan (1989). The discussion in this passage is limited to the early history of training and development and OD.

2.3.1 World War II, Training Within Industry (TWI)

A key effect on the establishment of training and development in the post–World War II era was the legacy of the TWI service formed during World War II. The TWI Service was statewide cooperation between industry and the U.S. War Manpower Commission to swiftly scale up the manufacture of military hardware and efficiently educate millions of additional employees and supervisors required for the huge change to a wartime economy. TWI assisted

Chapter Two : Literature Review

to build technical training programs in 16,511 manufacturing companies countrywide using novel methodologies such as the four-step job instruction program (Dooley, 2001).

By the time TWI closed down in 1945, it had trained 23,000 people to be trainers and certified 1,759,650 production supervisors, which is how many people it had trained. During the war, training became standard practice in a lot of places. Most businesses kept training, even though it got smaller as the economy started to get back to normal after a long war. When HRD came around decades later, the wartime training movement was a big part of it. It also created a new job: the training director (Carnevale, 1990).

The American Society of Training Directors, the forerunner of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) and the Association for Talent Development (ATD), was founded in 1945 in response to the growing predominance of training directors in business and industry (Torraco, 2016).

2.3.2 The Emergence of Systems for Training and Instructional Technology

During the post-war era, industry increasingly absorbed the lessons learned about successful training during the war and obtained a key financing partner, the U.S. military (U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1969). The primary modes of training during this time were classroom training and on-the-job training. One of the earliest widely used frameworks for developing training was the instructional systems development (ISD) paradigm (Campbell, 1984). Unlike past training methodologies, the ISD model stressed the necessity of needs assessment before training and assessing its success after training. The five steps of the ISD model—analyze, design, develop, implement, and evaluate—gave birth to the acronym, ADDIE, the common abbreviation used for this training methodology. During the 1980s and early 1990s, modifications to the ISD model were developed (Dick & Carey, 1990). and applications of the paradigm outside the classroom arose (i.e., workplace, laboratory, outdoor settings) (Gagne et al., 1992).

The training for performance system (TPS) is an adaption of this paradigm that integrates the five stages of growth with a heavy emphasis on job performance (R. Swanson, 2007). Additionally, instructional technology was applied to the workplace via organized on-the-job training, which provided an efficient and cost-effective method of delivering the majority of

Chapter Two : Literature Review

job skill training (Jacobs et al., 1992). The ISD approach was generally recognized as bringing methodical rigor to training that was often unstructured and unreliable previous to its introduction. The growing adoption of structured methods for training has prompted requests for improvement, including proposals to shorten the pre-training analysis process, better combine learning and work, and utilize a more realistic and adaptable instructional design (Rossett, 2009).

2.3.3 Origins of OD

The expansion of occupational development (OD) coincided with the industrial boom and social and economic development that occurred after World War II. We think that Richard Beckhard and Robert Tannenbaum were the first to use the phrase "organization development." Referring to how Beckhard and Tannenbaum gave the field its name, Gallos (2006).

W. French (1969) recognized Douglas McGregor's 1957 work with Union Carbide as one of the first examples of organizational-wide OD adoption. While no single set of circumstances precipitated the development of OD in the United States, most historical accounts link the practice to laboratory training and T-groups, Kurt Lewin's work on group and organizational dynamics, and early work in action research, survey feedback, and sociotechnical systems (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

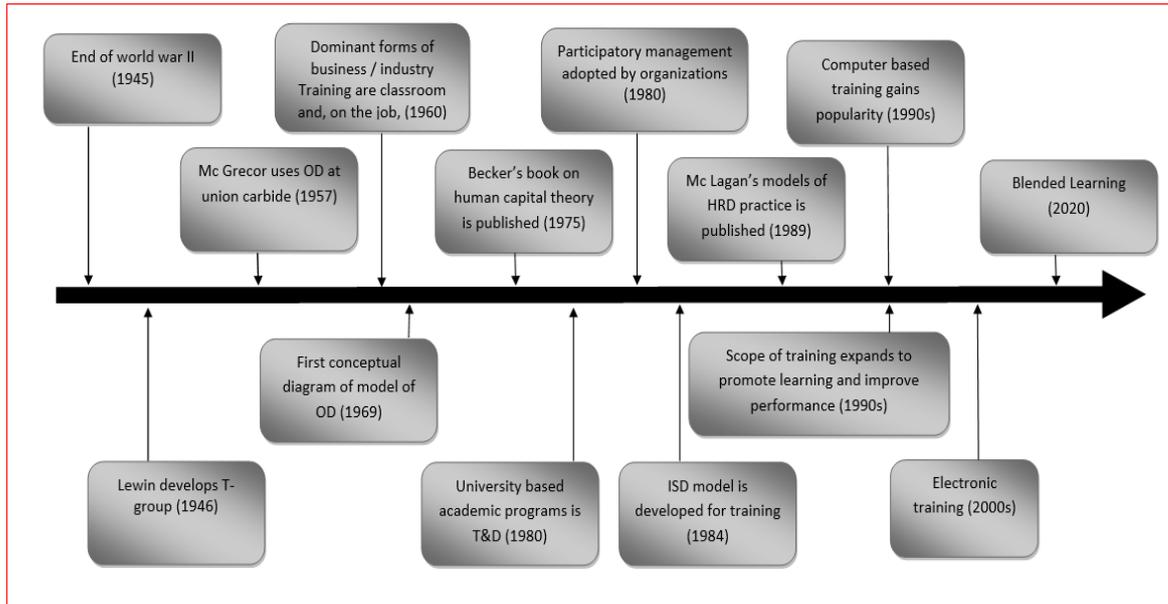
Gallos (2006) stated that "it is necessary to go back to the 1940s and 1950s to understand the societal conditions that preceded the birth of OD." Gallos (2006) described the social, economic, and political context in which the workplace gradually transitioned from predominantly industrial conditions and autocratic management to one influenced by human relations and a focus on worker needs, to a more dynamic workplace conducive to participatory change and OD.

One view of the history of OD characterizes its origins as sensitivity training, sociotechnical systems, and survey feedback (Burke, 2006). Another historical narrative situates OD's beginnings in five branches of OD practice: laboratory training, case study and survey feedback, normative backdrop, productivity and quality of work-life, and strategic transformation (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Another history of OD shows that it came about when lab training, survey feedback technology, action research, sociotechnical and sociological approaches to change all came together (R. French et al., 2015). The early history of OD is drawn from these different stories about how OD came to be (Torraco, 2016).

Figure 14 timeline of the early history of T&D and OD.



Source: (Torraco, 2016)

Note. Events in the early history of T&D appear above the line; events in the early history of organization development appear below the line. T&D = training and development; OD = organization development; ISD = instructional systems development; HRD = human resource development.

Training and development in public and private industry is a critical department to the organization. Organizational issues now look unequalled in history (Tracey, 1974). According to Tracey (1974), the oldest form of training in the industry in Western civilization is the apprenticeship system which was formed in the middle Ages by the trade guilds and during the Elizabethan era, apprenticeship started to decrease. The industrial revolution speeded the collapse of the apprenticeship tradition. More current data, obtained by researchers, suggested

Chapter Two : Literature Review

the pattern is still an essential component for the development of employees in the Twenty-first Century.

The popularity of the training laboratory and other types of sensitivity training expanded dramatically in the 1960s and the necessity for management training was recognized more than ever (Miller, 1987). When it comes to training methods and practices, organizational development was all the rage in the 1970s. In the latter part of the 1970s, competency-based education was first introduced to the public (Miller, 1987).

By the 1980s, training had gained popularity due to the usage of behavior modeling, which began in the early 1970s and was first utilized for management and skills training. In the early part of the 1980s, a greater focus was placed on professional development (Miller, 1987). Employers spend around \$30 billion annually on formal training and approximately \$180 billion on informal on-the-job training (Carnevale, 1990). Now since industry and commerce are constantly evolving, the training department's operations and training and development programs reflect this. New techniques, capabilities, competencies, operations, and processes need the creation of new training terms or the modification of current ones since the phrase "training" is quite complicated (Rae, 1997).

These changes underscore the critical nature of refreshing and/or clarifying the emphasis of not just on individual training activities, but also on training and development as a whole. One method to re-ignite discussion about human resource development-related topics such as training and development is to examine related terminologies (Somasundaram & Egan, 2004; R. A. Swanson, 2001).

The Timeline for Learning, Training, and Performance lays the groundwork for the future. This foundation was built over many years of efforts to enhance employee learning and performance and to create a more compassionate work environment. These techniques have been polished over time by managers, trainers, performance improvement experts, and human resource development professionals responsible for increasing workplace training and performance. As we look to the future, we should consider the lessons acquired from this past, as well as how our work today might add to this foundation.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.3.4 The Concept of Training

Training is the main ingredient of HRD because it relates to increasing, improving, enhancing, and modifying employees' skills and knowledge in order to enable them to do their jobs effectively and help organizations to grow and do better.

While several writers have defined the term training in their terms, all definitions convey the same notion. Several authors have provided the following definitions: According to Mathis & Jackson (2004), training is the process through which individuals learn the skills necessary to do certain professions. The emphasis of training is on the work or task at hand, such as the need for efficiency and safety while operating certain tools or equipment, or the requirement for a successful sales force, to name a few.

According to Jackson & Schuler (2000), training is the process of developing the skills and abilities required now or in the future. Training is to provide a person with the chance to develop the skills and knowledge necessary to do their work more successfully. Armstrong (2006) defines training as the systematic development of an individual's knowledge, abilities, and attitudes necessary to function well on the job.

Training is effective if the following requirements are met: As a result, management buy-in is required; without the commitment from senior management, training would amount to nothing more than mimicry. All levels of the organization must realize that training is a process, not a one-time event. To the management side, introducing assistance entails more than just allocating funds for training. Corporate executives must passionately embrace training in corporate communications, business strategy, and individual performance objectives.

Training should be connected with the company's strategic strategy and goals and objectives. Needs analysis, which is the first step in developing a training program, should begin with an accurate evaluation of what one does well and what may be improved by recording present performance and comparing it to what could be.

It is worth noting that while academics continue their investigations into the field of training research, they also continue to make the case for its value. According to several of these academics, the increased emphasis on training in recent years has been largely impacted by the

Chapter Two : Literature Review

tightening of competition and the greater success of firms that place a high premium on staff development (Beardwell & Claydon, 2010).

Related to the above, Beardwell & Claydon (2010) add that technological developments and organizational change have gradually led some employers to the realization that success relies on the skills and abilities of their employees, thus a need for considerable and continuous investment in training and development.

Training is a systematic method of modifying an employee's behavior, knowledge, and/or motivation in order to improve the organization's objective attainment. In general, most companies have long acknowledged the critical role of training in their growth. Assisting workers in becoming more productive in their jobs is one of the most critical people management activities that every work organization must perform. Employers rely on the quality of their workers' performance to accomplish organizational goals and objectives; employees have a motivating need for growth, recognition, and accomplishments that may be met via job satisfaction. As a result, businesses must take the effort to provide this assistance.

Training is the systematic process through which individuals acquire information or skills for a specific goal. Cole (2002) defines training as an activity aimed at acquiring particular information and abilities necessary for the performance of a job or task. Training is the systematic and deliberate alteration of behavior via learning events, activities, and programs that results in participants attaining the necessary levels of knowledge, skills, competencies, and abilities to do their jobs successfully.

Training is a deliberate attempt by an organization to assist personnel in acquiring job-related abilities. These competencies include knowledge, management abilities, and attitudes that are necessary for effective work performance. The ultimate aim of the training is for workers to effectively master the information, skills, and behaviors highlighted in training programs and use them in their daily operations. Organizations must see training as an integral component of their human resource development operations and gain the information and skills necessary to help employees to develop good attitudes and behaviors, which will eventually reflect in their performance (Iatagan et al., 2010).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Armstrong (2009) underlines the need of developing and implementing training within an organization while taking into account learning theories and methodologies for the training to be fully understood. Training is the process of acquiring the skills, information, and abilities necessary to accomplish a job via instruction. Training is a deliberate attempt to promote workers' acquisition of job-related information, skills, and behaviors. Thus, training may be defined as a deliberate and systematic attempt by management to influence the behavior of workers in a way that advances organizational objectives. Armstrong (2009) defines training as the process of promoting learning via the use of systematic and planned teaching activities.

Dessler (2008) views training as a way of equipping new or existing workers with the skills necessary to accomplish their varied duties. Continuing, he views training as a necessary component of excellent management and hence believes that managers who disregard training do so to the detriment of the businesses they lead. This is because possessing high-potential people does not ensure their performance on the job. This is why every employee must understand what management expects of him and how he is to do it. As a result, training has a rather excellent track record of positively affecting organizational performance.

Training should not be mistaken for education. Training is more targeted, precise, and direct. It focuses on attaining a set of objectives for particular tasks and on developing the skills and capacities of people. Training as a philosophy evolved from numerous ideas, such as Human Capital Theory, which emphasizes the return on investment in training as the primary objective of businesses. Training and human resource management theory presupposes that employees be committed to their companies and that training is mandatory. Training and High-Performance Organization Theory emphasizes the consequences of global organizational changes, notably technology advancements and the training needed for workers to increase their abilities (Smith & Hayton, 1999).

Training has evolved into a vital aspect of any business's operations in the modern-day. As competition intensifies and technology advances, there is a growing lack of suitably educated and skilled manpower to meet the demand.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.3.5 Purpose of Training

The usefulness of a training program to an organization may manifest itself in a variety of ways. It might be expressed in terms of reeducation or a reduction in accident rates, customer complaints and employee grievances, labor conflicts, a reduction in rejects and reworks, or a reduction in work backlogs. Additionally, the value may be expressed in terms of improved or increased output, sales, employee morale, and various promotable men, product, quality work techniques, or supervision quality. According to Jain & Jain (2005), the objective of the training is to alter the behavior of individuals instructed and to allow them to do their tasks efficiently.

Brown (2002) argues that it is critical for firms, particularly those in the retail sector, to enhance their employees' talents. It is a method of giving employment possibilities for prospective candidates and recently hired employees. This is to enhance their competence and skill set, which will enable them to get critical work prospects and function well in their professional roles. When workers learn that a company offers professional development opportunities, they become more motivated to apply for jobs there, and it motivates current employees to remain (J. Brown, 2002).

As a result, it is critical for organizations to create training opportunities. This may increase by keeping valuable personnel; it can also help build the organization's brand name and image, which helps recruit competent people. Omoikhudu (2017) places a premium on investing in employee skill development; many firms are already doing so. Employees that are knowledgeable and talented play a critical role in a business. They contribute to the organization's development and enable it to compete in the marketplace. A highly competent and experienced employee is an asset to the business and plays a critical function. Certain skilled people might quickly leave a company if it does not give career growth opportunities, which can result in a high rate of turnover (Omoikhudu, 2017).

Thus, organizations must engage in employee skills development via training programs in order to retain talented staff. As a result, businesses must invest in employee development for workers to be proactive in their positions while interacting with internal and external consumers. These factors contribute to clients being happy and wanting to do business with the firm again.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

In general, the objective of training is to increase productivity at all organizational levels, avoid obsolescence, prepare people for higher-level duties, and to help employees in performing at an optimal level in their existing roles.

2.3.6 Benefits of Training and Development

Mullins (2007), gives the purpose of training and development – to improve knowledge and skills and to change trainees' attitudes. Thus, training becomes one of the most important potential motivators and hence the following benefits do accrue from training and development programs:

- Increase in the confidence and commitment of staff.
- It provides the needed recognition and enhances responsibility which could lead to an increase in pay and promotion. This is more so in an organization where pay increases and promotions are based on the results of performance appraisals.
- With confidence comes the feeling of personal satisfaction and achievement. This could further broaden career progression opportunities.
- Training and development improve the availability, quality, and skills of staff.

The main purpose of training is to acquire and improve knowledge, skills, and attitudes towards work-related tasks. It is one of the most important potential motivators which can lead to both short-term and long-term benefits for individuals and organizations. There are so many benefits associated with training. Cole (2002) summarizes these benefits as below:

- 1) High morale – employees who receive training have increased confidence and motivations;
- 2) Lower cost of production – training eliminates risks because trained personnel can make better and economic use of material and equipment thereby reducing and avoiding waste;
- 3) Lower turnover – training brings a sense of security to the workplace which in turn reduces labor turnover and absenteeism is avoided;
- 4) Change management – training helps to manage change by increasing the understanding and involvement of employees in the change process and also provides the skills and abilities needed to adjust to new situations;

Chapter Two : Literature Review

5) Provide recognition, enhanced responsibility, and the possibility of increased pay and promotion;

6) Help to improve the availability and quality of staff.

Effective training isn't just good for the organization. It also helps employees learn the skills they need to keep up with modern technology and improve the organization's performance. According to all of the above, it's clear that training and development is a very important part of the improvement process for both the level of individual performance as well as the level of organizational competence. Training, on the other hand, bridges the gap between what should happen and what happens; for example, between the organization's desired goals or standards and the level of performance it achieves. An organization that wants its employees to learn, grow, and develop must make training an important part of its business strategy.

Other benefits that would accrue from training and development are:

- Reduction in the need to supervise employees or subordinates thus freeing supervisors to concentrate on another res of their departments.
- Improvement in job satisfaction
- Reduction in employee turnover and scrap and wastage.

Though the benefits discussed above are not exhaustive, they gave an indication to the Polytechnic about the need to take training and development very seriously.

2.3.7 The Objectives of Training

The field of training and development has changed because of changes in the business world. T&D's goal is to move away from a focus on programmed instruction (and behavioral and task analysis) and toward a focus on performance-system analysis. T&D is a very important and important thing for any company that wants to improve its productivity and compete with other businesses. There has been a huge rise in the need for T&D as more and more businesses and industries use technology, as well as a constant threat of knowledge and technology becoming obsolete (Walton, 1999; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2002).

There is also a growing focus on quality and customer service, which makes businesses see how important T&D is to job satisfaction, productivity, and overall profitability. Motwani

Chapter Two : Literature Review

et al. (1994) say that training is important not only for people's growth but also for businesses and the whole country to be more productive and competitive. They also say that there is a direct link between how much money is spent on people and how good the product or service is.

Also, there is a clear link between training, client satisfaction, and staff satisfaction. In addition, companies are more relying on people's talents for improved efficiency, quality, and customer service and the creation of new applications for current goods and services (Walton, 1999; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2002).

T&D's primary, traditional role has been to ensure that the workforce is provided with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to perform a given function well. Thus, the main aims of any T&D program are to achieve some kind of change in employees' knowledge, skills, experiences, behavior, and attitudes; also, to

- ✓ develop employees' skills and abilities to improve their performance.
- ✓ familiarize employees with new systems, procedures, and methods of working.
- ✓ help employees and new starters to become familiar with the requirements of particular jobs in the organization.
- ✓ help the organization to improve customer service, satisfaction, and total quality in the organization.

Motwani et al. (1994) also suggest that the rationale for US economic development and productivity-related to learning in school and learning on the job (T&D) (T&D). Formal education and learning on-the-job (T&D) have been more significant than technology in improving the nation's productive potential. Training, on the other hand, is critical for lowering production costs while simultaneously increasing output, uniqueness, and creativity.

Hughey & Mussnug (1997) claim that the major purpose of staff training is to boost an organization's efficiency and effectiveness. Management continuously considers staff training as just another way to enhance the entire financial return on investment since T&D has such a significant influence on profitability.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

However, many critics claim that T&D should play a more effective function in the organization; in other words, to change from playing only a reactive role to playing a proactive one. In this respect, Berge et al. (2002) state that, in a world defined by fast rates of technical and globalization changes, what has developed are quality and customer-driven services and goods. Analysis of the work environment and analysis of performance were two outcomes of the quest for competencies and desired behavior. This suggests a pragmatic change in the function of T&D to be focused on business strategic objectives to target the business performance outcome. As a result, T&D professionals should abandon their traditional reactive role in favor of one strategic partnership in order to help employees adapt to their new work environment.

Training goals should be based on the results of training analysis. These goals must demonstrate that the anticipated outcome has been achieved. That is, it may be used as a standard against which the performance of employees and the quality of the training they get can be evaluated. The purpose of training is to bridge the gap between present performance capacity and desired performance.

For Armstrong (2016), training has the specific goals of increasing employee competence and productivity, helping the company expand so that future demands for human resources can be met, and reducing the time it takes for workers to become completely competent.

2.3.8 Reasons for Carrying Out Training and Development

Katcher & Snyder (2003) identify some of the reasons why employers need their employees to continuously learn new skills, and they include the following:

2.3.8.1 Capital improvement

Employees are a company's greatest asset, yet bosses are more concerned with meeting deadlines and maximizing profits than they are with improving the skills of their workforce. Although the business still achieves productivity, the emphasis should also be on the devotion, commitment, and loyalty of workers. Up-to-date equipment will not be used to its full potential if the personnel is not provided with regular training.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.3.8.2 Morale improvement

Employees that regularly enhance their job abilities will also boost their productivity. Developing employee abilities not only plays a function in the workplace but in the external environment as well. It contributes to the whole personal growth of each individual and the socio-economic development of the country at large; hence, happy workers may be productive, but more productive employees are happier.

2.3.8.3 Ability to Adapt to Change

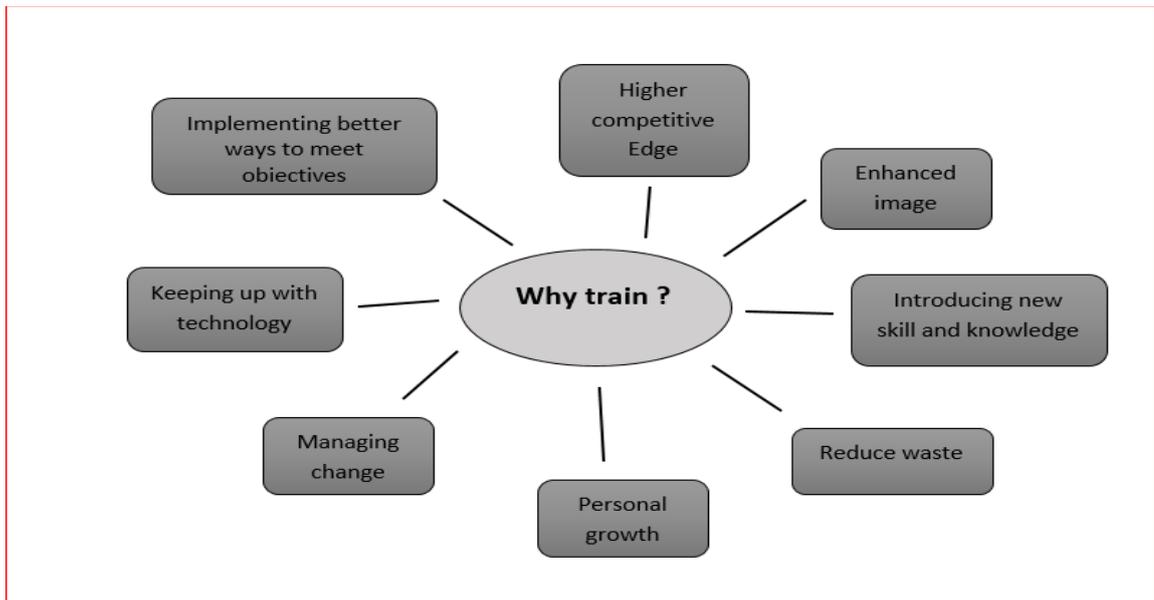
The more skilled the workforce is, the easier it will be for the entire organization to adapt to changes that may arise in the domestic and global marketplace in the demand for its products and services.

Rabey (2001) lists some of the most important things that happen inside and outside of an organization that needs training and development (as shown in Figure 15). It can be seen that most efforts to improve the skills, knowledge, and attitudes of people in organizations are in line with the forces that are important in human resource management and human resource development, but with more direct links to the needs of the organizations. As you can see, this map isn't complete, but it has shown some of the important roles that training and development can play when companies make strategic changes in their plans. Indeed, for these reasons, the role of training and development in any version of the HR management and HR development models is very important (Hallier & Butts, 2000).

In the words of Keep & Storey (2014), without strategic training and development, businesses cannot be viewed as practicing human resource management. Thus, training and development may be used as a probe to analyze if and how successfully a company is adopting and applying human resource management and human resource development rationales.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 15 Some situations that create a need for training and development



Source: (Wang, 2008)

2.3.9 Factors Hindering Training and Development

Since most employers believe that employees should have received adequate training from the institutions before being hired, they do not support training and development initiatives, according to Van Daalen & Odendaal (2003), and training and development programs are seen as an expense that is difficult to persuade shareholders to approve.

The researchers Van Daalen & Odendaal (2003) also highlighted that, if training and development are given correctly and at the appropriate time, it would generate large benefits for the company in terms of enhanced productivity, knowledge, loyalty, and profit. Despite the countless causes and advantages received from training, in most instances, training and development plans fail. This is independent of whether the courses were taken at the top institutions or provided by the most recognized teachers.

The inadequacies of training and development programs were discussed in further detail by Kleiman (2003). The lack of alignment between training goals and business demands is cited as the primary cause of training and development programs' failure in these studies. If the foundation of the issue of poor performance, for instance, it is connected to elements such as

Chapter Two : Literature Review

incentive systems, work design, and motivation, which are not related to training, training will be meaningless.

Furthermore, the lack of goals to offer direction and attention, training will absolutely not succeed. It is important that employees have time to reflect on the goals they are working toward as part of their on-the-job training. Objectives give vital direction and emphasis for learning the ultimate outcome, which is a change in work performance.

Researchers also argue that corporations may deem training a failure and consequently undesirable if it is excessively costly in comparison to its short-term return on investment. However, the long-term pay-off may be profitable. A training program will be meaningless if the participants do not modify their behavior as a result of the training. The odds of behavior change are limited when training is seen as a single event.

Training is also likely to fail if participants are not held responsible for the outcomes. Generally, workers are not held liable for the usage of the material of their course on the job. There will be no change in their conduct until they are held responsible. If the settings are not suitable for learning, the training efforts would have been in vain. Moreover, without the backing of line management training would also fail. Employees are less likely to put their newly learned skills and knowledge to use if their immediate superiors or supervisors do not encourage them to do so. Management engagement is vital to the learning process. Another cause for the failure of training and development arises when the firm fails to separate the impacts of training and development.

However, other variables other than training may impact performance. Thus, the achievements directly connected to training must be identified. If this is not the case, some training programs that have a direct influence on the company's bottom line may be deemed unnecessary. For the success of a training course, senior executives' dedication is important. Top management will not only contribute resources but, for the training and development to succeed, will also participate in the design of the process. Training and development efforts will be stymied by a lack of effective means of providing and using information regarding progress and outcomes. If the organization fails to assess training by offering feedback, workers

Chapter Two : Literature Review

will not be able to know about their development, nor facilitators comprehend the effectiveness of their programs.

2.3.10 Systematic T&D Approach and Process

It is essential that T&D be assessed in light of the organization's overarching strategy in order to achieve its intended goal (Wang, 2008). A company's entire approach to training is outlined in a training strategy. In most models, training needs analysis (TNA), design, execution, and analysis are all part of the same framework (Griggs et al., 2010; Armstrong, 2006).

Rather than being disjointed, fragmented, and isolated short-term programs intended to satisfy particular short-term demands, T&D should be based on a systemic approach. Armstrong (2009) claims that if T&D is implemented on a piecemeal basis and without the support of senior management, it would fail to achieve its goals and have a negative impact on organizational performance.

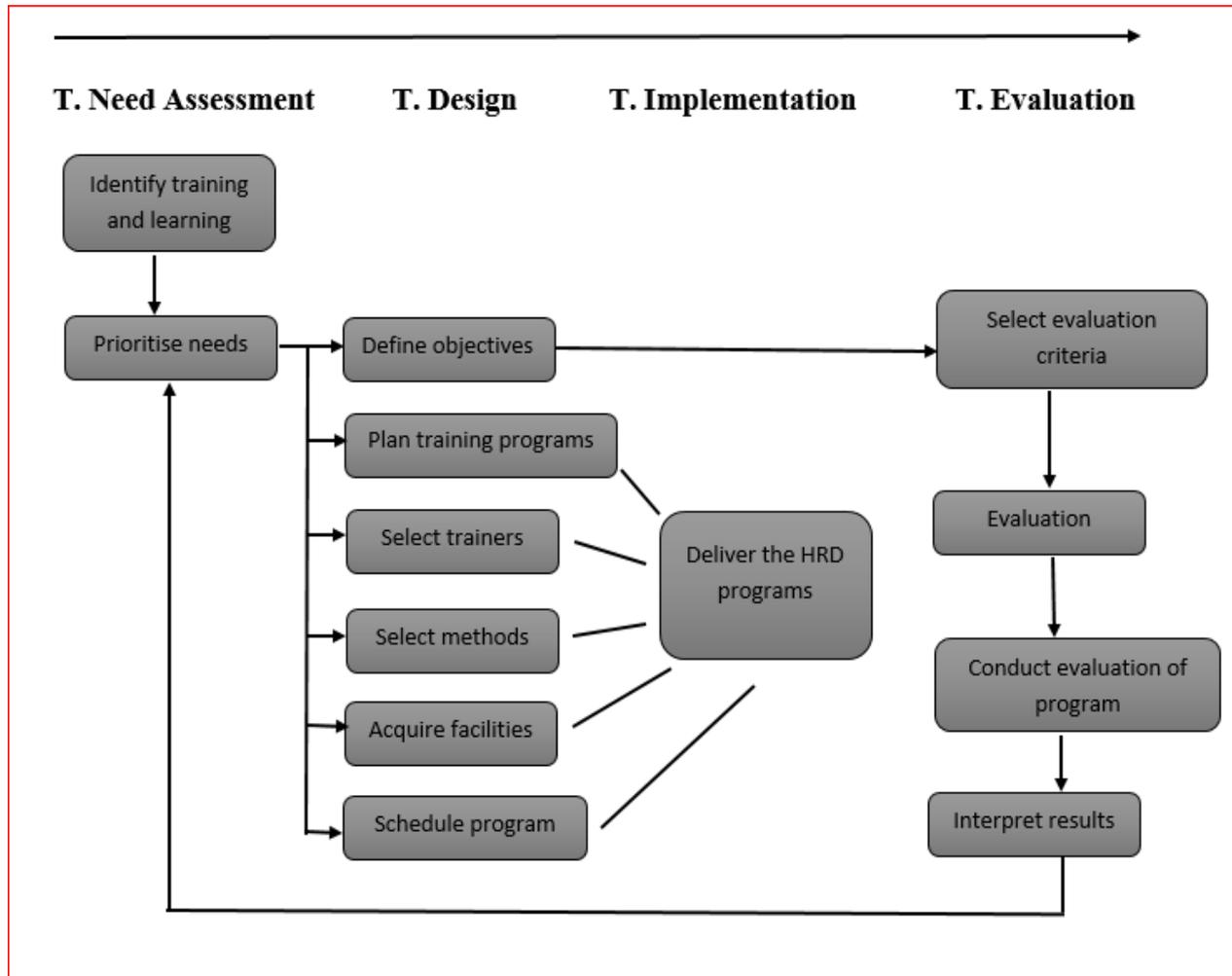
Training needs assessment (TNA) development; formulation of T&D goals; creation and implementation of a T&D program; and evaluation of the program's efficacy all fall under the umbrella of a systematic training methodology (Goldstein & Ford, 1993). D. G. Robinson & Robinson (1989) put out an essential training strategy. According to the authors, organizations need to shift from a "training for the activity" model to a "training for the effect" one (reactive).

"Training for effect" stresses the proactive role of training and development (T&D). That is, by making people more competent and skilled, T&D can help the company achieve its corporate goals. According to this method, senior management's quality expectations are met via a training plan that is tailored in accordance with current organizational demands and difficulties.

There are four critical steps in the systematic T&D process, as shown in Figure 16, which include training needs assessment, development, implementation, and evaluation: A broad awareness of learning theories and preferred learning styles is necessary for performing any of the T&D phases, particularly the design and development stage.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 16 The training and development process model



Source: (Adapted from Desimone, Werner and Harris, 2002)

Employees who get systematic training become more adaptable and versatile in their roles at work. It improves the productivity of workers who contribute to the company's success. Employees benefit from increased stability, which benefits the company as a whole. To avoid obsolescence by bridging the gap between strategy and execution, systematic methods of training have the goal of improving the quality of the workforce.

2.3.10.1 Training Need Assessment (TNA)

To develop and evaluate training programs, the gap between what is occurring and what should happen in terms of people's behavior and acquisition of information, skills, and changing attitudes is critical to TNA. In Brown (2002), he outlines the major reasons for TNA, which

Chapter Two : Literature Review

include securing management support, producing evaluation data, and calculating the cost and utility of training.

TNA encompasses the procedures of determining the most effective methods of carrying out a job or role's responsibilities effectively. TNA examines the root causes of issues that have arisen as well as strategies for resolving them. In addition, TNA increases management commitment, makes the functions of training more visible, explains on important organizational issues, makes the best use of organizational resources, provides ideas and courses for training design, develops training strategies, provides staff with the knowledge and skills necessary to perform their jobs, and improves staff morale and relationships (Denis & McConnell, 2003).

TNA is utilized to determine the learning goals, design training courses, and evaluate the implementation of training. This allows managers and trainees to communicate effectively and share in the activities of their organizations (Cekada, 2010).

According to Holden & Beardwell (1994), identifying T&D requirements must take into account both individual and group needs, which are meant to be aligned with the overall goals and objectives of the business. This means that there should be an interconnectedness between the requirements of individuals, groups, and organizations. In addition, training and development (T&D) should be tailored to the culture and corporate strategy of the firm to aid in the achievement of the organization's corporate goals.

Armstrong (2006) has promoted a "Deficiency Model Approach" as one of the most important approaches when identifying training needs as the difference between what people know and can do and what they should know and be able to do. This model identifies training needs based on the available skills and knowledge and the desired skills and knowledge.

Analytical procedures are used to identify training requirements. In terms of person, task, and organizational analysis, they are all interrelated. Training requirements and appropriateness for a training program may be determined via person analysis. Task analysis emphasizes both the task and the knowledge required to do it. Analyzing an organization's training requirements in light of its goals and available resources is referred to as organizational analysis (Noe & Kodwani, 2018).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

In an ongoing process, TNA has a set of pre-determined goals. To make a difference and have a long-term impact on companies, these goals are monitored and improved (Denby, 2010). TNA's goals include determining what information is required; gathering data on training requirements, and determining what skills are necessary and how to enhance them. Trainers and managers at all levels benefit from an evaluation of their organization's training requirements (H. D. Lee & Nelson, 2015).

TNA fills in the knowledge gap between what is taught in the classroom and what employees really need to do their jobs better. Training and Development (T&D) may be costly, time-consuming, and difficult to implement without a thorough understanding of the requirements of the workforce (Au et al., 2008). As a result, training is not a solution to all problems; rather, it is a means of dealing with organizational issues. Training may be utilized as a solution if the issue stems from a lack of personnel competency.

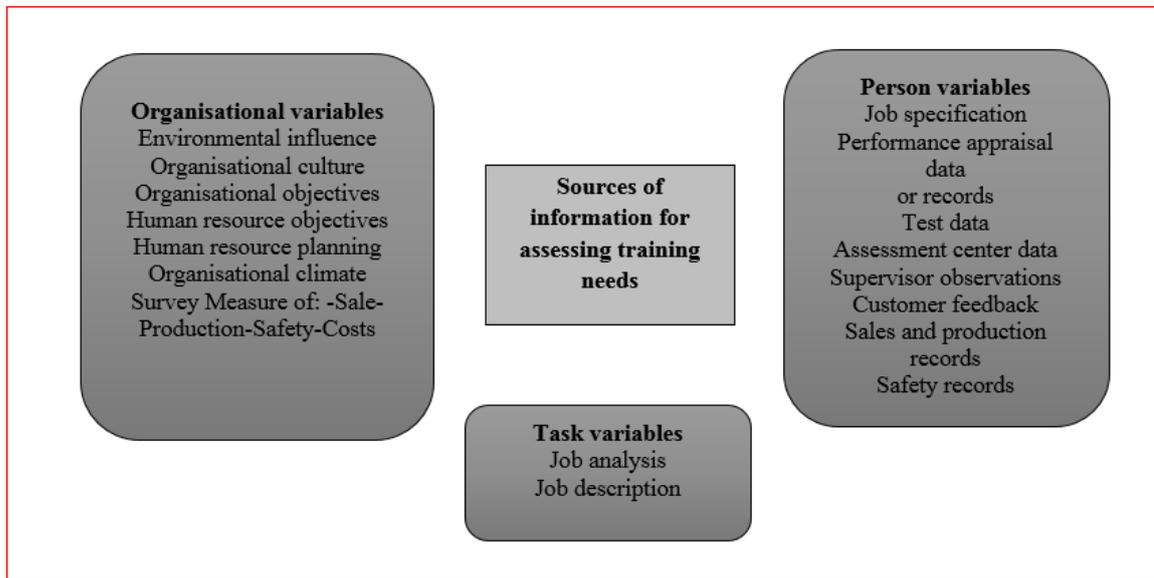
Managers must distinguish between the current and future demands of their businesses while performing TNA. However, there are some fundamental principles that should be considered when conducting a needs assessment, such as asking about the current knowledge and skills of employees, the desired performance requirements, the differences between actual and desired performance, and the extent to which these differences are attributable to a lack of knowledge and skills or some other causes (Chang et al., 2012).

The aspirations of workers and those of businesses should be kept in balance. Employees, on the other hand, may choose to find their methods of doing the tasks that their employers assign them (W. D. Rees & Porter, 2004).

Goal planning, staff development, managing change, career development, knowledge, skills, attitudes, learning motivation, cost-effectiveness, and performance evaluation are all components of TNA, according to Iqbal & Khan (2011). When it comes to TNA's impact on organizational growth and resource utilization (Altarawneh, 2005), the authors Chang et al. (2012) indicate that it has four main effects.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Figure 17 Training needs analysis sources



Source: (Altarawneh, 2005)

2.3.10.2 Design and Developing Training Programs

One of the most significant aspects of planning and designing T&D programs is the development of T&D program goals and assessment criteria. The program's location, techniques, content, duration, trainers, prospective fees, and so on are all part of its design and planning.

Developing and constructing a successful T&D program necessitates having a solid grasp of learning theories and styles. When learning through experience, both the individual learner and the educator need to be aware of their chosen learning method. Understanding theories of learning and the preferred learning styles of individuals and groups is critical to choosing the most successful and suitable T&D techniques, planning for T&D content, location, and even pricing.

Understanding learning theories and employee learning preferences are essential to designing successful training programs, as is knowing how much time to provide for each program's implementation and how much time to allocate to each employee (Noe & Kodwani, 2018). Goal-setting theory, reinforcement theory, social learning theory, expectancy theory, and the needs theory are all examples of common learning theories (Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Goal-setting On the basis of theory, learning is achieved by providing trainees with a set of goals and demanding objectives (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). Reinforcement Theory is based on the premise that trainers must correlate positive and negative outcomes with students' acquisition of information and transformation of behavior. Reinforcement Theory (Noe & Kodwani, 2018).

Employees, according to Social Learning Theory, may learn by doing (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). Financial gains and promotion are two values that workers believe they will acquire as a result of training in accordance with the Expectancy Theory (Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

It is important that training programs be tailored to the requirements of workers so that they are motivated to learn, according to the Need Theory. To create effective training programs, educators must employ behavioral learning approaches that place an emphasis on keeping tabs on trainees' actions and tracking their progress as they learn and grow (Foot & Hook, 2008).

2.3.10.2.1 Establishing T&D Objectives and Evaluation Criteria

In the training process, establishing and creating training and development goals is critical. Traditional training programs are focused on determining clear goals and objectives that are meaningful for the learners and allow the performance gap to be closed, according to Marchington & Wilkinson (2002). As far as feasible, training goals should be quantifiable, explicit, and concrete (Burrow & Berardinelli, 2003).

As a result, assessment criteria are obvious and agreed upon as long as training goals are quantifiable, unambiguous, and agreed upon at all levels of the company (Burrow & Berardinelli, 2003).

2.3.10.2.2 Planning and Designing T&D Programmes

This crucial step focuses on developing a successful T&D program based on the previously agreed-upon intended T&D goals. There are crucial considerations to be made in regards to the content of the T&D program, the selection or nomination of the right trainees, the budgeting of T&D expenses, and the planning of the T&D program's location. Taking into

Chapter Two : Literature Review

consideration the characteristics of the learners, training requirements, learning preferences, resources available, as well as learning goals, all of these concerns must be prepared.

2.3.10.3 Implementation of Training programs

Once training requirements and goals have been established, it is important to prepare for successful training and execute the programs. The transfer stage refers to the preparation and execution of the training program. It's at this point that employees may demonstrate their ability to put their newly gained skills, knowledge, and attitudes to use in the job (Velada et al., 2007).

Trainees should be able to apply what they learn in the classroom to the real world. Personal traits such as a drive for success, cognitive capacity, sense of agency, level of commitment to one's work, and belief in one's abilities all play a role in how well one applies newly learned skills in the workplace. In the workplace, culture and climate are intertwined. Supervisors help and supervise the application of new information and abilities on the job.

Training programs' suitability is determined by the whole company, not simply the training environment. T&D delivery in companies is ensured at the implementation stage (Holton et al., 2000). Katou & Budhwar (2007) agree with Holton, Bates & Ruona (2000) that the company as a whole should make choices about training planning, content creation, training expenses, and time, as well as decisions about trainers, trainees, and the site of training (Katou & Budhwar, 2007).

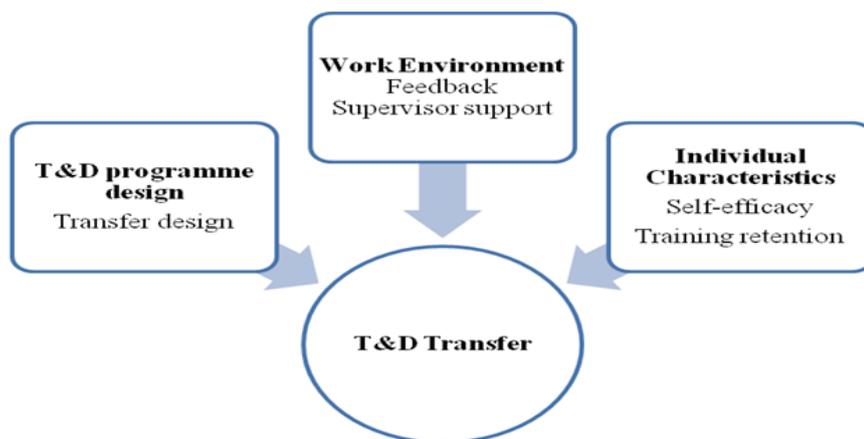
Specialist external training providers should be used since they give the finest training for learners. On the other hand, Trainers want trainees to be prepared to accept the knowledge they provide them (Foot & Hook, 2008; Heierhoff et al., 2011). The coordination of the efforts of those participating in the programs is the outcome of the effective execution of training programs. These efforts include on-the-job learning connected with informal procedures such as activities, observation, asking questions, solving difficulties, doing projects, and mentorship. " Opportunities to study outside of the job are also available (Jacobs & Park, 2009).

Mondy & Noe (1999) argue that implementing training programs usually faces some difficulties which must be resolved first to reach a satisfactory implementation stage:

Chapter Two : Literature Review

- Most of the managers have the same reaction all the time: they have no time and they are too busy to think about T&D.
- A good trainer has to exist. Qualified trainers who possess communication skills, and who understand the management philosophy, objectives, and the importance of the training program are not available all the time.
- Record keeping is also one of the difficulties which faces an organization when implementing T&D programs. This information might be useful to the organization to assess the effectiveness of the program by measuring the trainees' performance before and after training.
- The requirements for the coordination of training programs conducted outside the organization might be many and expensive.

Figure 18 Factors affecting the planning and implementation of training programs



Source : (Velada et al., 2007)

2.3.10.4 Evaluation of Training and Development Programmes

According to Hesseling (1966), a trainer's most important job is to verify the success of training and certify that the approaches they've chosen have produced the expected effects. When discussing the value and contributions of training and development (T&D) in an organization, it might be claimed that measuring training efficacy is the first step. As a means of changing people's behavior, the evaluation of training success is centered on assessing that change. Training should be considered as an effective training process and a foundation for

Chapter Two : Literature Review

improving organizational decision-making concerning human performance improvement (Burrow & Berardinelli, 2003).

Evaluation is the process of determining the success and efficiency of a training program in terms of both its influence on daily work life and its monetary cost (D. L. Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009). Validation of T&D comprises understanding the goal of the evaluation, showing what T&D does, and the results of T&D and its delivery and implementation (D. Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006).

Al-Athari & Zairi (2002) suggest that reviewing training programs is an integral aspect of determining training requirements and achieving training goals. Burrow & Berardinelli (2003) add that what makes evaluation difficult is that it requires managers to establish training objectives and evaluation criteria, which are related to the purpose of evaluation, what is being evaluated, how the evaluation is conducted, who is being evaluated, and the evaluation's timing.

Although training evaluation is a critical phase for a successful T&D program, it is frequently overlooked. This may be due to a lack of time and resources to complete the evaluation process, or perhaps a lack of top management support, ineffective evaluation process design, and unclear evaluation criteria. However, as organizations invest more in training, evaluating the effectiveness of these programs has become critical.

2.3.10.4.1 Models of Evaluation and their Practice

Numerous evaluation models have been established to assess the efficacy of training programs; this section will examine the most often used models that concentrate on program-level assessment and their theoretical and practical merits.

Harlen & James (1997) suggest some characteristics which distinguish formative from summative assessment; these are summarized in the following table.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Table 02 Characteristics of formative and summative assessment

| | Formative assessment | Summative assessment |
|---|--|---|
| 1 | focuses on promoting learning; | focuses on achievement; |
| 2 | takes into account the progress of each individual; | assesses progress against public criteria; |
| 3 | presents diagnostic information; | requires methods that are as reliable as possible without endangering validity; |
| 4 | takes validity and usefulness as paramount and gives them precedence over concerns of reliability; | involves some quality assurance procedures; |
| 5 | Focuses on encouraging trainees to be active in their learning. | It is based on evidence from the full range of performance relevant to the criteria being used. |

Source: (Bshina, 2016)

This table demonstrates the value of formative evaluation because it enables stakeholders to determine the extent to which learning interventions add value to the organization (input) and to modify them as necessary, whereas summative evaluation is critical for determining the extent to which learning interventions added worth and value to the organizational strategy.

According to the difference made in the preceding section, some of these models (the Kirkpatrick and ROI models) are summative, while others are formative (the CIPP and CIRO models). The following discussion will examine all four of these prevalent models.

Summative Evaluation Models

This section will discuss the two most often used summative assessment models: Kirkpatrick and return on investment. According to Donovan et al. (2001), conventional human resource development assessment approaches are constrained and have been dominated for the last 40 years by the Kirkpatrick four-level model.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

The Kirkpatrick Model

Kirkpatrick authored a series of papers for an American Training and Development Journal in the late 1950s (D. Kirkpatrick, 1994) that focused on quantifying the change in skill levels attained as a consequence of training. Donald L. Kirkpatrick & Craig (1967) and Donald L. Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick (2007) identify four stages of assessment in their conceptual framework: trainee response; knowledge, skill, and attitude acquisition; behavior; and outcome evaluation.

Level 1 Evaluation of Reaction

The purpose of reaction assessment is to ascertain how well learners "loved" a given training program (Stewart, 1999). While Donald L. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2007) agree that it is critical to learn the trainees' opinions about the program they attended, relying solely on the reaction level has some drawbacks; for example, responses may sometimes be based on how much the trainees liked the trainer or how productive their time was (Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002).

Level 2 Evaluation of Learning

According to Donald L. Kirkpatrick & Craig (1967) and Donald L. Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick (2007), the word "learning" refers to trainees comprehending and absorbing the ideas, facts, and practices. As such, this level entails assessing the acquired knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) throughout the program (Truelove, 1995).

According to Donald L. Kirkpatrick & Craig (1967) and Donald L. Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick (2007), a positive response to the program does not guarantee learning. Truelove (1995) suggests two additional benefits of using the learning level: showcasing participant learning should aid in the promotion of the training program, and evaluating the learning level may aid in the interpretation of level three assessment data.

Level 3 Evaluation of Behavior

Behavior evaluation entails determining if work performance improves as a consequence of training (Truelove, 1995). The benefit of this level is that it measures real work behavior,

Chapter Two : Literature Review

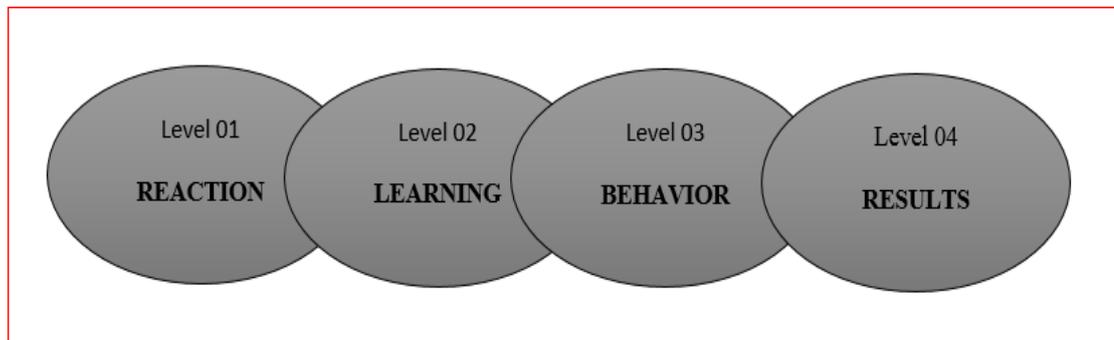
rather than just positive response and/or learning. Additionally, this level reflects the most accurate appraisal of a programmer's performance for many trainers. However, measuring at this level is challenging because it is sometimes hard to forecast when a behavior change will occur; hence, critical judgments about when, how frequently, and what to examine are necessary (Truelove, 1995).

Level 4 Evaluation of Results

The evaluation of outcomes focuses on the impact of behavioral changes on the organization, such as cost savings, quality improvements, and production increases (Truelove, 1995). This is a concern since it makes it very difficult to determine the percentage of outcomes that can be directly linked to a particular training program.

The Kirkpatrick framework is widely used in practice to evaluate training programs. According to Al-Athari & Zairi (2002), it is currently regarded as an industry standard for evaluating training programs in the human resource and training sectors (James & Roffe, 2000). Numerous studies in the commercial and governmental sectors have been done to determine the extent to which this paradigm is employed and at what levels.

Figure 19 Kirkpatrick's model for evaluating T&D outcomes



Source: (Bshina, 2016)

Return on Investment (ROI)

Jack Phillips enhanced Kirkpatrick's paradigm in 1997 (Phillips & Holton, 1997) by including a learning assessment (level 5) in addition to business success measurement. The framework's main innovation is the explicit consideration of return on investment. The rationale

Chapter Two : Literature Review

is that if too much money is spent on a single L&D project, performance may improve but the ROI will be negative (Sadler-Smith, 2005).

Although ROI aims to quantify cost and time reductions as well as quality and production gains, it also incorporates subjective data such as employee and customer satisfaction and retention. It assesses the training's return on investment. Additionally, it includes a cost-benefit analysis that compares the training expenditures to the monetary worth of the business effect generated by the training.

ROI model is considered as a summative; however, although the ROI approach has been widely promoted and has achieved a high degree of acceptance by HRD practitioners (Phillips, 2012), many studies do not bear out this reputation in practice.

Formative Evaluation Models

This part will review the most commonly used formative evaluation models: the CIPP and the CIRO models:

The CIPP Model

The CIPP model, named for its evaluation of Context, Inputs, Processes, and Products, is a systems-oriented paradigm developed around 1985 by Daniel L. Stufflebeam. It is meant for service providers, including principals of schools, college and university administrators, and project employees (Stufflebeam et al., 2006). Although it was developed for educational purposes, the training community also makes use of it. The first two levels are concerned with the study of needs and the creation of instructional materials.

Level 1 Context Evaluation

This level is utilized before the commencement of the program or activity being assessed. It evaluates requirements, issues, assets, and opportunities to assist decision-makers in defining objectives and priorities and to assist a larger group of users in evaluating objectives, priorities, and results. The evaluator must determine the following: What are the needs and opportunities? What can be done in response? How is this accomplished? (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Level 2 Input Evaluation

According to D. L. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007), this level is used to analyze the feasibility and possible cost-effectiveness of alternative methods, competing action plans, staffing plans, and budgets for meeting specified needs and achieving objectives. Decision-makers utilize input assessments to help them choose between competing plans, write funding bids, allocate resources, assign employees, and schedule work, as well as assist others in evaluating plans and budgets (Stufflebeam, 2003). The CIPP model's levels 1 and 2 are concerned with needs analysis and instructional design; these levels may be thought of as formative assessments.

Level 3 Process Evaluation

This level is similar to the reaction processes involved in the Kirkpatrick and ROI models. It is used to assess the implementation of plans to help staff carry out activities and later to help the broad group of users judge program performance and interpret outcomes (Stufflebeam, 2003).

Level 4 Product Evaluation

This level is analogous to the processes of learning included in the Kirkpatrick and ROI models. One may argue that the CIPP model is by definition a formative method. Additionally, it neglects to assess other crucial areas after training (summative method), such as organizational transformation. As a result, it gives no information on the organization's worth, value, efficacy, or efficiency of training.

However, this approach has many advantages: it engages stakeholders at all levels; it is regarded as morally responsible since it may be used to help establish suitable assessment questions and criteria; it gives evaluative feedback; and it receives and utilizes evaluation results (Mathison, 2004; Daniel L. Stufflebeam, 2003).

Another benefit is that it strives to guarantee that its findings are utilized by decision-makers and that the outcomes of the training are used actively to enhance the company as a whole, rather than merely to demonstrate that the training was beneficial (I. Robinson, 2006).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Dubois concluded in 1993 that the Kirkpatrick model contributed more than the CIPP model because it proposes practical methods for analyzing the results of training or education systems at four levels of specificity and relevance within an organizational environment (Dubois, 1993).

However, the CIPP framework has been criticized for failing to quantify the worth or value of human resource development interventions concerning organizational results (financial and non-financial), and for failing to connect this model to organizational strategy (Garavan, 2007; Anderson, 2007)

The Warr, Bird, and Rackham Model (CIRO)

Warr, Bird, and Rackham established the CIRO model in 1970, and it has a little greater reach than the others (Truelove, 1995). Context, Input, Reaction, and Outcomes are the four layers of assessment that comprise the CIRO technique.

Level 1 Context Evaluation

This level is comparable to the CIPP model's level 1. At this stage, the evaluator must be aware of conditions that demand improvement, either via their inquiry or by arranging for them to be brought to their notice by others. During this stage, the evaluator might begin contemplating the goals he or she will establish (Warr et al., 1970).

Level 2 Input Evaluation

This level is identical to level 2 included in the CIPP paradigm. This assessment comprises of examining the training resources offered. What techniques are most likely to bring about this change? Basically, this technique of assessment decides on the optimal way of delivery, taking into consideration aspects such as mode, training, style of delivery, amount and kind of engagement of employees, and budgetary factors (Warr et al., 1970). The input level is concerned with problems of learning design, such as what techniques should be utilized, who should give the L & D, and how it should be arranged (Sadler-Smith, 2005).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Level 3 Reaction Evaluation

This level is analogous to the response processes included in Kirkpatrick's model and level 3 in the CIPP model. It is utilized to identify the participants' responses based on personal reports or interviews (Sloman, 1999). (Sloman, 1999). One of the hallmarks of this sort of assessment is its dependence on the subjectivity of trainees' reports. There is however little question that trainees' opinions may be immensely valuable and that this is particularly true if the effort is made to gather them systematically (Warr et al., 1970).

Level 4 Outcomes Evaluation

This level is comparable to Kirkpatrick's and the CIPP model's level 4 learning processes. Assessing the degree to which training goals have been met is one of its primary functions (Warr et al., 1970). Results are utilized to guide future planning, especially concerning the creation of general and specific goals and the establishment of criteria by which success will be judged (Sloman, 1999).

There are three levels of outcomes evaluation, corresponding to the three levels of training objectives. These levels may conveniently be referred to in terms of immediate outcomes, intermediate outcomes, and ultimate outcomes (Warr et al., 1970).

2.3.10.5 Training and Development Methods

Leonard & Nadler (1984) stated that all human resource development activities are intended to either improve an individual's performance in his or her current job, train new skills for a future job or position, or to promote overall growth for both individuals and organizations in order to meet the organization's current and future objectives. There are basically two distinct main approaches that firms may use to teach and enhance their workers' talents. These are on-the-job training sessions provided to organizational personnel while they do their regular duties at the same work locations, while off-the-job training includes removing employees from their normal work environs, devoting entire emphasis to the training. On-the-job training may take the form of job rotations and transfers, coaching, and/or mentoring. On the other hand, examples of off-the-job training include conferences, role acting, and a variety of others, as detailed below. Armstrong (1996) argues that on-the-job training may consist of teaching or coaching

Chapter Two : Literature Review

by more experienced people or trainers at the desk or the bench. Different organizations are motivated to take on different training methods for several reasons for example;

- (1) depending on the organization's strategy, goals, and resources available,
- (2) depending on the needs identified at the time, and

(3) the intended audience for the training, which may include individual employees, groups, teams, departments, or the whole business. Training assistance is a phrase that is synonymous with training techniques. Training aids are specialized instruments that help instructors in delivering training information. Bink et al. (2011) describe training aids as "things or equipment that promote the learning goals of training." They include flashcards, films and videos illustrating different skills, printed materials, whiteboards, and flip charts.

Training is conducted as part of a training program. Needs assessments are undertaken inside an organization to identify issue areas and possible solution solutions. If training is recognized as a need, a training program is established that starts with the identification of training needs and techniques, continues with training, and concludes with assessment (to determine the degree to which specified requirements and issues are satisfied) (Martin et al., 2014).

2.3.10.6 Criteria for Comparing Training Methods

The use of these criteria results in the creation of a profile for each training technique based on these factors. The training techniques may be evaluated against one another using these characteristics, resulting in a reference for choosing training methods. For this purpose, we will describe the criteria; it is up to the reader to apply this guidance and, in conjunction with an awareness of their circumstances, choose which technique (s) is ideal for them (Martin et al., 2014).

Learning Modality

The term "learning modality" refers to the mode of communication used to transmit training information to learners. The three modes of learning are: doing, seeing, and hearing. When attempting to categorize training techniques meaningfully, we evaluated the sensory aspect of each approach and observed a trend (seeing, hearing, and doing). The term "learning

Chapter Two : Literature Review

by doing" refers to instances in which students gain training material while executing a task. Learning via experience is consistent with the educational paradigm known as experiential education, which holds that knowledge is gained through the transformation of experience (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

When evaluating instructional approaches, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006) emphasize the necessity of determining "the learners' preferred mode of learning in terms of the sensory modality via which they prefer to take in new information." They distinguish between visual, aural, and kinesthetic sensory modalities. Similarly, we categorize training methods according to their sensorial approach, using the terms learning by seeing to refer to instances in which trainees acquire training content through observation of the task being performed, and learning by hearing to refer to instances in which trainees acquire training content through hearing.

Training Environment

The training environment refers to the physical location of the training. A natural environment is an evocative term that alludes to the actual work environment. A constructed environment is built expressly for training purposes and bears no resemblance to the work environment, while a simulated environment is also created specifically for training purposes but attempts to replicate the natural work environment. As a result, we have three options for the training environment criterion: natural, artificial, or simulated. On-the-job training is always conducted in a natural setting, while off-the-job training may be fabricated or mimicked (Martin et al., 2014).

Trainer Presence

The term "trainer presence" refers to whether the approach requires delivery by a trainer or by another source (e.g., a computer). Klein et al. (2006) bolster this concept by adding that "the 'teacher' may be a person or teaching can be given without human connection via... other instructional media." The presence of a trainer is critical when deciding on a training technique since technology enables an increasing amount of training information to be given without a trainer.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Proximity

Proximity relates to the trainer's and trainees' physical location. In this instance, training might take place face to face or remotely (in other words, remotely). According to Van Noord & Peterson (2010), "online learning is no longer a revolutionary concept; it has become an accepted, even anticipated, component of professional growth."

Distance learning is no longer synonymous with the now-outdated technique of correspondence education; technology now enables the delivery of a wide variety of training methods remotely. It is critical to consider proximity while evaluating training techniques since information exchange, like so many other aspects of modern life, is influenced by globalization. While social experience used to be limited to face-to-face interactions, technology is allowing distance training to be a social experience and reducing previously impeding geographical limitations.

Interaction Level

The term "interaction level" refers to the degree of interaction between trainer and trainee as well as between trainees. Learning is largely regarded to be a sociocultural experience that requires social contact to be successful (Webster-Wright, 2009).

Cost Considerations

The cost considerations criteria indicate the most important costs connected with each training technique, as well as whether the costs are one-time or continuing. The cost issues were classified as low, moderate, or high. A low descriptor refers to methods in which the only specific training costs are the cost of the trainer, a moderate descriptor refers to methods in which the cost of training space is required in addition to the cost of the trainer, and a high descriptor refers to methods in which trainer and equipment costs (including equipment purchase/rental, maintenance, and upgrades) are involved (Martin et al., 2014).

Time Demands

The term "time demands" refers to the amount of time that trainees must devote to their studies. This is a crucial issue since the length of time might affect trainee and organizational

Chapter Two : Literature Review

buy-in. This criterion covers whether or not the training technique necessitates continuing engagement, as well as whether or not the time spent engaging in the training is flexible or set.

2.3.11 Training Methods

2.3.11.1 Case Study

The case study method's practical character may help to increase trainee interest and, as a result, favorably improve learner motivation. However, if learners find it difficult to acquire critical materials, it may impair their motivation and learning (L. A. Johnson & Helms, 2008). Shivakumar (2012) lists some of the benefits of the case study technique in his work, including the development of decision-making abilities, enhanced communication, and interpersonal skills, and increased analytical skills.

This strategy is appropriate for situations in which learners have some prior knowledge but might benefit from the practical aspect of the instruction. This is a low-risk, low-cost teaching system that can instruct any number of learners at the same time, and it has therefore become a popular option for educating students in law, medicine, and counseling.

2.3.11.2 Games-Based Training

In the last decade, the use of games for training has grown in favor of a low-cost but high-impact alternative to traditional methods (K. A. Wilson et al., 2009). The games-based teaching technique is competitive, which may be a motivating aspect for the majority of learners. The material is also applied in a manner similar to the case study technique, which has the added benefit of motivating students even more. Some drawbacks of this strategy include the trainer's inability to determine exactly what aspects of the game contribute to training and the challenge of ensuring that all of the most important learning ideas are conveyed using this method (K. A. Wilson et al., 2009).

In a literature analysis of research regarding the efficacy of business games, Faria (2001) reveals that player personality qualities, player academic ability, and team characteristics (such as motivation and cohesiveness) may all be associated with success in business games. People who are good at competing are likely to be drawn to the world of business, which is by its very nature very competitive. Consequently, we would propose games-based training for learners

Chapter Two : Literature Review

who thrive in or are driven by a competitive atmosphere; corporate, military, and sports professionals are all likely to meet this sort of learner.

2.3.11.3 Internship

The primary benefits of this strategy are that the company may teach an employee at a fraction of the cost, or even for free and that the person works in the capacity for which they are trained; hence, the training material is relevant to their future job responsibilities. On the other side, the learning experience might be uneven and high-pressure. A poll of working doctors conducted a few years after they finished their medical internship indicated overwhelmingly negative views, with respondents stating that the experience was too varied, too fragmented, and that assistance in gaining skills was missing (Löwe et al., 2008).

2.3.11.4 Job Rotation

One of the most important benefits of this strategy is that it may increase employee interest in the firm and dedication. It provides workers with possibilities for growth and advancement, which may enhance career satisfaction, motivation, and interdepartmental cooperation (Geet & Deshpande, 2008).

Job rotation benefits the firm because it "aids in the development of a shared culture via broad and common exposure while infusing 'fresh blood' into duties," providing workers with "a new challenge and chance to show themselves" (Saiyadain, 1988).

2.3.11.5 Job Shadowing

Job shadowing may be an effective way to pique an employee's interest and involvement. As Kathryn Tyler points out, this is an excellent method for workers to get various views on their employer and even "shop" for alternative jobs inside the organization. While the main objective of job shadowing is to teach the trainee how to execute a certain position, Tyler (2008) indicates that trainees have the unique chance to experience the firm from a new viewpoint, which may provide them with a wider perspective of the organization. We encourage job shadowing in circumstances when a firm is educating current workers for a new function or

Chapter Two : Literature Review

providing current employees the opportunity to "try on" a new role (without the risk and cost of failure associated with job rotation).

2.3.11.6 Lecture

Thiagarajan's (2005) primary critique of the lecture approach is its lack of interaction, which indicates one-way communication and a dearth of assistance for overcoming learning obstacles and engaging in peer learning. The literature on professional development calls for lifelong, active, experiential, social, and practice-relevant learning (Webster-Wright, 2009).

In comparison, the lecture technique is limited, inert, non-social, and isolated from real-world experience, all of which contribute to less-than-optimal learning. As a result, we believe that lectures should be employed only when the training topic is straightforward, uniform learning is sought, and there are no severe consequences for trainees who do not acquire the target information.

2.3.11.7 Mentoring and Apprenticeship

The one-on-one learning setting is a significant benefit of this strategy. It's difficult to see a student benefiting from this system unless there was interpersonal tension between mentor and trainee. Mentorship benefits the trainee in two critical ways: it provides emotional support (acceptance, confidence, a buffer against burnout, and the like) and it facilitates professional advancement (Zerzan et al., 2009). According to research, persons who are mentored are more likely to want to mentor others (Vincent & Seymour, 1994). With this in mind, it is appropriate to regard mentoring training as a strategy capable of delivering long-term benefits.

This strategy is ideally suited, for example, when a corporation wishes to groom its trainee(s) for future advancement within the organization. To mitigate the potential negative effect of interpersonal conflict, it is critical that the mentor and trainee be well prepared (this may include requiring participants to complete questionnaires and enabling trainees to participate in the selection process) (Andrews & Chilton, 2000). Additionally, mentoring assistance in the form of communication, encouragement, and leadership skills training might significantly add to the effectiveness of this training strategy.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.3.11.8 Programmed Instruction

There are several benefits to employing programmed teaching as a technique of training. It is adaptable and allows for repeated practice; its consistent delivery ensures a uniform learning experience; and it also has the capability to include multisensory elements (color, sound, text, animation, graphics, and special effects). On the other hand, if learners are unfamiliar with the technology or are generally scared by it, their motivation may suffer (Zhang et al., 2004).

Additionally, the need for specialist equipment raises the possibility for learning to be disrupted if technical issues develop. Additionally, it requires more self-discipline than most other approaches, and there is a potential that trainees may cheat or miss portions of the training.

Stanisavljevic and Djuric (2013) conducted a comparative study of the efficacy of lecture and computer-programmed education. One group received education through programmed instruction, whereas the other received instruction via the conventional lecture format. They discovered that planned training was more successful in terms of acquiring both quantity and quality of information by learners. The two approaches under examination entail distinct modes of learning, which implies that a trainee's learning style may be an important factor to consider when picking a method.

2.3.11.9 Role-Modeling

As with its lecture counterpart, role-modeling is a popular type of teaching because it enables employers to easily monitor student completion of the training program. As with the lecture style, there is no expectation of interaction, implying a deficiency in assisting learners in overcoming obstacles.

Assaf et al. (1985) showed excellent skill performance results for the role-modeling training approach where participants watched a demonstration and were given the opportunity to practice on a life-like model. They compared three approaches to teaching women how to undertake breast self-examination. It is unclear if the chance to practice on the model contributed to the good results, but it does show that role-modeling, paired with the opportunity for the learner to do what was modeled, might be a valuable combination. Consequently, we

Chapter Two : Literature Review

consider that role-modeling should be employed in circumstances when trainees may have the opportunity to apply the skill quickly after witnessing the example.

2.3.11.10 Role Play

As a trainee, you have the chance to apply what you've learned in class to a fake situation, so you can practice without risking failing on the job. However, there is a risk that the content will be taken lightly because there is no punishment for it. In addition, some people may be put off by the pressure of performing and not want to learn. In a study (McIlvried et al., 2008), people who were studying genetic counseling thought role play was a good way to learn about the process and consequences of genetic counseling. They also thought the experience would help them communicate with patients. Role play is great for giving trainees a chance to practice and reflect together on how to handle important job responsibilities, or for sensitivity training and other situations where they need to learn how to change their attitudes (Barone et al., 2005).

Role play is a good way to think about your actions without having to deal with the embarrassment of failing, so we think it's a good choice for these kinds of situations.

2.3.11.11 Simulation

Simulation training is ideal for training that would be too risky or expensive to undertake in a real-world setting. This strategy, which has been utilized in medical training, flying training, military training, and technical training in other high-stakes industries such as nuclear power production, offers "safe, organized, engaging, and successful practice opportunities" (Rosen et al., 2012) in a risk-free setting. Other benefits of this strategy include the ability to repeat practice, the ability to test boundaries safely, and the ability to give quick feedback and a uniform experience for all learners.

In the same way that any new technology gets cheaper and easier to use, simulation training systems are getting cheaper and easier to use. This means that they can be used in more places, like medical training programs, sports training for athletes, and even high school biology classes (Martin et al., 2014).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

For example, simulation training should be used in situations where failure to learn the material could have a big impact. Simulator training is also a good idea when there are a lot of trainees and it's not possible to give them enough practice on the job. For example, a group of surgical residents might need to learn a certain surgical technique.

2.3.11.12 Stimulus-Based

A big advantage of this method is that it can be used all over the world, but its unconventional nature might scare away some people or make them take the content too lightly. Trainees may not be used to methods that use creativity and don't follow "traditional" rules. Some studies say that this method helps people learn more thoroughly and faster than other methods (Martin et al., 2014).

We argue that this strategy is suited for circumstances where the training material has a propensity to create tension or negative emotions in the learners. Examples provided by Zemke (1995) include instruction on mathematics, accounting, payment, and billing services, where this strategy assisted the learners to integrate the knowledge by its link with the positive emotional effect caused by the stimulus. This similar strategy is beneficial in the sensitivity training of medical practitioners, helping them to transcend the barrier of their technical medical expertise to recognize the person behind the sickness (Kumagai, 2008).

2.3.11.13 Team-Training

The purpose of team training is to grow a whole team, not just each trainee. This strategy has the advantage of fostering the development of social skills and teamwork within a team (Moreland & Myaskovsky, 2000). On the other hand, for training to be effective, all team members must be on board and involved in the process. There is always the risk that one or more group members would demonstrate resistance, which will have a detrimental effect on the group's performance and dynamics.

Moreland & Myaskovsky (2000) cite research indicating that groups perform better when members are taught together and cooperate cooperatively throughout the learning process, as opposed to when members are instructed separately. In research in which participants were

Chapter Two : Literature Review

taught to construct radios, groups with members trained together retained more information and made fewer assembly mistakes than groups with members trained separately.

We advocate team training for every situation in which workers must operate in teams. It is not uncommon for team members to live and work in different parts of the world, which necessitates the use of virtual team training in some organizations; virtual team training may take the form of videoconferences, chat rooms, blogs, or WebEx sessions, an internet-based two-way audio/visual system (Holtbrügge et al., 2011).

2.3.12 Learning and Education and Their Relation to T&D

Education and learning are catalysts for change in businesses, which is why they often establish learning procedures (Hannah & Lester, 2009). Education may be defined as 'education or training that teaches individuals how to develop and use their mental, moral, and physical abilities' (Zait, 2006). As a result, education helps individuals to work in accordance with their capacity in order to realize their full potential. Individuals acquire attitudes, habits, and abilities that help them to live a more fulfilling and productive life. According to some educators, education is a process of learning that does not always include practice, while training is the process of learning to do a certain task. Thus, training focuses on the specific requirements of the profession, while education focuses on theoretical and moral growth, which does not necessarily require students to apply what they learn in the classroom to their jobs. Reid and Barrington (1994) define education as "'for life,' while training is "for employment."

T&D is inextricably linked to learning and education in human resource development. The purpose of training is to facilitate learning, which encompasses all spheres of life and knowledge. The term "learning" refers to "a generally permanent modification of behavior as a consequence of prior experience." Learning is seen to entail more than the acquisition of information; it also covers the process through which established values and approaches are abandoned in favor of new ones' (Price, 2011). On the other side (Short, 2010), human resource development researchers need to explore methods and strategies known to influence organizational learning and shape the role of professionals in using these tools for organizational learning.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Education is critical in the administration of T&D, as businesses recognize and recruit skilled individuals. Individual companies chart their routes for developing their employees' unique abilities. As such, businesses generate possibilities that enable them to fulfill their objectives and overcome obstacles by fostering an environment conducive to learning and exchanging experiences (Chodorek & Sudolska, 2013).

Education is a systematic procedure that helps workers to improve their knowledge, abilities, and comprehension. Education is defined as 'activities that foster the development of the information, skills, moral values, and understanding necessary for success in all facets of life, rather than knowledge and abilities specific to a single sector of activity (I. Robinson, 2006).

Education and training are required for growing skills to attain higher productivity and economic advancement. Skillful design and facilitation of formal and informal information and learning experiences help organizations and their employees fulfill their potential by improving staff skills, and knowledge processing activities (Harrison & Kessels, 2004).

Further characteristics of growth via education Snell et al. (2015) claim that education contributes to improving the living situations of individuals and increasing their attitudes. This is because when individuals are properly taught and have the appropriate skills and talents, they would be abler to cope with breakthroughs in science and technology that are going place. As a consequence of offering individuals the knowledge and skills they need, they will acquire positive attitudes, which will affect their well-being (Berman et al., 2019).

Education and training sharpen the individual's valuable knowledge and technological levels and boosts their output. The quantity of education that is gained by people impacts their usefulness to their occupations and their competitive edge. Increasing the investment in human capital offers rewards to the organizations notwithstanding the expenditures required. Education and training are the key pillars for the growth of every workforce (Gimmon & Levie, 2010).

Social learning is crucial for developing problem-solving difficulties relating to human capital and society. The process of social learning comprises learning and thinking group involvement and interaction, and social or institutional difficulties. In this process, people

Chapter Two : Literature Review

acquire methods of thinking about things and create some form of knowledge of the link between them and the organization. This supports the successful communication between businesses and people via knowledge exchange (Kilvington, 2007).

While learning is a continuous process that individuals acquire informally and indirectly throughout their lives, T&D is a deliberate process that focuses on altering and developing workers' knowledge, abilities, and attitudes to allow them to fulfill current and future company demands (Abdullah, 2009).

Garavan (1997) believes that training, development, and education are inextricably linked via learning. Buckley and Caple (2009) concur with Garavan (1997) in asserting that training, education, and planned and unplanned experience all contribute to learning and growth. Garavan (1997) distinguishes between training and education by defining training as an activity that enables individuals to accomplish short-term organizational objectives, while education is a long-term process that enables people to enhance their talents and skills. On a different level, learning is a continuous process that people engage in informally and indirectly throughout their lives; whereas, T&D is a deliberate process that focuses on modifying and improving employees' knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to enable them to meet their organizations' current and future needs (Abdullah, 2009).

Despite their distinctions, training and learning are inextricably linked. 'Education' refers to the general information imparted by schools, colleges, and universities (Harrison, 2005); 'learning' refers to what individuals gain via experience or own effort, not always through instructors. There is a link between learning and training from a behavioral standpoint. Training is a procedure that focuses on people's behavioral practices, while learning is concerned with obtaining information that relates to enhancing people's performance (Bray, 2006). As a result of the consideration of the link between learning and training, it can be concluded that learning drives individuals to seek training.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.4 Definition of Competencies

The management literature reveals a diversity of definitions of the composition of competence, competency, and competencies. For example, Cheng et al., (2003) reveal that “competence” relates to the field of work in which a person is seen to be competent, while “competency” signifies a capacity to accomplish a job. This definition claims that competence relates to a field of work while competency refers to the ability linked with performance.

"The capacity and desire to accomplish a task" is defined by Moore et al. (2002) as "competence." This definition indicates that a person must possess specific talents and the motivation to accomplish a job. However, this definition does not examine the consequence of applying such talents. Boytazis (1982, in Moore, et al., 2002) on the other hand, believes that competence refers to “an underlying trait of a person which results ineffective and/or better performance in a job”. Effective performance is clearly defined as the result of competence in this definition.

Abraham et al. (2001) describe competence as an “underlying quality of a person that is causally associated with criterion-referenced effective and/or exceptional performance in a job or situation”. Meyer (1996) defines competence as the “integration of knowledge, skill and value orientation, shown to a set standard in a given context”. According to Moore et al. (2002), a person's competence "becomes a collection of significant traits that underpin features of effective professional performance.

Hence, the word “competence” tends to be related to a certain setting or field of employment. The traits and characteristics demonstrated by a person to achieve successful performance concerning a set standard are also associated with "competency," it seems. When someone shows conduct that supports their competence in a particular professional field, they are said to be "exhibiting competency" (Moore et al., 2002).

According to Abraham et al. (2001), the plural of competence is competencies, which refers to "a spectrum of the qualities, behaviors, and attributes essential for effective work performance." Competencies may be described as "the abilities, knowledge, behaviors, and attitudes necessary to operate well in a position" (Brophy & Kiely, 2002).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Thus, competence "describes a characteristic of an individual's ability to execute their work efficiently" (Brophy & Kiely, 2002). Thus, an individual's competencies are defined as "behaviors that lead to" successful individual performance (Brophy & Kiely, 2002).

According to the preceding explanation, the term "competence" seems to refer to a specific field of work in which persons are seen to be knowledgeable and capable. Additionally, the words "competency" and "competencies" seem to relate to the attributes that are necessary to accomplish a job in an acceptable, effective, or outstanding way, depending on the context. This shows that the ideas of "competence," "competency," and "competencies" are all connected to the capacity to perform well in a given situation. Furthermore, the words "competency" and "competencies" seem to cover a wide range of aspects, such as individual abilities, knowledge, values, and attitudes, as well as collective skills and knowledge. As a result, the researcher advises that "competencies" be defined as the abilities, knowledge, and values that people need in order to function well for this research study. As defined by the National Institutes of Health, skills are task-related actions that may be "learned via learning and developed through practice" (Dale, 1998). Described by Katz (1955) as the expression of performance, the consequence of skill is defined as The behaviours of "doing" (Meyer, 1996) or completing a task are therefore associated with the concept of skill, which may be learned or improved. "Knowledge" may be described as "the information, theory, reasoning, or ideas" that people assimilate to better comprehend their surroundings (Meyer, 1996). Finally, values indicate the fundamental idea about a state that is of significant relevance and significance to persons, such as a disease.

Individuals' capacity and motivation to complete a job efficiently, as well as the degree of performance, seem to be influenced by these factors, according to research. In general, it seems that an individual's abilities and knowledge would be associated with the capacity to efficiently complete a task, whilst an individual's values may be associated with the desire to undertake the activity. Furthermore, values are thought to be related to the viewpoint or attitude that people have toward completing a job or doing a project.

The management literature seems to distinguish abilities depending on whether they are seen from an organizational or an individual viewpoint, respectively. Organizational competencies are discussed by Hagan (1996) and Prahalad & Hamel (1994), while individual

Chapter Two : Literature Review

competencies are discussed by Ruth (2006) and others. It is described as "processes, systems, and practices" that contribute to an organization's competitive advantage. For example, training techniques and technical procedures are considered organizational competencies (Murray, 2003).

Organizing competencies are perceived to represent the collective competencies found within an organization's human resources (Murray, 2003). These competencies include the "knowledge, skills, and capabilities embedded in the organization's structure and technology as well as processes and interpersonal relationships," as well as "knowledge, skills, and capabilities embedded in the organization structure and technology as well as processes and interpersonal relationships," according to Murray (Lado & Wilson, 1994). In this way, organizational competencies relate to a comprehensive, resource-based view of competencies in which the organization is seen "as a collection of capabilities" (Garavan & McGuire, 2001).

"Comprise of personal traits, talents, and behaviors that enable a person to execute a job function or task in a prescribed yet superior manner," according to the American Management Association, individual competencies include management competencies (Murray, 2003). Individual competencies represent the skills, knowledge, and values required by an individual to perform effectively, according to the definition of competencies presented earlier in the chapter and as previously stated. For the purposes of this research study, individual competencies represent the skills, knowledge, and values required by an individual to perform effectively.

It seems that organizational competencies and individual capabilities are intertwined (Murray, 2003). According to this relationship, individual abilities may be transformed across the company, resulting in the achievement of an advantage in a competitive environment (Murray, 2003). Learning routines, such as "training methods, performance appraisal reviews, motivation techniques, change programs, technological process," and learning subsystems (Murray, 2003) aid in facilitating the transformation of individual capabilities into organizational capabilities by enabling "a greater capacity to collect and disseminate knowledge" (Murray, 2003).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

The use of learning subsystems by organizations seems to be "as the foundation for developing desirable behavior" and, as a result, accomplishing the targeted change (Murray, 2003). To illustrate the "collection of abilities managers are supposed to learn," a management subsystem, for example, maybe implemented (Murray, 2003). It seems that the management abilities that have been established are then utilized to leverage staff competencies and, as a result, to improve organizational competencies. As a result, it seems that individual competencies contribute to the development of organizational competencies. Organizational competencies, which are defined as the skills, knowledge, and values that enable individuals to perform effectively daily, are seen to collectively result in the ability of the organization to achieve a competitive advantage, which in turn represents the depth of the organization's competencies.

2.4.1 The Purposes of Competencies

The primary goal of establishing skills is to establish the standards of conduct necessary by an organization for a person to successfully do the duties allocated to him or her. In addition, competencies may be expressed in the graduation criteria of academic institutions or in the cycles of training committed to preparing future experts for their respective jobs (Williams, 2003).

Several nations have begun implementing standard competencies to achieve long-term survival and global competitiveness by upgrading the skills of their workforce (Brady, 2002). Competencies that are clearly defined may assist a business in aligning its strategic growth with human resource planning via the use of different HR activities such as successful recruitment, training, coaching, and recognizing employees (Gonzales & Nelson, 2005). Competencies are a vital instrument in the planning of the workforce and succession. They are, at the very least, a means to;

- Identify capabilities, attitudes, and attributes needed to meet current and future staffing needs as organizational priorities and strategies shift.
- Focus employee development efforts on eliminating the gap between capabilities needed and those available.

With the use of competencies, we can create a framework for thinking about excellence, as well as a shared vocabulary for success (Wisher, 1994). Using competencies, employers may

Chapter Two : Literature Review

quickly evaluate if individuals are prepared to progress to higher levels of work-related performance, which people are ready to be promoted within the company, and which ones could transfer laterally to another functional area. (Cooper, 2000). If workers aren't ready, competencies may point them in the direction of the necessary education and training.

Brady (2002) discovered that competence standards were employed for the following goals in Australian research based on an interview survey of a small sample of project managers of curricular programs dealing with three sets of industry standards:

- ✓ To identify major content in the current curriculum that should be deleted.
- ✓ To identify content to be included; and/or.
- ✓ To estimate any gap between the level of attainment of units of competency achievable by college attendance and what had been specified in the standards.
- ✓ Competency studies provide a way of linking individual personnel to the organizational performance that is highly acceptable in a global business environment with highly competitive markets since they focus on excellence and are not tied to specific groups of people (Wisher, 1994), Sacht summarized purposes for the use of competencies as seen below:
 - ✓ Competency data are used for employee development, pay, promotion, and training decisions.
 - ✓ Competencies are used most often for determining salary increases.
 - ✓ Competencies are factored into annual salary adjustments.
 - ✓ Competencies are used with other factors in job evaluation.
 - ✓ Competencies drive structure, position, and movement.
 - ✓ Competency-based compensation tends to be the last application to be developed.

Sacht (2002) continued by stating that competencies were included as a "critical component of the proposed performance management system" because they are "the only common denominator that can be employed consistently across human resource systems."

Shippmann et al. (2000) reviewed competence modeling methodologies and determined that competency modeling provided more direct information about corporate objectives and

Chapter Two : Literature Review

strategies than other approaches. Additionally, they discovered that skills may be a more acceptable way to describe effective leadership behaviors.

In summary, it seems as though competencies are having a significant impact on the evolution of the training and development profession (Brady, 2002). Additionally, it has been claimed that competencies are employed in four main areas within human resource processes: recruiting, performance assessment, individual growth, and organizational development.

2.4.2 Benefits and Limitations of Using Competencies

To sustain high-performing businesses, high-performing workers must overcome difficult obstacles posed by fast technological development and severe competition (Vestal, 2005). According to Moinat (2003), many firms have determined that improving human resources is critical to sustaining a competitive edge in a fast-changing business environment, typically via the use of competence modeling. Additionally, she said, "Competency models may assist organizations in ensuring their survival, productivity, and competitiveness."

According to Zwell (2000), one of the advantages of employing competencies is that the ideas are easily understood by the majority of individuals. Not only are the terminologies simple to comprehend, but they also have a usually pleasant meaning. The discipline of competence modeling has grown in popularity across a variety of industries due to the models' ability to accurately explain the precise competencies – skills, knowledge, and abilities – required of employees in certain workplaces to do their jobs successfully. Additionally, competence models are appreciated because they offer a uniform framework for integrating human capital management systems and they assist employees in aligning their activities with the organization's shared strategic objectives (Moinat, 2003).

Employees' declining job security has necessitated more responsibility for their careers in recent decades, which means they demand a thorough understanding of their professional capabilities and the prospects for preserving or increasing them (Klink & Boon, 2002). The following are some of the advantages of employing a competency model:

- ✓ Improved productivity stems from the identification of key competencies that drive the organization.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

- ✓ Clear linkages of competencies with performance evaluations.
- ✓ Enhanced training effectiveness by focusing on the right skills at the right times.
- ✓ Improved retention of qualified people through increased developmental opportunities and more flexible work design.
- ✓ Better promotion selection and reduced perception of unfairness.
- ✓ Greater employee support and trust for an integrated human resource management system that delivers the same messages and reinforces the same values.
- ✓ Valid and reliable competency models can produce some positive outcomes, particularly in the HRM area. Cooper (2000) indicated several benefits:
- ✓ Directly linking individual competencies to organizational strategies and goals.
- ✓ Developing competencies profiles for specific positions or roles, matching the correct individuals to task sets and responsibilities.
- ✓ Enabling continual monitoring and refinement of competency profiles.
- ✓ Facilitating employee selection, evaluation, training, and development.
- ✓ Assisting employers in hiring individuals with rare or unique competencies that are difficult and costly to develop.
- ✓ Assisting organizations in ranking competencies for compensation and performance management.

Numerous firms are on the lookout for a critical tool that will connect people, job performance, and strategy. The competence model may be that tool. Competencies are characterized as observable and quantifiable collections of abilities, knowledge, and behaviors. Thus, by using a sound, relevant competence model, a business can "consistently group skills for recruiting, training, performance management, development, and selection."

2.4.3 Key Elements of Competences

Boyatzis (1982) defines competencies as "a fundamental attribute of an individual in that it may be a motivation, trait, skill, part of one's self-image or social function, or a body of information that he/she employs." Woodruffe defines competencies somewhat differently, dividing them into those that are directly tied to a work role: skills, knowledge, and abilities, and those that must be brought to the job to accomplish it effectively: behaviors (Woodruffe, 1993).

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Woodruffe, therefore, considers competencies as an amalgamation of knowledge, skills, and talents on the one hand and behaviors on the other. These basic pieces will now be identified and where required, studied in further depth.

Knowledge

The Compact Oxford English Dictionary defines knowledge as "the fact of understanding a thing, condition, etc...; familiarity obtained through experience" (Simpson, 1989). Yates (2010) uses the Webster's Dictionary definition of knowledge in his analysis of engineering skills versus knowledge. Webster's Dictionary defines knowledge as a "clear and certain perception of something; an act, factor, state of knowledge, and understanding" and as "learning, all that has been perceived or grasped by the mind."

Skills

Yates (2010) defines skills as a "significant talent or competency" and skillful as "having or needing an ability earned via unique experience or a regular training or apprenticeship program."

Boyatzis (1982) makes a distinction between knowledge and skills, describing skills as "the capacity to exhibit a system and sequence of behaviors that are functionally relevant to achieving a performance objective." Boyatzis uses the term 'planning' to describe competence.

Abilities

Mr. Fleishman (1967) contrasts abilities and skills, characterizing abilities as "very stable attributes that are more difficult to modify as an adult." He continues by stating that talents are partly inherited and partly acquired throughout infancy. On the other hand, he defines skills as "the degree of competency in doing a certain activity" and goes on to explain that they are task-oriented and hence can be learned.

Behaviors

Woodruffe (1993) differentiates between skills, knowledge, abilities, and behaviors, defining the latter as "a collection of behavioral patterns that an incumbent must bring to a job in order to fulfill its duties and functions competently." He refers to them as competencies, plural of competency, but also as behavioral competencies. The term behavioral is critical since it establishes the nature of what he is discussing. Additionally, it is worth noting that some

Chapter Two : Literature Review

researchers purposefully use the term "competencies" when referring to such behavioral qualities. Kurz and Bartram (2002) describe competencies as "a collection of actions necessary for the achievement of desired objectives or outcomes."

2.4.4 Characteristics of Competence

While the words 'collectiveness' and 'uniqueness' are widely accepted, a survey of the literature indicates that the substance of competence traits is not well defined. By studying some of the most significant publications in the field, such as Prahalad & Hamel (1994), Barney (1991), Grant (1991), and Teece et al. (1997), the remainder of this section identifies and presents some of the most often referenced aspects of the competence systematically.

Collectiveness

Competencies define the synergy between a firm's many business operations. Numerous scholars have emphasized that it is the 'collectiveness' of a firm's expertise that makes it "universally" beneficial in the context of a company (e.g., Prahalad and Hamel, 1990; Grant, 1991). It often helps a business to enter a new market niche or produce new items. According to the author, three criteria may be utilized to describe the 'collectiveness' of competencies: cross-product, cross-function, and cross-business.

Across-product

Competencies should not be seen as "isolated," special-purpose competencies, but as the foundation for various product lines (Bakker et al., 1994). They should be capable of delivering a varied range of product families and services, hence adding value to the organization via the integration of disparate assets and capabilities. For example, as the combination of optical and microelectronic skills and expertise, Canon's research and development competence underpin the company's performance across a range of product families, from laser copiers to X-ray equipment (Goold et al., 1997). Other examples include manufacturing process technology and competence in product design.

Across-function

Competencies should be established via coordinated efforts from numerous teams or organizations within a complete business function. Competence may be regarded as the arsenal of capacity networks of a function (Grant, 1991). Its presence is important to the perfection of

Chapter Two : Literature Review

functional functioning. For example, Black and Decker's design capability of compact motors is established by the cooperative efforts of its technical researchers and product development engineers and its presence makes the company's R & D function unique among its rival businesses.

Across-business

Very frequently, a skill is an integral aspect of the business process that crosses horizontally across the functional divisions of the corporation. It may be considered as part of the identity of the company. Prahalad and Hamel's "core competency concept" has notably stressed the necessity of cross-business capabilities for a multi-business firm.

Many writers consider that such skills are incredibly important for the business to seek better integration choices across Strategic Business Units (SBUs) (Teece et al., 1997; Goddard, 1997).

Uniqueness

A distinctive capacity might become an "isolating mechanism" that can prevent rivals to lose the competitive advantage produced by the capability (Reed & DeFillippi, 1990). (Reed & DeFillippi, 1990). To render "unique", a capacity should demonstrate at least one of the three traits namely, scarce in the marketplace, less imitable by rivals, and difficult-to-be replaced (Wright et al., 1994; Prahalad & Hamel, 1994; Barney, 1991). (Wright et al., 1994; Prahalad & Hamel, 1994; Barney, 1991). Many writers consider that such skills are incredibly important for the business to seek better integration choices across Strategic Business Units (SBUs) (Teece et al., 1997; Goddard, 1997).

Rare in Marketplace

If one or more critical capabilities are uncommon in competition, a business might have a competitive advantage by developing a value-creating strategy based upon the capabilities. For example, Sony's competence in miniaturization is unique in the worldwide electronics markets and, thus, has allowed the corporation to keep its competitive edge in the market for a long period (Hamel, 1994). Being "rare" doesn't always indicate that a given capacity is owned solely by a single competing business.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Inimitability

Inimitability is the degree to which a firm's resources or competencies cannot be reproduced by its rivals (J. Barney, 1991). If a resource or capacity is difficult to be replicated, then it is likely to have some added value in competition. The more inimitable a resource or skill is, the more probable it would preserve its dominance. Inimitability frequently arises from 'imperfect' knowledge. If rivals have inadequate or unclear knowledge about a given skill, then it is probable that the capability can preserve its exclusivity for a period. For example, Wal-Mart's logistic competence is integrated with a complicated process that harmonizes an array of technologies (e.g., satellite communication, computerized order system, etc.). (e.g., satellite communication, electronic order system, etc.). Its primary opponent, K-Mart, has the capacity to obtain these tools. However, as the competence is generated through cross-functional activities and unseen to outsiders, K-Mart is still unable to mimic the logistical capability of Wal-Mart (Stalk et al., 1992).

Non-substitutability

A capability's value is also jeopardized by substitution. Substitutes, as Dierickx and Cool (1989) pointed out, imply that a company's capacity to provide consumers with differentiated value is no longer viable. Substitution may happen in different ways, such as technical advancement, material change, process revolution, and methodological improvement.

For example, when Canon challenged Xerox's dominating position in the low to medium volume copier market, Xerox's enormous service network proved a tough hurdle to overcome. Canon, on the other hand, was able to provide high-quality items at a lower service rate by improving its product design capabilities. Xerox's service network became antiquated, and customers' value was lost as a result (Hamel, 1994).

2.4.5 Using Competencies in Organizational Contexts

Numerous firms have used competencies for several years to perform different human resource responsibilities such as people management, training, and development. Employers, on the other hand, are increasingly building competence frameworks, a comprehensive list of the capabilities used inside a company, to organize and integrate a range of human resource tasks. Although competencies are primarily used in human resource practices such as

Chapter Two : Literature Review

recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, identifying training needs, developing personal and career development plans, and training and development, they are also used in other areas such as higher education and general management facilitate evaluation.

Competency development is a rapidly developing subject of interest among administrative management in enterprises and government organizations worldwide, because competencies may be a strong decision-making tool (B. B. Stone, 1997). Competencies are used across a variety of human resource (HR) tasks. For instance, managers may simply conduct interviews and hire employees using a competency-based approach to identify whether a person has the knowledge and abilities necessary to do their work effectively in the future and exhibits the potential to become an excellent employee (B. B. Stone, 1997). Generally, competence models are significantly used in performance management, pay, development, employee performance evaluation (i.e., to improve weak areas), and training (R. Lee, 1996). Competency-based human resource practices may assist a company in accomplishing its objectives and improving performance.

Cappelli & Crocker-Heftler (1996) used two pair firms as examples of how good business practices may explain and sustain competitiveness within an industry. They underlined the importance of people management techniques as drivers of company success. They considered "core competencies" as the "springboard for attempts to develop differentiated capabilities and, therefore, business strategies."

They said that firms that react swiftly to "seize new possibilities" compete "by being adaptable" and "do not build personnel capabilities internally." Additionally, they said that corporations rely on the "external market to acquire new competencies, on individuality to sustain success, and on the external market to shed old capabilities."

More and more businesses are using competency-based interviewing to ensure they get the best individual for the position (R. Lee, 1996). According to Lee (1996), many businesses struggle with restricted promotion opportunities and planned attrition, as well as the expensive expense of new employee recruiting, making it vital to hire the right individuals the first time. Custard (2012) discovered that competency-based interviewing was centered on identifying capabilities and leveraging the interview process to elicit detailed information about candidates in an approach used by the Bonneville Power Administration. Additionally, she discovered that

Chapter Two : Literature Review

competency-based interviewing highlighted the applicant's lifelong learning and skill development. Competency-based performance management systems can assist an organization in ensuring that the "correct person is assigned to the correct job." Another technique to use the skill in business management is to connect it to the organization's strategy.

2.4.6 Relationship Between Competencies and Human Resource Development

The usage of competencies is no longer a fresh notion among HRD practitioners. Many businesses have been involved in recent years in defining competence standards to underlie their human resource development systems (H. Donovan & Whitehouse, 1998). Training and organizational transformation (development) are the key aims of competence utilization in the HR industry. Competencies may be utilized to better understand the abilities, knowledge, experience, and education levels required to properly do a job (Jothan & Kunin, 2004).

Competencies may be utilized to support transformation in Human Resources Development methods. There is an understanding that the role of HRD is evolving from a concentration on rules to a focus on outcomes, to assist promote this paradigm change, a range of organizations, both public and commercial, are recognizing new skills. For example, competencies-based training is being successfully utilized as a strategy to refocus the business on what is essential and what it takes for the workforce to be successful (Mulcahy, 2000).

Competency-based training and development tools provide an emphasis on training requirements analysis, curriculum building, executive coaching, and team or career development. The International Board of Standards for Training, Performance, and Instruction indicated that training departments might benefit from the competencies, behaviors, and criteria produced throughout their study (Dean, 1990). Brown (2003), on the other hand, notes that "rigorous human resource planning and static or out-of-date usage of competencies might act as impediments to successful management growth in a work-based system."

Additionally, competencies are crucial to the effectiveness of training and development because they may help explain required job abilities, concentrate training programs on gaps in the workforce, and provide a foundation for coaching and feedback (Richey et al., 2001). To assist managers in developing and growing into effective behaviors, the learning centers

Chapter Two : Literature Review

developed leadership teaching tools. We created organizational-wide learning criteria of excellence (R. Lee, 1996).

Numerous more human resource development competency-related studies have been done over the past three decades to ascertain the responsibilities, competencies, and actions of practitioners in the area of training and development. While the conclusions and results of these studies differ in terms of technique, sample size, and study aims, they have contributed to a uniform definition of the human resource development discipline, as well as the responsibilities and capabilities of human resource development practitioners (Yoo, 1999). Several significant studies that have had a significant impact on the human resource development profession are discussed below, with a particular emphasis on two points:

(1) how to measure important competencies and (2) what they found. As mentioned in the previous chapter, HRD has gained increasing importance in changing work organizations.

Numerous research on human resource development roles and skills have been undertaken in the United States, Europe, and Asia. McLagan (1989) asserts that "human resource development may be the sole function that is clearly positioned to reflect human ethics and morals." McLagan (1989) proposed nine roles for current human resource development professionals to fill in order to address human resource issues: HR strategic advisor, HR systems designer and developer, organization change consultant, organization design consultant, learning program specialist, instructor/facilitator, individual development and career consultant, performance consultant, and researcher. The literature often classified human resource development skills into four subgroups: technical competencies, business competencies, interpersonal competencies, and intellectual competencies (McLagan, 1989).

2.5 The History of Employee Engagement

The article "Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work," published in the Academy of Management Journal in 1990, was the first to discuss employee engagement. Kahn's (1990) conceptual work was the first to offer a framework for the theoretical development of employee engagement. It took another decade before other academics began to accept Kahn's theoretical theories, despite the fact that most of today's research cites his work as the theoretical foundation for employee engagement (Welbourne and Schlachter, 2014).

Nel & Linde (2019) suggests that the reason for the delay is due to the gradual changes in the world of work and the emergence of the positive psychology movement that has gained significant momentum since the 1990s.

Conceptually, Kahn started with the work of Goffman (1959), *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*, who stated that people's attachment and detachment to their position vary based on a person's interactions during short, face-to-face contact. It was from this place of connection and separation that Kahn (1990) began his work on defining the self concerning individuals. Although Kahn (1990) agreed with Goffman (1959), he indicated that a fresh viewpoint was required to comprehend participation in an organizational environment. "Employees act out momentary attachment and detachment in role performance at work," according to Kahn (1990). This is a nod to Goffman's (1959) interactionist theory, but it is specific to the workplace (Schuck and Wollard, 2013).

Several disciplines were researched by Kahn (1990) to learn more about the varying degrees of attachment people have to their positions. He discovered that people are reluctant to join a continuing organization or system, and as a result, naturally tend to shift away from and toward participation.

As a consequence, people strive to shield themselves from both isolation and engulfment by alternating drawing away from and advancing towards their membership. Kahn (1990)

Chapter Two : Literature Review

claimed that the connection and detachment of individuals represent people's calibration of self-in-role.

Personal involvement and disengagement are terms used by Kahn (1990) to describe these self-calibrations in roles. By this, we mean the way individuals bring or exclude aspects of themselves from the part they play at work.

Kahn's (1990) quest for understanding the self-in-role process and the roles people occupy at work led to Kahn's (1990) creation of the term "engagement".

Intending to make employee engagement more understandable to its members, the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM) commissioned a paper on the subject in 2006. (Shuck and Wollard 2009). However, while the book touched on essential themes of employee engagement, Shuck and Wollard (2009) found it lacking in clarity and conciseness and lacked an overall definition of employee engagement. However, according to Shuck and Wollard (2009), the release was significant since it heralded the entry of professional organizations into the discourse around employee engagement.

Two years following the SHRM survey, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) commissioned a study in partnership with Dale Carnegie Training to examine employee engagement further (Shuck and Wollard 2009). (Shuck and Wollard 2009). This study focuses on the role of learning in the employee engagement construct, representing the first substantial investigation into the construct from a training viewpoint (Shuck and Wollard 2009). ASTD defined engagement as "employees who are cognitively and emotionally committed in their job and in contributing to their employer's success" (Shuck and Wollard 2009). The findings of the research demonstrated a nexus with the "foundational work of Kahn (1990) and Maslach et al. (2001) by establishing meaningful work settings, giving chances for learning, and concentrating on the experience of the employee" (Shuck and Wollard 2009). (Shuck and Wollard 2009).

2.5.1 Employee Engagement

Employee engagement has gotten a considerable lot of attention in the previous five years, notably in the popular press and among consultancy companies. It has long been promoted as

Chapter Two : Literature Review

the key to an organization's success and competitiveness. Indeed, Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) suggest that engagement is “essential” for modern firms given the multiple obstacles they confront and Macey et al. (2011) contend that organizations may achieve a competitive edge via employee engagement.

Numerous authors have sung the praises of engagement as a fundamental driver of human attitudes, behavior, and performance as well as organizational performance, productivity, retention, financial success, and even shareholder return (Richman, 2006).

Given the significance of employee engagement to organizations, paired with the rising disengagement among workers today, a crucial problem is how to enhance the engagement of employees. As observed by May et al (2004), “Engagement is vital for managers to nurture given that disengagement, or alienation, is key to the issue of employees' lack of commitment and motivation”.

Macey & Schneider (2008) remark that there are different definitions of the term, but that they all agree that employee engagement is desirable, has an organizational goal and has both psychological and behavioral components in that it entails energy, excitement, and concentrated work.

Harter et al. (2002) describe employee engagement as “the individual's participation and contentment with as well as excitement for work”.

Burnout is the polar opposite of engagement, according to Leiter and Maslach (1998). “An energetic feeling of participation with personally rewarding tasks that enhances a staff member's sense of professional effectiveness” (Leiter & Maslach, 1998) is what they call “engagement,” and it includes “energy,” “involvement,” and “efficacy” as components (Leiter & Maslach, 1998).

Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) likewise consider engagement as the conceptual opposite of burnout but view these conceptions as distinct states with dissimilar structures that must be tested with different tools. They consider engagement as “a positive gratifying, work-related state of mind that is marked by energy, devotion, and absorption”.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

This is akin to the concept of "flow" coined by Csikszentmihalyi in the 1990s, as noted by Schaufeli and Salanova (2007).

Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) believe that engaged workers are energetically and successfully linked to their job. This might arise via the investment of one's "self" in job tasks. Through his study on personal involvement, Kahn (1990) claimed that engagement entails "the harnessing of organizational members' identities to their work roles; in engagement, individuals utilize and express themselves physically, intellectually, and emotionally during role performances".

Contrary to this, disengagement occurs when individuals in an organization remove their identities from their job positions. The act of withdrawing and defending oneself from one's role by using one's own body, mind, or emotions is known as disengagement (Kahn, 1990).

Personal engagement, according to Kahn (1990), is the simultaneous use and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full-role performances (personal, social, and political) (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

2.5.2 Employee Engagement as a Unique Construct

According to some researchers, engagement is comparable to work-related constructs such as motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment; however, other researchers believe it is a distinct concept that can be distinguished from behavioral intentions and actual behavior and reflects an employee's commitment to an organization and its goals (Macey and Schneider, 2008).

According to Nel & Linde (2019), the concept of engagement does not overlap with other concepts to the point of being identical.

Engagement is a true and distinct psychological state that a person may encounter at work (Nel & Linde, 2019). According to Rich et al. (2010), all of these conceptions have an emotional, cognitive, and purposeful component, resulting in their natural overlap.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.5.3 Enhancing Employee Engagement

Numerous models and ideas have been established in the literature to help organizations improve employee engagement. For instance, Kahn (1990) hypothesized, based on his ethnographic research, that three psychological variables function as precursors of personal engagement:

- Psychological meaningfulness.
- psychological safety.
- psychological availability.

Psychological meaningfulness relates to an individual's view about the significance of bringing oneself to a role performance. It is related to incentives to participate and the feeling of a return on one's "self-in-role" investment.

Psychological significance is reached when individuals feel important, useful, and significant. Kahn (1990) discovered three elements influencing meaningfulness: job characteristics, role characteristics, and work relationships.

Psychological safety refers to an individual's impression of how risk-free it is to bring his or her self to a role performance without fear of compromising one's self-image, position, or profession. It is related to stable, predictable social contexts that provide clear limits for acceptable behavior and encourage individuals to take risks with self-expression. Kahn (1990) discovered that interpersonal interactions, group, and intergroup dynamics, management style, and norms all had an effect on psychological safety.

Psychological availability refers to an individual's impression of how readily accessible they are to assume a job. It is related to the physical, emotional, and psychological resources that actors may bring to their roles. Kahn (1990) proposed that four distractions impacted psychological availability: physical exhaustion, emotional exhaustion, insecurity, and outside lifestyles.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

2.5.4 Human Resources Management and Employee Engagement

There are two streams of research that have investigated the relationship between HRM and employee engagement.

To begin, several studies have examined the link between individual human resource management strategies and employee engagement. Conway et al. (2016), for example, examined the effects of performance management and employee voice on staff engagement and emotional tiredness in a major public sector firm in Ireland. They discovered that performance management had a positive correlation with emotional weariness but a negative correlation with employee engagement, while employee voice had a negative correlation with emotional exhaustion but a positive correlation with employee engagement.

Additionally, employee voice regulated the link between performance management, emotional weariness, and engagement, resulting in better relationships when employee voice was low. The performance management results were influenced in part by the fact that performance management activities in the public sector are often top-down and focused on measurement, monitoring, and control rather than development. Thus, performance management was seen as a demand rather than a resource in this research.

Bal and De Lange (2015) examined the role of flexibility in human resource management (the ability of employees to choose when, where, and for how long they work) on employee engagement and job performance. They discovered that the availability of flexible human resource management, but not its utilization, was positively associated with employee engagement and job performance. Furthermore, engagement moderated the association between the availability of flexible human resource management and work performance. There was also some evidence for a moderating influence of age, with the link between the usage and availability of flexible human resource management being more strongly associated with engagement for younger employees.

Masuda et al. (2017) examined the relationship between employee engagement and telecommuting. They discovered that telecommuting availability was both, directly and indirectly, related to employee engagement via perceived supervisor goal support and progress

Chapter Two : Literature Review

on goals. Employees who worked in firms that allowed for telecommuting were more engaged than those who did not.

Aktar & Pangi (2017) investigated the association between employee engagement and three human resource management techniques (career development, job security, and performance feedback). They discovered that all three activities were positively associated with employee engagement, with perceived organizational support acting as a moderator (POS). When POS was high, the three human resource management techniques were more strongly associated with employee engagement. Second, some studies have examined the link between human resource management systems or "bundles" of human resource management practices and employee engagement.

Boon & Kalshoven (2014) examined high-commitment human resource management methods and employee engagement. High-commitment human resource management strategies emphasize the importance of developing a long-term connection with workers and include human resource policies such as job stability, internal promotion, constant training, generous benefits, and career development. They contended that high-commitment human resource management equips workers with organizational resources that boost employee engagement.

As expected, they discovered a positive correlation between employee perceptions of high-commitment human resource management practices and employee engagement, and that employee engagement mediated the relationship between high-commitment human resource management and organizational commitment. These associations were particularly significant for individuals who performed poorly on tasks.

Finally, several researchers have examined the significance of human resource attributions in the link between human resource management techniques and employee engagement. For example, Alfes et al. (2021) discovered that HPWS was positively associated with both human resource well-being and human resource performance attributions and that both attributions moderated the association between HPWS and employee engagement. Guest et al. (2021) discovered a positive correlation between high-commitment human resource practices and employee engagement, which was mediated by workers' HR attributions. High-commitment human resource practices were shown to be favorably associated with employee

Chapter Two : Literature Review

commitment attributions, which in turn were found to be positively associated with employee engagement.

2.5.5 Employee Engagement and Training

As MURPHY and DeNISI (2008) observe, the majority of performance management interventions are meant to inspire people to improve their performance. However, sometimes performance issues are more about ability than drive. In certain instances, training may be the answer. As Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) indicate, one way to keep workers interested is to enable them to grow throughout their careers.

In light of Kahn's (1990) psychological circumstances, training is particularly important for giving workers the resources necessary to fully participate in their responsibilities (e.g., the knowledge and skills necessary to accomplish one's job duties).

Additionally, training may help individuals feel more confident in their ability to execute their job, reducing worry and enhancing sentiments of availability.

Training may contribute significantly to the development of the constructs that make up Psychological Capital. Individuals are more available when they feel safe, as Kahn (1990) describes, and self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience are all significant elements of security. Training may be used to develop all of the PsyCap variables.

Luthans et al. (2008) recently revealed that a two-hour web-based training intervention was effective for increasing PsyCap in a cross-section of working people. According to Schaufeli and Salanova (2007), increasing employee engagement may be accomplished by providing workers with training that includes examples of occupational success, encouragement, and a reduction in fear of failure.

While Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) argue that creating self-efficacy is critical to encouraging engagement via training, we argue that the kind of training experiences that create self-efficacy will nurture all of the PsyCap components and result in increased levels of engagement.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

Additionally, training programs may be an invaluable resource for preparing personnel to meet job objectives. According to Kahn (1990), persons are more prepared and accessible to participate in their jobs when they can deal with a variety of pressures and are capable of engaging in coping techniques (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

3 Chapter three

Research Design and Methodology

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

This chapter on research methodology took a look at the research design and approach, target population, sampling technique, sampling size, data sources, data collection instruments, data analysis techniques, validity test, and ethical consideration issues were briefly presented.

This study uses a questionnaire survey to explore the direct effect of training strategy in selected small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Sidi Bel Abbes province in Algeria. This chapter first debates the research philosophy, strategies adopted, and the research purpose. The second section describes data collection methods, primarily the questionnaire. Section three presents the qualitative method used. The final section considers the ethical issues involved in conducting this project and the methods of data analysis.

3.1 SMEs definition

3.1.1 Case Study of AZZOUZ Mills

I/ Presentation of the AZZOUZ Mills company

A/ Historical background

Created in 1997, in the form of a joint-stock company (SPA), AZZOUZ Mills became AZZOUZ Group by the creation in 2004 of a subsidiary company for the production and marketing of mineral water and soft drinks located in the city of Saïda in the form of a limited liability company (SARL) called “Azzouz Eaux Minérales et Boissons Gazeuses “(SARL AEMBG) with the acronym SFID for mineral water. However, our study is limited to the Azzouz mills, given their economic importance in the national food industry.

B/ Identification

Registered name: SPA LES MOULINS AZZOUZ Address: Industrial Zone in Sidi-Bel-Abbes CEO: Mr. AZZOUZ ABDELKADER

Share capital: DA 40,000,000

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Workforce: The company employs 227 people (08 managers, 72 supervisors, and 147 workers) on the four production lines.

C/ Sector of activity

As its name indicates, the AZZOUZ Mills company is active in the agri-food industry, whose main activity is the production and marketing of flour, semolina, pasta, couscous, and livestock feed. With a current production capacity that is distributed as follows:

- 120 T/day of flour
- 750 Qx/day of semolina
- 2100 Kg/ h of pasta
- 1200 Kg/h of couscous
- 100 Qx/h of feed.

The company achieved a turnover of 35 MDA in 2012, which represents a significant share of the cereal industry market. In Algeria, this market is essentially dominated by two sectors, namely:

- **Flour milling**, i.e. the production of soft wheat flour from soft wheat grains. It is grown to make flour used for bread. The average consumption of semolina is 52% per capita.

- **Semolina and pasta:** For durum wheat semolina and flour are the products obtained from durum wheat by milling processes. Three types of semolina are produced:

- S.E. semolina: called extra semolina, its particles are fine. This semolina is used to make industrial pasta.

- S.G.M. semolina: called medium semolina, it is sold as-is for household use (couscous, galettes, etc.) and the manufacture of medium industrial couscous.

- S.G. semolina: also called coarse semolina. It is used to make couscous.

- **Pasta:** Per capita consumption of this foodstuff is 3 kg/year, which is relatively low compared to the consumption of semolina. The main varieties produced are long pasta, which accounts for about 20% of production, short pasta, which accounts for about 45% of production, and soup pasta, which accounts for about 35% of total production.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

3.1.2 Case study of CHIALI-Tubes subsidiary

I/ Presentation of the CHIALI group

A/ History, mission, and areas of activity

From a family business founded in 1981 by its current president Mr. CHIALI AHMED, the CHIALI Group was created with the ambition to become a leader in different fields of activity:

- The manufacture and supply of thermoplastic fittings and pipes in PE and PVC;
- The supply of pumping equipment for various applications is underway;
- Engineering and implementation of projects in irrigation, hydraulics, environment, and landscaping;

- The manufacture and supply of PVC joinery and false ceilings.

The CHIALI group, based in Sidi-Bel-Abbes, has the following subsidiaries

- CHIALI Tubes,
- CHIALI Profiplast,
- CHIALI Services,
- CHIALI Pumps.

The CHIALI Group's subsidiaries have modern production facilities in:

❖ Sidi-Bel-Abbes

- PE pipe production plant,
- PVC pipe production plant.

❖ Setif:

- PE & PVC pipe production plant
- Production plant for PVC joinery, PVC false ceilings, and their profiles.

Our choice of study focused on the CHIALI tubes subsidiary where the group "s head office is located (formerly STPM CHIALI). The mission of this subsidiary is the production and marketing of pipes and accessories:

- Water and gas distribution,
- Drainage, sanitation, and drinking water supply,
- Hydraulic equipment (pumps, valves, etc.).

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

- Irrigation (drip, sprinkler)

B/ Organizational context

According to the hierarchical organization chart, the company 's administration comprises five (05) directorates. The general management coordinates the activities of all the company 's structures and ensures the execution of decisions to carry out the company 's missions. The planning and scheduling department is responsible for determining the objectives and priorities of the production process. The finance and accounting department is responsible for bookkeeping and financial operations. The quality management department monitors the continuous improvement of the company 's quality management system in terms of products, processes, and activities. The general personnel administration department comprises the human resources department and the social department. Payroll management, personnel management, training, and career management of human resources are the responsibility of the human resources department, while social management in terms of illnesses and accidents at work is the responsibility of the social department. The maintenance and utility department is responsible for the preventive and corrective maintenance of the company 's equipment and installations.

2.2 / CHIALI-Tubes human resources management

The analysis of CHIALI-Tubes' human resources includes recruitment policy and training.

b. 1/ Recruitment policy:

Due to the growth of the CHIALI group with investments in other activities related to the core business in recent years, the company CHIALI-Tubes follows a broad recruitment policy. In 2008 alone, the number of people recruited reached 24 (annual growth in the workforce of around 7 to 8%). However, from 2009 onwards the number of recruits fell and the trend continued to decline until 2010, mainly affecting the category of performers, giving way to a slight increase in the recruitment of managers. This variation shows the interest of CHIALI-tubes in having a young and well-trained staff. The recruitment process is based on an interview which takes place in two stages:

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

1- Personality and competence: which will focus on the identification of certain character traits such as self-confidence, adherence to the company 's values, in addition to managerial and technical skills acquired through experience in the field.

2- Analysis and recommendation: this is the analysis of the data collected on the candidate during the interview as well as his or her qualifications in order to determine the assets the candidate has to obtain the position to be filled, or on the contrary, the limitations that could hinder his or her mission, or even his or her need for training in a given field, in order to finally decide to accept or refuse the application.

We consider that the recruitment process thus put in place is more or less reliable, given that CHIALI-Tubes has achieved a turnover rate of over 0%.

b.2/ Training policy

The company CHIALI-Tubes attaches great importance to the training of its staff, particularly new employees, in an action aimed at the continuous improvement of the qualifications and skills it has at its disposal, and it is in this sense that the company is developing relations with several national and foreign training organizations. In 2009, the training budget reached 6,123 KDA for a payroll of 173,621 KDA, which represents a significant rate of 3.26% compared to 2008 when the budget did not exceed 1,342 KDA. This evolution is mainly due to the pressure of national and foreign competition.

3.1.3 Case study of FAMAG (manufacture of agricultural equipment)

I/ Presentation of the FAMAG company

A/ Historical background

FAMAG is a private company created on September 22, 1996, with the objective of perpetuating the agricultural equipment manufacturing business in Algeria and becoming the leader in agricultural machinery in the Maghreb. The main managers of FAMAG are former executives of the agricultural machinery sector.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

B/ Identification

- **Company name:** FAMAG (Manufacture of agricultural equipment).
- **Legal form:** SARL (limited liability company).
- **Share capital:** DA 400,000,000
- **Address:** Head office and production unit: Industrial Zone Sidi-Bel-Abbes,
- **Surface area:** 40,000 m² of which 14,000 m² is covered.
- **Workforce:** The company employs 252 direct employees at the production site and 262 indirectly at the level of the 36 distributors constituting FAMAG 's commercial network throughout the country.

C/ Areas of activity and production range

In 1998, FAMAG started the production of a local manufacturing line of 4, 5, 6, and 7 Tons trailers, with a production capacity of 2000 units/year and by the team. The company also has a production line for agricultural equipment: disc plows mounted and trailed cover crops, cultivators, and stubble cultivators, with a capacity of 2000 units/year.

In June 2005 FAMAG signed an exclusive contract with its Indian partner SONALIKA for the commercialization of its tractors and combination on the Algerian market. The current capacity of FAMAG 's tractor assembly line is 24 units/day per shift, i.e. 6000 tractors per year. More than 10,000 tractors with power ratings of 20, 30, 45, 60, 75, and 90 HP in two and four drives were put on the Algerian market by the end of August 2013. However, 120 and 140 HP tractors are planned to be available from January 2014. All tractors are purchased in SKD4 and assembled in Sidi-Bel-Abbes. FAMAG plans to increase its integration rate to 36% in 2015 by manufacturing all parts and components except for engine parts and drive trains.

SKD (Semi Knocked Down) is a logistical supply method for equipment assembly plants. This principle is based on greater local integration. The parts for the assembly of tractors or machinery are partly imported in their raw state and then processed and marketed locally. This is in contrast to the "Completely Knocked Down" CKD mode, which corresponds to the creation of a batch containing all the spare parts required for assembly.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

For combine harvesters, FAMAG has just signed a contract with its partner for the manufacture of combine harvesters in Sidi-Bel-Abbes. The minimum integration rate will be 36% over three years. The two parties have agreed to integrate all sheet metal parts, batteries, electrical wiring, welding, painting, and assembly. The partner has undertaken to supply the rest of the parts and components to FAMAG.

3.1.4 Case study of the FROMALAIT company (dairy production)

I/ Presentation of the FROMALAIT company

A/ Preamble

FROMALAIT SARL was created in October 2002 and is a subsidiary of the GEBTO Group. This group is made up of several limited companies with different activities:

- Building works
- FROMALAIT
- Sidi-Ali Benyoub spring water
- Calcium Carbonate Quarry
- Aluminum profile.

Our empirical study is limited to FROMALAIT SARL, which is active in the agri-food industry and especially in milk production.

B/ Identification

- Name: SARL FROMALAIT.
- Manager: TOUNSI
- Share capital: 40 MDA

C/ Sector of activity

This company is active in the processing, packaging, and marketing of milk and milk products: such as pasteurized milk, fermented milk, raw cow's milk, and butter. The company has a production capacity of approximately 30 million liters and some 5 tons of butter per year. FROMALAIT 's core business is milk production. Raw milk is collected from 80 farmers throughout the province of Sidi-Bel-Abbes. The distribution network, which reflects an important market share, is spread over the territory of the province and other cities such as Oran,

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Tlemcen, and Ain-Témouchent. In 2012, the company generated a turnover of approximately 452 MDA through this activity.

In 2008, the company experienced a serious crisis in the supply of milk powder. Most of this raw material is imported from abroad. This situation, which destabilized the company "s financial equilibrium, forced the manager to rethink his diversification strategy and to limit himself solely to milk production, which led to the total cessation of the production line specializing in the manufacture of cheese and yoghurt and consequently to a reduction in the workforce.

D/ The company's human resources

At present, FROMALAIT "s workforce is made up of a variety of personnel depending on the nature of the activity: 07 administrators, 01 engineers, 02 technicians, 01 biologists, 07 specialized workers, 06 raw milk collectors, 18 handlers, and 08 security guards, making a total of 49 employees. In terms of staff qualifications, this distribution shows that the majority of FROMALAIT staff have a relatively low level of qualification.

3.1.5 Case study of the company KCA (KHENTEUR COMPOSANTS AUTOMOBILES)

A/ Historical background

Created in 1987, in the individual form in the name of the KHENTEUR establishment, and for reasons of durability, the company was transformed into a joint-stock company with a capital of 60,000,000 DA in January 2003.

B/ Identification

- Company name: KHENTEUR COMPOSANT AUTOMOBILE,
- Legal form: Joint-stock company (Spa),
- Share capital: 80 MDA
- Head office: industrial zone - Sidi-Bel-Abbes,
- CEO: Mr. KHENTEUR Ali,
- Surface area: 2400 m² divided into three floors,

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

- The second plot of 13,000 m² awaiting construction.

C/ The purpose of the company

Development, production, and marketing of automotive components. Its main activity lies in:

- manufacture of voltage regulators for 12 and 24-volt automotive alternators.
- manufacture of 12 and 24-volt flashing units (vehicle direction indicators). While its

secondary activities are:

- Production of printed circuits,
- Plastic injection molding,
- Non-ferrous metal foundry (ZAMAK),
- Brass stamping.

These different activities are divided into the following business lines:

1- Printed circuit board workshop:

- From film design to printed circuit board production.

2- Plastic injection workshop:

- Machine park consisting of three BATTENFELDs with several tonnages,
- Injected materials: Polyamide- ABS- polypropylene.

3- ZAMAK foundry workshop:

- Machine park consisting of two FRESH 75 T & COGEMEC 50 T presses,
- Production of pieces from 20 to 1000 gr.
- Raw material: ZAMAK ingots.

4- Metal parts workshop:

- ROSS eccentric press 50 T and 80 T,
- Material used (brass strip, copper strip, steel strip).

5- Screw-cutting workshop:

- Six (06) axis numerically controlled lathe equipment,
- Material used (brass, steel, plastic).

6- Assembly workshop:

Assembly lines equipped with control means allowing the manufacture of all manufactured models according to the required quality standards.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

D/ Evolution of the activity

Since the creation of the first regulator in 1988, KCA-spa has been developing its products and marketing the following ranges:

- 08 models of 12 V flashing units (light vehicles).
- 09 models of 24V flashing units (heavy vehicles).
- 07 models of regulators for 12 V alternators (light vehicles).
- 05 models of regulators for 24V alternators (heavy vehicles).
- 01 battery tester.
- 12 brake light switch models.
- 13 thermo-contact models for fans.
- 04 models of solenoid valves for diesel stop.
- 23 oil pressure switch models.
- 02 temperature indicator models.
- 01 temperature controller.
- 01 light starter.

The form of the KCA company structure is a simple one, characterized by an embryonic and not very formalized division of labor. In this structure, the role of the operational manager is essential. His or her ability to supervise, control, and coordinate is the key factor in the success of the organization. The dominant form of coordination is therefore direct supervision. This type of structure is found in small companies with a relatively simple activity.

3.1.6 Case study of MED IJK

presentation of the hydra pharm group

Algerian pharmaceutical group, founded in 1995, HYDRAPHARM, through its eight subsidiaries, has extended its value chain to all trades and services of the pharmaceutical industry.

- Import
- Production
- Distribution

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

- Medical Information
- Regulatory Affairs

2007, acquisition of a stake by WALGREENS ALLIANCE BOOTS, the world's leading pharmaceutical distributor, in the capital of the HYDRAPHARM Group. Future export platform through WALGREENS ALLIANCE BOOTS, the first pharmaceutical distribution network in the world, covering more than 2 billion people, the leader in the OECD zone and emerging countries, this agreement defines the HYDRAPHARM Group as an extension platform for the Maghreb and West Africa.

- 1st pharmaceutical group in Algeria
- Market share: 30%
- Turnover: 50 Billion Dinars
- More than 1600 employees
- 9 distribution centers covering 48 provinces and complying with good pharmaceutical practices
- 5300 product references, stored and delivered
- 200 million boxes of medicines are distributed per year
- Prioritization of national production through a distribution agreement with all national producers (Saïdal, etc.)
- Agreements with 32 major international laboratories aiming at the permanent availability of Essential Medicines
- Continuous availability through the holding of strategic stocks of
- Distribution to 6,200 pharmacies, 2/3 of approved pharmacies 80% coverage in the south and remote areas,
- 120 wholesale distributors Hospitals and clinics
- Military Health Institution Security for more than 3 months

PRESENTATION of MED IJK spa

Identification: MED IJK-spa

Company name: pharmaceutical products distribution company,

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Address: lot number 25 SIDI BEL ABBES industrial zone

Legal form: joint-stock company SPA

The share capital: 77,400,000.00 DA

Area: 5,900 m²,

Workforce: the current number of staff and 160 employees, including 20 executives, 35 supervisors, and 105 executions, the majority of employees on permanent employment contracts,

The field of activity

MED IJK, created in 2010, in SIDI BEL ABBES, is a subsidiary of the HYDRA PHARM group. Ensures the availability and delivery of pharmaceutical products in the western region of the country,

MED IJK has a distribution platform for pharmaceutical products that complies with the standards in force in terms of good distribution practices.

MED IJK has an efficient logistics chain, trained personnel, and a dedicated fleet (more than 30 vans), ensuring several daily rotations,

Med IJK covers the western region with more than 400 pharmacies.

MED IJK ensures the availability of more than 5000 reference pharmaceutical products,

3.2 Justification for Methodology

Saunders, et al., (2009) says that quantitative research is a method that is used, for example, experimentation, and review. In this type of research, the researcher wants to learn more about the research method and get a better understanding of how it works.

Research method is better if you want to make sure that your quantitative research is going to be good and that you can measure or do a survey review. This research method is based

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

on a pragmatic paradigm, which doesn't just use a philosophical method. As a result, pragmatists don't think of the world as a whole. Saunders et al., (2009) say that there are many different ways to do research; it was said that no single point of view could show all the facts. This does not mean that pragmatists always use different methods. Instead, they use methods that are reliable so that they can get the right data for their research (Saunders et al., 2009).

Some academics believe that quantitative research is superior to qualitative research since it aids in the establishment of causation, whilst others disagree. The quantitative research approach evaluates the connection between the variable's calculation, and this has anything to do with the goal of the study. This technique assessed the link between training strategy, employee engagement, and the development of competency-based skills. The results of this assessment revealed how training approach influences the development of competencies.

The quantitative research method helps to establish causality. This study seeks to examine whether there is a relationship between training strategy and competencies development as well as the relationship between employee engagement and competencies development.

3.3 Research Design and Approach

Research design, according to Saunders et al.(2009), is a broad framework for how the research topic that has been established will be addressed. It is a master plan in which the researcher identifies the sources of data that will be utilized in the investigation.

When doing research, there are many various sorts of research methodologies that might be used. These methodologies include qualitative research, quantitative research, and a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research. qualitative and quantitative research There are differences between qualitative and quantitative research methodologies (Ghauri et al., 2020); check the table below for more information on this.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Table 03 Differences in Emphasis in Qualitative versus Quantitative Methods

| Qualitative Methods | Quantitative Methods |
|--|---|
| 1-Emphasis on understanding | 1- Emphasis on testing and verification |
| 2-Focus on understanding from the respondent's/informant's point of view | 2- Focus on facts and/or reasons for social events |
| 3- Interpretation and rational approach | 3- Logical and critical approach |
| 4- Observations and measurements in natural settings | 4- Controlled measurements |
| 5- Subjective 'insider view' and closeness to data | 5- Objective 'outside view' distant from data |
| 6- Explorative orientation | 6-Hypothetical-deductive; focus on hypothesis testing |
| 7- Process-oriented | 7- Result oriented |
| 8- Holistic perspective | 8- Particularistic and analytical |
| 9-Generalization by comparison of properties and contexts of the individual organism | 9- Generalization by population membership. |

Source: (Ghauri et al., 2020).

The following section discusses the research design issues. (Bell et al., 2018) identify five types of research design:

- (1) experimental design.
- (2) longitudinal design.
- (3) case study design.
- (4) cross-sectional design.
- (5) comparative design.

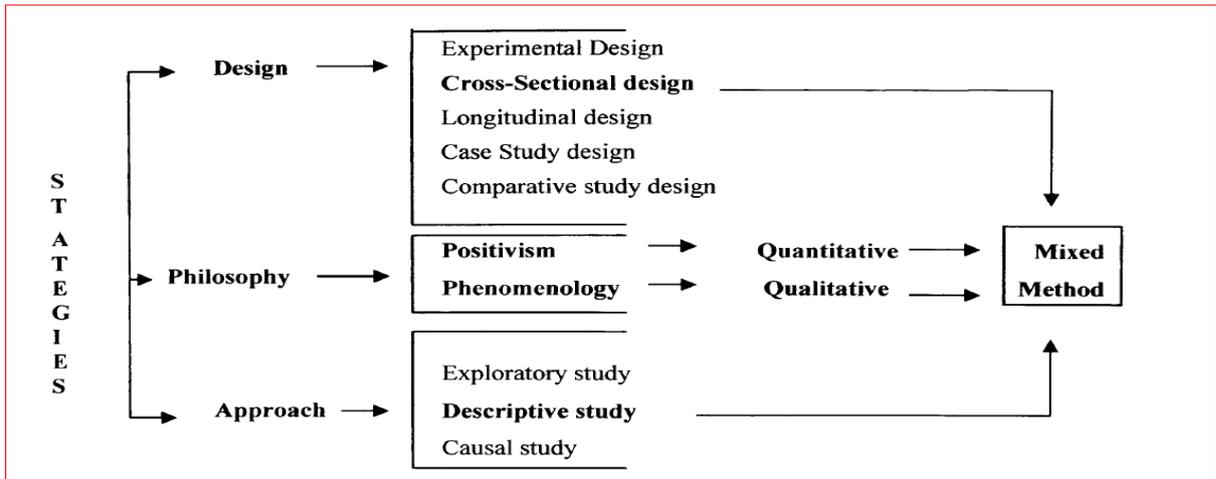
McNabb (2017) said that although there is no one optimum design, there are a variety of appropriate approaches to doing research. The experimental group is divided into two groups at random, while the control group is divided into two groups at random. This is known as the experimental design (David & Sutton, 2004). According to David and Sutton, "it is often not possible to divide individuals randomly into two groups, and even when it is possible, it is not always feasible."

The design of a case study is a typical practice in social research (Yin, 2009). A careful examination of one or more particular cases is the primary focus of this paper (Yin, 2009).

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

According to Bell et al. (2018), some of the most well-known studies in business and management research are based on one of four categories of case studies: a single company, a single place, a single individual, or a single event (or combination of these). Aside from that, the most prevalent use of the case study site is in a company or organization.

Figure 20 Methodology Framework



The case study technique will be used as the primary research strategy in this study. When we talk about the case study method, we are referring to an in-depth study or research of a current phenomenon that is conducted utilizing numerous sources of information in its real-life setting. According to Yin (2003), case research is particularly useful when the phenomenon of interest is broad and complex and, as a result, is best studied in the context in which it occurs. Case research is a type of qualitative research that involves interviewing participants about their experiences with a particular phenomenon. Furthermore, according to Yin (2003), the use of several examples is a strong source of knowledge. As a result, this research follows in the footsteps of Yin (2003) and relies on three case studies.

A survey research design was used in this study. In this research, a survey design was acceptable since it allows for the gathering of information for both independent and dependent variables via the use of survey questions (Orodho, 2005). This design enables the researcher to use both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies in his or her investigation. qualitative techniques, rather than quantitative approaches, according to Kothari (2004) use linguistic descriptions rather than numerical descriptions.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

The main objective of this research was to explore the relationship and the effect of training strategy in its dimensions on competencies development via employee engagement in selected small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Sidi Bel Abbes province in Algeria. To achieve this objective, a descriptive type of research design approach has been applied. Both quantitative and qualitative (mixed approaches) has been used to attain better result from the study. By using a mixed approach one can able to capitalize on the strength of both qualitative and quantitative and eliminate biases that exist in a single research method.

The research design is determined by the method in which the researcher intends to perform the study, i.e., whether or not the researcher is looking for 'knowledge growth.' A research design program, on the other hand, is a program that directs a researcher through the process of data collecting as well as analysis, observation, and explanation (Nachmias, 1976).

The term "research design" refers to the overall plan that is developed to answer research questions, which takes into consideration the variables of interest and methods to be followed in the study (Bell et al., 2018). It is the concise research strategy that aids in the development of clear objectives from the research questions, as well as the identification of the model and source of data collection within the specified time frame, as well as the identification of the most important ethical and data reliability issues to consider.

The nature of the issue determines the research design that will be used. Among the most frequent designs is the social survey, which is intended to collect information from respondents to allow the researcher to collect a variety of different sorts of data, both qualitative and quantitative (Bell et al., 2018). Because the research topic is well specified, a descriptive and analytical research technique has been used for this study.

Questionnaires were distributed to employees and summarized quantitatively to gather information on the subject matter from the management of the six (06) small and medium enterprises to come across employees' views on how the enterprises dealt with issues of the training strategy and competencies development and analyzed qualitatively.

Training documents of the enterprises have been reviewed. By doing so, the researcher used to ascertain the training process, the commitment of senior management, and the adoption of modern technologies in training policies and also checked whether the methods and

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

effectiveness of training were being dully followed that generate effective results at an organizational level via employee engagement.

3.4 Research Philosophy

Here, we will go through the research philosophy of this study, as well as the types of reasoning that will be used to get a better knowledge of the phenomena under investigation. According to Bell et al. (2018), research philosophy is often divided into two categories: epistemological issues and ontological considerations. These two points of consideration are covered in further detail in the next section.

Research philosophy is concerned with the process of knowledge generation and establishes the perspectives that researchers have on the subjects that they are investigating. The sorts of questions to be studied and the techniques to be employed are influenced by the research philosophy of the investigator.

The research paradigm influences the material that the researcher wants to study, the method of studying it, and the interpretation of the data achieved (Denzin, 2008).

The numerous philosophical paradigms may be divided into two primary categories: quantitative and qualitative approaches, respectively. Given the nature of the research topic, it seems that what individuals learn has an influence on how they go about learning it, which in turn impacts how they approach and formulate research questions (Rowlands, 2003).

Researchers performed earlier studies on training and development, as well as human resource development strategies, which were taken into consideration in this study to better understand the research topic at hand. The quantitative technique is characterized by its emphasis on measurement, standardization, and accuracy. A qualitative technique, on the other hand, derives its reasoning from the phenomena under investigation and places importance on experience evidence based on interpretation. In practice, quantitative and qualitative methods serve as a conduit for a variety of research strategies, despite the fact that all approaches have their own set of limitations (Cassell & Symon, 1994).

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

The literature by researchers on training and development focuses on practical aspects as a function related to staff practices. The theoretical aspects behind these practices have not yet been investigated such that the present study attempts to start a theoretical explanation of training strategy with its dimensions mentioned and shed light on how the training process is seen in a sample of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Sidi Bel Abbes province in Algeria, how training strategy is regarded by senior management and staff there, how staff describes and interpret training process, what training and development should perform and their relationship with competencies development, how staff and management practice T&D and what these practices mean to them.

3.5 The Ontology Philosophy

This approach is concerned with the assumption of how the world functions, and it describes the enthusiasm that exists between business and management. Researchers are likely to be recognized for their contributions to the creation of valid knowledge by a variety of researchers who use this approach. In the work of Crotty, objectivism is defined as the belief that social entities exist in reality, notwithstanding social actors' worry about their existence (Saunders et al., 2009). Subjectivism, on the other hand, encompasses the social phenomena that arise as a consequence of the insights and actions of social actors who are pretended to be intelligent.

3.6 Epistemology philosophy

Based on the goal, epistemology establishes suitable knowledge in the subject of study; this technique is often used in quantitative research, and it is related to how case objects are regarded as factual. With subjective epistemology, data is constructed based on the mood and perspective of those who participate in connection to the study questions, rather than on objective evidence. This requires doing adequate quantitative research to advance, investigate, and comprehend the feelings of the person rather than just the article (Saunders et al., 2009).

According to Saunders et al. (2009), there are two primary epistemological positions in social sciences, namely the interpretivist and positivist positions.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

When laws serve as the foundation for explanation in the natural sciences, a positivist approach is the most common epistemology to be used. It allows for the prediction of occurrences, the expectation that they will occur, and the provision of direction to organizations under their control (Saunders et al., 2009).

A fundamental premise of the interpretive approach is that society, including business and management, as well as other kinds of human effort, is simply too complicated to be adequately explained by definite rules in the same way that physical sciences can be. This technique proposes that the researcher comprehend the distinctions between persons who are social actors to conduct an effective study (Saunders et al., 2009).

3.7 Multi-method Approach

The use of mixed methods research may be dated back to the 1960s and beyond (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Mixed methods techniques were developed on the premise that combining two methods improves the quality of the research by allowing researchers to make use of the advantages of two different methodologies in a single investigation.

Mixed-method techniques may also assist to lessen the amount of bias in a study. By using this strategy, researchers are able to avoid becoming method-bound and maintain control over the quality of the data they utilize in their studies. Multi-method research utilizes two or more approaches chosen from a wide range of qualitative, quantitative, and other methodologies to answer a research question.

In order to get more advanced outcomes, the multi-method strategy must overcome the limitations of employing just one technique (Elman et al., 2010). Furthermore, taking a unique method to research makes it more difficult to give complete justice to any research (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). If the findings are consistent, they give a more solid foundation for determining the validity of any research. When combining two approaches, the researcher must make use of each kind of data obtained to the greatest extent possible while minimizing the shortcomings of each type of data acquired. As a result, as Clark (2004) points out, it seems to be a problem for researchers to combine various types of information.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

For the present study, a questionnaire survey was conducted to elicit the opinions of SME employees. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect information regarding training strategy and process from senior managers of the six (06) small and medium enterprises mentioned, the managers of human resources, and training managers. These two approaches were adopted to provide a deeper understanding of training (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

3.7.1 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative technique is often used because it enables researchers to be more objective in their conclusions and to investigate circumstances with more accuracy than the qualitative approach.

According to Haegeman et al. (2013), quantitative data is defined as information that is based on statistical or numerical data, while quantitative methodology is defined as a technique that is based on statistical data and tools.

In order to get quantitative information from bank employees, this research employed a survey to do so. The quantitative technique was extensively used in the study since it was the most suitable way given the constraints of the research setting and the problems encountered in gathering data from Algerian SMEs.

This strategy enables the researcher to examine a broad variety of sentiments among employees and to provide a more solid foundation for making broad generalizations. The data gathered is more controlled than the data acquired using qualitative approaches, and the results may be utilized to quantify study conclusions (Bell et al., 2018). Researchers may more readily contact a big number of respondents who are dispersed over a vast geographic region using quantitative research methods than they can with qualitative ones.

In this study, the questionnaire covered:

1- The training strategy

- a- the current practices of training with four steps (training needs assessment, training design, training delivery, training assessment).
- b- The commitment of senior management.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

- c- The Training effectiveness.
- d- The adoption of modern technologies.
- 2- The competencies development.
- 3- Employee engagement.

3.7.2 Qualitative Approach: (interview)

The goal of qualitative investigations is for researchers to uncover ideas and give insights that will help them better comprehend topics and circumstances that need to be studied (Maxwell, 2005). As a result, an exploratory research aims to gain a better understanding of a problem for which there is little or no detailed information available in the literature.

As described by Robson (2002), qualitative data analysis adds a touch of 'richness and completeness' to the study of data by examining the qualities of the information. Qualitative data analysis allows the researcher to go beyond the realms of quantitative data analysis, allowing the researcher to conduct a more in-depth study of the data gathered and look for emerging patterns and concepts in the words and expressions of the respondents, as opposed to quantitative data analysis.

Qualitative methods involve the researcher in the process of the research and allow researchers to gain a close understanding of the topic they are researching; closer than the quantitative method.

According to Haegeman et al. (2013), qualitative data is described as information that is based on non-numerical data, such as face-to-face interviews, rather than statistical data and is used to guide decision making.

Qualitative data analysis also assists researchers in determining the psychological characteristics of the respondents. Profound insight into human nature, behaviors, and words is gained as a result of this, which would otherwise be unavailable via quantitative study.

The qualitative analysis aids in the evaluation of any phenomenon's dynamics and the investigation of the factors that influence them (Bryman, 2016). In addition to interviews, which are used as a qualitative technique of data collecting in this research, The interviews in this

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

research address topics such as training strategy, including its dimensions, as well as competency development.

3.8 The Design and Rationale of the Study

Following a review of the literature on training strategy, data were collected using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with top managers to get an in-depth analysis of the points examined.

This research was conducted in the context of SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes mentioned and designed to investigate the effect of training strategy in terms of the current practice of training, the commitment of senior management, training effectiveness, and the adoption of modern technologies on competencies development via employee engagement in those in selected small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Sidi Bel Abbes province in Algeria.

In order to accomplish these objectives, the researchers used a multi-method approach, with questionnaires and face-to-face interviews serving as the major data-gathering tools. The research design and approach chosen for this study were previously used by other researchers, including Arab researchers such as Al-Athari (2002), Albahussain (2000), Altarawneh (2005), and Elfazani (2011), who conducted research related to training and development practices in a variety of contexts. Al-Athari (2002) was the first to use the design and approach chosen for this study. Those researchers discovered that a multimethod strategy combining questionnaires and interviews was the most suitable and acceptable method of study for their particular situation. This is because using this strategy improves the consistency, validity, and reliability of the research study.

The researcher communicated with employees and top management in the SMEs in question to generate data about the current training strategies applied by those enterprises. It was hoped that the study of the current training practices and the opinions of management and employees would help to give a comprehensive idea about the significance of training strategy and their effect on competencies development via employee engagement in SMEs in the city of Sidi Bel Abbes.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

The study methodology chosen was based on the use of both techniques of data collecting, which enabled the researchers to integrate the findings obtained and stay as far away from the drawbacks of utilizing a single approach as feasible. As a result, statistical analysis of the quantitative data assisted in the preparation of summaries, comparisons, and generalizations of the findings.

Above all, the rationale was to explore the training strategy that was available to develop them and produce better results and solicit employee relations and engagement, productivity, and efficiency.

This involved conducting an inquiry into the present training strategies being implemented at the SMEs under examination. This was because training not only aids in the dissemination of knowledge but also encourages employees to think more critically and work toward the implementation of innovative ideas and best practices to ensure the maximum productivity of both the employees and the organizations in which they work (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

3.9 Target Population, Sampling Techniques, and Sample Size

Under this section targeted groups from the larger population, sampling techniques, and sample size to be included in the study have been presented.

It is to describe the total population of all the respondents who fall into the specific requirement of represented chosen participants and the population of interest. However, the population sample is a small fraction of the research that forms the illustrative sample of the overall population.

3.9.1 Target Population

The population of this study is taken from the small and medium enterprises SMEs in the city of Sidi bel abbes. These SMEs were targeted irrespective of size. These SMEs are chosen because they are responsible for determining economic performance in the city of Sidi bel abbes (see Table 5). Moreover, the economic sector has been very active in Sidi bel abbes and the

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

development of manpower in those enterprises has enabled both employees and managers to perform their duties well in line with national and international standards and development.

Under the significance of human resources in economic growth, Algerian SMEs have focused on improving the performance of their employees through training and competencies development. This is why enterprise employees had to be given the training to enable them to deal with new tools that have been introduced to the economic sector; such as the use of the new technology.

The sample design adopted for the purposes of the current study had as its main objective to have the ability to provide a holistic and representative sample of selected small and medium enterprises employees as mentioned.

The target population for the study consists of all employees in those enterprises, at all ranks and different job titles.

all employees were asked to complete the survey that measured their perception of their enterprise system of current practices of training strategy, the level of their enterprise human competencies, their commitment to senior management, their perceived training effectiveness, and finally their perception of employee's engagement and the level of adoption of technology in training courses.

In addition, they were asked to provide basic organizational and demographic information for themselves and their enterprises.

3.9.2 Research sampling

There are four main issues regarding the sampling process (Hair et al., 2014):

- (1) defining the target population.
- (2) choosing the sampling frame.
- (3) selecting the sampling method.
- (4) determining the sample size.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

As described by Hair et al. (2014), the target population may be defined as the whole set of components relevant to the research project, which is the sampling unit from which samples can be selected throughout the sampling procedure. The sample unit might be made up of individuals, businesses, or any other logical unit that is relevant to the investigation. All of the workers from six small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the province of Sidi Bel Abbes constitute the sample unit in my example.

The second issue is choosing the sampling frame, which is a compressive list of elements from which the sample is drawn (Hair et al., 2014). The sample frame can be yellow pages, phone directory, or employee directory of an organization. The current study adopted the "All employees who have benefited from training courses in enterprises".

In social science research, two broad ways of sampling are used: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Hair et al., 2014). In probability sampling, the likelihood of each element being picked from the target population is known before the sampling procedure is carried out (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher may use this strategy to guarantee that the sample is representative of the population (Hair et al., 2014). With the probability approach, there are five major approaches that may be used: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, and multi-stage sampling (Hair et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2009). It is employed in large-scale surveys when the sample size is sufficiently big to make this method feasible.

3.9.3 Sampling Techniques

The sample of respondents comprises representative and proportional samples taken from the six SMEs (**AZZOUZ – CHIALI – FAMAG – FROMALAIT – KCA KHENTEUR-MED IJK**) (see Table 6). Purposive sampling techniques were used to determine the respondents. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) suggest that purposive sampling is used when there is a need for specific respondents to answer specific questions about the knowledge needed. Thus, this research included a sample of employees chosen on the basis of their relationship to training.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

It was these executives' responsibility to provide trustworthy information regarding the strategic policies of training and development, employee engagement, and other associated problems in the SMEs under consideration.

Members of the sample were selected by the researcher from among those who had participated in at least one official training session and those who were able to provide a more detailed explanation of their experiences during training sessions.

In the present study, the total number of employees in the six SMEs is 803 employees (see Table 6). By dividing the population of the SMEs selected by their branches, the sample has been selected proportionally. That led to the realization that a larger sample had to be taken from the larger stratum and vice versa. The first step adopted was to calculate the percentage in each stratum (enterprise) as shown in Table 6. Subsequently, the proportion of each group was multiplied by the sample size of the population, 260 employees, which meant that the quota of each stratum is obtained (See Table 6). As a result,

Table 04 Representation of SMEs

| Enterprise | Represented by |
|-------------------|-----------------------|
| AZZOUZ | 71 employees |
| CHIALI | 55 employees |
| FAMAG | 46 employees |
| FROMALAIT | 25 employees |
| KHENTEUR | 35 employees |
| MED IJK | 28 employees |

Source: prepared by researchers

Additionally, the researcher interviewed 06 top officials based on 01 managers from each of the six (06) main enterprises: namely HRM Manager, T&D Manager, and General Manager (See Table 6).

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Table 05 The choice of the sample the Fieldwork of the Study

| Name of enterprise | Number of employees | Percentage | The sample size for Employees Questionnaire | Valid Questionnaires | Interviews completed |
|--------------------|---------------------|------------|---|----------------------|----------------------|
| AZZOUZ | 222 | 27.64% | 71 | 64 (07) | 01 |
| CHIALI | 170 | 21.17% | 55 | 46 (09) | 01 |
| FAMAG | 144 | 17.93% | 46 | 42 (04) | 01 |
| FROMALAIT | 80 | 09.96% | 25 | 23 (02) | 01 |
| KHENTEUR | 100 | 12.45% | 35 | 31 (04) | 01 |
| MED IJK | 87 | 10.83% | 28 | 25 (03) | 01 |
| Total | 803 | 100% | 260 | 231 (29) | 01 |
| Percentage | 100% | 100% | 32% | 28.76% | 01 |

Source: prepared by researcher 2022

3.10 Sources of Data

The researcher has employed both primary and secondary sources of information in his investigation. The fundamental information has been gathered from the Corporation's workers and management staff, among other sources. The secondary information was gathered via an examination of relevant literature as well as documents made accessible by the corporation. To supplement the main data on training in the Corporation, secondary data sources were employed to supplement the primary data on training.

Three issues had an influence on choosing the method of data collection which are; research objectives, constructivist ontology, and qualitative methods. the most common qualitative methods are interviews, observation, and the review of documents.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

3.10.1 Data Collection Plan and Analysis Timeline

As shown in Appendix 3, the data collection and analysis timeline reflects the major steps taken by the researcher to collect and analyze the qualitative and quantitative data for this research.

17 th of September 2021 was the date when the final survey was produced and approved by the supervisor and was ready to be sent to professionals and academics for their review and comments on September 23th 2021. Then on October 260 questionnaires were sent to all employees of selected SMEs in SIDI BEL ABBES province, along with a letter that explained the objectives of the study and ensured the confidentiality of the answers. The researcher managed to get back 242 questionnaires starting from 15 th of November 2021. Then face-to-face interviews were conducted during the period from 21't December 2021 to the 09th January 2022.

3.10.2 Instrument of Data Collection

Here, the primary sources of data have been collected through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews made with HR professionals. On the other hand, the secondary data obtained from consulting relevant documents such as books, articles, scholarly writings, Corporation's Strategic plan, Management Administrative Manual, Corporation's recruitment, promotion, and Training Execution manuals have been used.

3.10.2.1 Primary Data

This involved the pilot and initial work of the researcher, which is the foundation of the current study including the aim of creating data through the sentiments of the participants concerning the dependent, mediator, and independent variable of the study. Given this, questionnaires were adopted and semi-structured interviews as the primary source of data collection.

3.10.2.2 Secondary Data

This is done in order to evaluate the literature and comprehend what has been done before in connection to the current topic. Using the previous works of other researchers, secondary

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

data was gathered and used in the research process. Books, Google Scholar, journal articles, management documents, and other useful information from magazines and business bulletins were some of the secondary sources used in the data collection process.

Questionnaire

Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and filled out by them. The 5-points Likert scale method was preferred to make it easy for respondents and thereby enhance their cooperation. The questionnaires were developed and evaluated on a 1-5 Likert scale, where 5 indicates strongly agree up to 1 refers to strongly disagree.

Designing the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to explore training strategy, as well as the extent to which these practices and processes were effective in improving the competencies of employees via employee engagement.

There were various aspects of the questionnaire that contributed to its effectiveness, including the clarity of the language used to construct the questions, the depth of the topics addressed, the sequence in which the questions were presented, and the variety of questions asked.

This set of survey questions was designed to promote concise responses to the questions that were presented (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). As a result, questions were arranged in a manner that progressed from easy to more challenging.

The questionnaire was designed after reviewing the previous studies and literature on training and human resource development, and the adoption of modern technologies in training, employee engagement, and challenges in HRD. Careful attention was paid to the order of the questions to ensure good logical flow.

With regard to the technical content of the questionnaire, other researchers and the study supervisor advised on the questions, their length, clarity, and layout.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Following that, a pilot study was conducted to test the practicality and applicability of the questionnaire prior to its finalization. Questionnaires were distributed to SMEs employees.

Questionnaire Translation

It was decided that the questionnaire for this research would be prepared in English first, and then translated into Arabic, in order to aid and inspire the respondents to complete and return the surveys. To increase the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, it was made certain that every question and statement included within it was accurately translated from one language to another. The back-translation approach, in particular, was used to enhance lexical or functional equivalency between the elements (questions and sentences) contained in the questionnaire.

A second party (an Egyptian professor from Portsmouth university) provided reassurance of the consistency of the questionnaire with English HRM terminology, while for the covering letter the translation ensured consistency with Arabic literature and language terminology.

The back-translation with lexicon equivalence as the desired standard also facilitated conceptual equivalence, in addition to the retention of meaning with the local culture and language. The translated documents were subsequently checked and amended by a third party (HRM professor) who is versed in the study's subject matter.

Questionnaire Structure

The questionnaire was broken into four parts, which were as follows: Participants will be able to provide feedback on the specific question that was asked if questionnaires are used. This will aid in the development of a precise solution for the research project.

Section one of the questionnaire comprises the demographic information of the respondents. This section seeks to acquire information about the Gender, Age, current position, years of experience work, educational levels, and the number of training courses.

The questions were designed to suit the culture and the environment of Algerian SMEs and to compare with the findings of the previous studies. In the design of the survey, questions

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

were sequenced logically from the general to the specific, and in line with how the current training strategy is provided.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections.

Section 1 obtained general information in the form of closed questions. It collected information about years of experience, the educational level, age, gender, job position, and the number of training courses offered.

Section 2 investigated training strategy. It collected information regarding the current practices of training in terms of used to identify training needs assessment, training design, training delivery, and the assessment of training. the level of commitment of senior management. the effectiveness of training and the level of adoption of modern technologies in training programs,

Section 3 investigated the competencies development (the level of knowledge, skill, and aptitudes of employees).

Section 4 investigated employee engagement relating to human competencies.

Likert scales were used (1=Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Not sure; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree) along with (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Mostly, (5) Always (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

The survey was administered before the interviews were conducted. The same fundamental questions guiding the survey were asked in the interviews.

The aim was to get some general information first about the training strategy implemented in these SMEs and their impact on employees' competencies development via the engagement. The HR professionals were interviewed.

Questionnaire Administration

In order to get the most responses possible from the questionnaire, the researchers conducted the study. Some thought has been given to this by obtaining permission from the

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

management to hand over the questionnaire to the participants and allow them sufficient time to complete it. This was gathered in a matter of weeks, was self-administered, and was completed by participants, who represented a diverse range of departments across all SMEs. This allows the researcher to broaden the scope of data gathering while increasing the trustworthiness of the results. However, there are certain advantages and disadvantages to administering surveys.

Advantages of Questionnaire

A questionnaire generates a huge quantity of data that is useful for quantitative research, particularly when there is a big population of interest to study. According to Johnson and Turner (2003), in a complete research study, the reliability of a questionnaire is irrelevant since the participants have their own opinions on how to answer the questions and are free to pick based on their views. While Saunders et al. (2009) recommended that questionnaires be used as the preferred process of data collection in testing relationships between variables, as a support for testing hypotheses, and to measure the outcome for informal analysis, Saunders et al. (2009) recommended that interviews be used as the preferred process of data collection in testing relationships between variables. As a time-saving tool, questionnaires have the benefit of allowing participants to complete the surveys at their convenience, as well as generating a high response rate, which is an important consideration.

Disadvantage of Questionnaire

According to Samuel and Chipunza (2009), one of the downsides of questionnaires is the high incidence of apathy among participants; this is due to the fact that most participants complete the questionnaire happily and sometimes when they are less devoted to their activities. This suggests the possibility of erroneous responses from the participants, which may also be a manifestation of inflexibility and prejudices, particularly if the outcome is different from what was anticipated. The conclusions may be constrained and unrealistic since the analysis is performed on data that was derived from a small fraction of a big population. Individuals may be unable to find the necessary time and resources to complete and return surveys, particularly if the questionnaire is difficult to complete. The downside of questionnaires is that they cannot be altered due to a lack of contact between the researcher and the participants, and individuals

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

may not be attentive while filling out the questionnaire, which is a significant drawback (Omoikhudu, 2017).

Interview

The interview is the most suitable qualitative approach in this situation. Cassell and Symon (2004) said that interviews are preferable when investigating issues with several layers of meaning that need to be investigated in greater depth. During an interview, the researcher strives to elicit information or statements of thoughts or beliefs from the interviewee via face-to-face verbal exchange (Albawardy, 2010).

As described by Marsh (2002), there are three different kinds of interviews that may be utilized to do research, with the key distinction between them being the framework of the interviews. Marsh (2002) divides them into three categories: structured, unstructured, and semi-structured information. In the words of Gratton and Jones (2014), a structured (standardized) interview is fundamentally a questionnaire in which the questions have been prepared and fixed; the researcher then reads the questions aloud to the interviewee and takes notes on the replies received. Because the responses are limited, one advantage of this type of questionnaire over a strictly written form lies in allowing the respondent to seek clarification on questions that may be unclear or ambiguous. However, one disadvantage is that the respondent is unable to provide clarification on his or her points of view because the answers are limited.

An unstructured (non-standardized) interview is more like a normal discussion than a scheduled interview. This sort of study is used when the researcher does not have a clear notion of what he or she wants to discover; he or she does not know what questions to ask, thus he or she does not start with a list of questions in mind before the research begins. The researcher simply has a rough notion of the subject that will be discussed, and the respondents tend to influence the path of the interviews in their way (Albawardy, 2010).

Unstructured interviews are less formal than standardized interviews, while semi-structured interviews are more focused than non-standardized, unstructured interviews in terms of content. The researcher could clarify questions for the respondents and follow up on answers as needed; it provides greater breadth and depth of information, in that the respondents' experience and interpretation of reality are revealed; it allows access to their ideas, thoughts,

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

and memories in their own words rather than in those of the researcher; it involves predetermined questions or themes to be followed up on as needed; and, finally, it involves predetermined questions or themes to be followed up on as needed (Sarantakos, 2012).

Marsh (2002) points out that interviews are not necessarily performed face-to-face; telephone interviews, for example, maybe utilized in certain cases. The use of a telephone interview offers many benefits, including the ability to gather data quickly and at a cheap cost. In contrast, disadvantages include the difficulty in taking notes during the interview, the interviewee's willingness to participate in the telephonic interview for as long as they would in a face-to-face interview, and the difficulty in developing more complex questions when compared to a face-to-face interview (Saunders et al., 2009).

In light of these benefits and limitations, this study used face-to-face semi-structured interviews and followed a set of protocols in order to get detailed descriptions of how human resource professionals operate. Aims were to get a broad and deep range of information by capturing the thoughts and recollections of the respondents in their own words rather than those of the researcher, rather than by using a structured questionnaire (Albawardy, 2010).

The interview allows the interviewer to create a connection with those who participate in it. It provided the interviewer with the opportunity to watch and listen, enabled complicated questions to be asked, and allowed the interviewer to investigate the interviewee's feelings, attitudes, and ideas. Technical Processes Executives were questioned in a semi-structured manner to get extra information for the intended outcome. The interviews were conducted in a way that triangulates with the replies acquired via the questionnaires from the respondent personnel.

Following the presentation of the study goals and the assurance of secrecy, the interviews are an effective means of motivating respondents to answer honestly in the presence of a researcher following the introduction of the research objectives. Interviews were employed to assist acquire a high response rate as well as a high degree of accuracy in the data since they allowed for face-to-face interaction with the respondents, which allowed for an explanation when necessary.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

As part of this research, semi-structured interviews were conducted to investigate the same underlying topics that were asked in the questionnaire survey, in order to establish a link between the two methodologies.

Numerous Arab researchers who have undertaken empirical research have employed the semi-structured interview as a method of gathering information. It has been shown to be an effective strategy in Arab companies, as individuals prefer to chat rather than complete a questionnaire.

Interviews were conducted with three levels of management from each of the Algerian SMEs, including the top management levels (Human Resource Manager, Training and Development Manager, and General Manager), in order to gather additional information about the status of training strategy, competency development, and employee engagement in the organizations involved.

Similar questions from the questionnaire were used in the semi-structured interviews.

The interviews were divided into the following sections:

Section 1: asked for general information about the interviewees' qualifications, experiences, positions at the enterprises, and responsibilities.

Section 2: asked questions relating to current training strategy in relation to the responsibilities for developing training practices and the methods used to (identify the training needs – training design – training delivery – training evaluation), the commitment of senior management, the adoption of modern technologies, the effectiveness of training programs.

Section 3: investigated the levels of knowledge, skill, and aptitude of employees at the SMEs.

Section 4: asked a question relating to employee engagement.

The final stage in data collection was translating the interview data. Since the population in this study consisted of Arabic speakers, the researcher translated the questionnaires into Arabic from English.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

The translation was careful not to influence the concepts and meaning of the original interviews.

According to Iyenger (1993), 'interviews conducted in one language (should) be translated into another language in each fashion such that the meaning of the interviews is retained.' The translation was sent to an expert in translation by the researcher in order to have it validated. Following that, the translated version and the original version were compared to confirm that the ideas and meanings of the questions posed had not been altered by the change in the language of the instruments.

Document Reviews

A document review or an archive review is the examination of secondary data that has already been utilized for another reason. Secondary data comprise both raw data and published summaries, which may be found in a variety of sources such as newspapers, government statistics, and other sources.

They have several advantages over primary data, including the fact that they require fewer resources, are unobtrusive, allowing for the potential provision of comparative and contextual data, as well as the possibility of unexpected discoveries, and, finally, they provide a permanent source of data (Saunders et al., 2000).

However, the shortcomings of secondary data include the inconsistency of the information gathered as well as the difficulty or expense of obtaining documentation proof in specific institutions, libraries, and government ministries.

This is due to the fact that papers that are necessary may have to be purchased and are often quite expensive (Saunders et al, 2000). As an example, obtaining access to economic and statistical information from private firms in Algeria, which are often confidential, may be very difficult without personal contacts.

Observations

In the study of training and employee engagement, the use of observation may be very instructive since it entails studying people's attitudes, behaviors, and reactions to situations. A

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

common belief is that observation entails the systematic observation of people's behavior followed by the recording, description, analysis, and interpretation of that behavior (Saunders et al, 2000). However, observation may vary from highly organized, in which observation categories are created in advance, to unstructured observation, in which the researcher just observes the scenario and then judges whether or not it is relevant to the study. Indeed, data from observations can include the researcher's perceptions and feelings while going through the research process, notes on what has happened or what has been commented on by the participants who are being observed, as well as the observers' statements and interpretations of what they have observed. These details are generally recorded in a journal and examined when the time comes to prepare the report (Bryman, 2016).

3.11 Procedures of Data Collection

The reliability and validity of the study instrument were assessed by specialists with an understanding of training strategy and competency development, who later became part of the respondents' pool, as well as by the researcher's adviser before questionnaires were delivered to the respondents. The completed questionnaires were individually gathered and prepared by the researcher, and they were then sorted in order to be utilized for data analysis.

In support of this Saunders et al. (2009) emphasize that self-administered questionnaires provide reliable data. Finally, SPSS statistical software was used to perform data screening and prepare the descriptive statistics. Smart PLS software was used for hypothesis testing analysis. Semi-structured interviews were also scheduled to gather information and distinguish the management staff's view on the training program for SMEs selected.

3.11.1 Pilot Testing

Before beginning full-field research, pilot testing is one of the most crucial elements in any survey research project, and it is especially important in survey research. According to Oppenheim (2001), a questionnaire should be pilot tested before being administered to a final sample of participants. In order to make the questionnaire totally understandable and acceptable for gathering the needed data, the questionnaire will be subjected to pilot testing to modify it and eliminate any remaining obstacles. In addition, piloting allows the researcher to get an understanding of the validity of the questions and the dependability of the data that was

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

gathered. As a general rule, pilot testing is accomplished by presenting the questions to a sample that is comparable to but smaller than the one that will be utilized in the final research.

The pilot test assisted in ensuring that the questionnaire's structure was appropriate and that there were no questions that were out of place or that were difficult to understand. Immediately after the first pilot, the questionnaire was re-evaluated, and the second stage was undertaken with Algerian academics who were experts in fields relevant to the program. A two-week pilot study was undertaken to ensure that there were no obstacles to the actual research and to guarantee that any unexpected obstacles were addressed before the main study began.

According to Saunder, Lewis, and Thornhill (2016), a pilot test provides the researcher with the knowledge necessary to evaluate the validity and reliability of the data to be obtained from the participants. This provides the researcher with a notion of how to organize the questionnaire, as well as how to rearrange items to make them more understandable to the participants.

Additional improvements were made after the completion of this stage of the pilot research. After completing the pilot research, the questionnaire was sent to 30 workers from six Algerian SMEs who had prior training experience. The questionnaire was tested among the employees on September 27, 2021, and the results were positive. This was done to determine whether or not there were any confusing questions in the questionnaires, as well as to collect any feedback on the surveys themselves. Several suggestions provided in response to the surveys were taken into consideration, and the required alterations were implemented. Using the results of all phases of the pilot study, as well as the opinions and comments of the participants, the researcher created the final version, which was then sent to all participants for review (see Appendix 3).

3.11.2 The Timing of the Research

The pilot study was carried out during September 2021 and the result was incorporated into the main questionnaire. The main survey was initiated at the beginning of October 2021 and completed by December. The qualitative stage consisting of the 06 extended interviews was carried out during the last week of December 2021.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

3.11.3 Research Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are very significant factors for determining the credibility of research results when evaluating their credibility. For assessing research accuracy and precision, these are the fundamental factors to consider. To be considered legitimate, measurements must be accurate, and the results must be relevant to the questions that they are posed in the first place. A trustworthy measurement is precise: the same response should be achieved on a second measurement; the same results or observations should/could be acquired or produced by various researchers on different occasions; and the same answer should be obtained on a third measurement (Saunders et al., 2009).

Reliability refers to the stability of the degree used to study the connexions between variables (Ghauri et al., 2020). The questions in the questionnaire were designed taking into consideration the issues related to the problem and goals of the study and theories on the subject. It is therefore believed that the responses and results from this study are reliable.

Since the researcher applied a multi-methods approach using two data collection methods (personally-administered questionnaire and semi-structured interviews), before, during, and after collecting the data many procedures were undertaken to ensure the validity and reliability of the study findings. These procedures will be provided in the following subsections.

Validity

The degree to which the study's findings are accurate is referred to as its validity. It is possible for the findings to be valid on an internal or external level. The term "internal validity" refers to the examination of the reliability of the findings acquired. The investigation of the results to see whether or not they can be used in a broader context is referred to as external validity (Ghauri et al., 2020). Different types of validity are present when measurements are used; face validity, which describes the extent to which a measurement is reasonably capable of capturing what is due to measuring, convergent validity, which describes the extent to which the measurement can produce similar results if used elsewhere, and divergent validity, which describes the extent to which one construct is distinguished from another (Ghauri et al., 2020).

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Sekaran (2003) distinguishes between different forms of validity:

- 1- content validity, and does the measure adequately measure the concept.
- 2- face validity, do "experts" validate that the instrument measures what its name suggests it measures.
- 3- criterion-related validity does the measure differentiate in a manner that helps to predict a criterion variable.
- 4- concurrent validity does the measure differentiate in a manner that helps to predict a criterion variable currently.
- 5- predictive validity, does the measure differentiate individuals in a manner as to help predict a future criterion.
- 6- construct validity, does the instrument tap the concept as theorized.
- 7- convergent validity, do two instruments measuring the concept correlate highly.

discriminate validity, does the measure have a low correlation with a variable that is supposed to be unrelated to this variable.

In this study, to ensure high validity and to rise the validity of the two data collection methods, many procedures were undertaken.

The use of a variety of data gathering techniques in this research assures that the data are indeed about what they seem to be about and that they are telling you what you believe they are saying (Saunders et al., 2000). Utilizing many methods allows for triangulation to take place, which entails cross-checking for various forms of validity across multiple methods.

As stated in Chapter 4, a large number of questions were answered in both questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to guarantee that the results from one approach would be supported by the findings from the other. As previously stated, semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to get more information, gain a deeper understanding of the questionnaire results, and confirm the questionnaire findings.

A comprehensive literature analysis was conducted in order to define and explain the scales and measures that were employed in this research to fulfill some of the validity criteria. Many of the items and scales used in this study were adapted from other studies that placed a

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

strong focus on achieving the standards of validity and reliability in their designs. In this context, Sekaran (2003) emphasizes the need of using well-validated and reliable methods to guarantee that the study is scientific. Furthermore, Sekaran (2003) emphasizes the necessity of using measures and scales that have previously been produced since their reliability and validity have already been demonstrated by their authors and they are already regarded as being of high quality.

Apart from that, the questionnaire questions were reviewed and pre-tested by several doctorate students and an academic expert panel to determine the questionnaire's content and face validity throughout numerous pilot test stages. They concluded that the questionnaire's content validity had been proven.

The surveys were distributed by the researcher on her own (personally administered questionnaire; distributed and collected by the researcher herself). That is, to present the questionnaire and clear up any misunderstandings regarding the questions that may have occurred. Also included was the phone number of the author, in case any of the respondents had any queries that they were unable to answer correctly.

Content Validity

In order to determine the validity of the content, the questionnaire was presented to 13 referees professors in several universities inside and outside the country. 12 of them were returned and 01 of them apologized for special circumstances.

They were instructed to determine the appropriateness of the items for the topic of the study, as well as the extent to which the items were clear and their linguistic integrity, as well as their opinion, and their observations and amendments to delete and amend items or add another that suits the statement of the problem of the current study, and those who were presented to the supervising professor to express his opinion and provide his comments, and the following table was developed:

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Table 06 Content validity

| N | Name of professor | Specialty | University affiliation |
|----|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| 01 | Khaled Hussainey | Accounting and financial management | Portsmouth university – United Kingdom |
| 02 | Semlali Yahdih | human resource management | King faisal university – K Saudi Arabia |
| 03 | Assem Serour | accounting and auditing | University of deraya Minya - Egypt |
| 04 | Eldirdiri Fadol Ibrahim | Management | University of Khartoum- Sudan |
| 05 | Behih Abdelkader | Financial and banks | UDL Sidi bel abbes – Algeria |
| 06 | Maamir Abdellatif | Marketing | University of Sfax - Tunisia |
| 07 | Ouired Zouaoui | production operations management | UDL Sidi bel abbes – Algeria |
| 08 | Kerbouche Mohamed | Management | University of mascara – Algeria |
| 09 | Benzair Mebarek | Economic analysis | University of bechar – Algeria |
| 10 | Bendida Houari | human resource management | UDL Sidi bel abbes – Algeria |
| 11 | Kateb Karim | Economic sciences | University of Oran – Algeria |
| 12 | Zairi Belkacem | Finance and international trade | University of Oran – Algeria |
| 13 | Keddi Abdelmadjid | Money and public finance | University of Algiers – Algeria |

Source: prepared by researcher 2022

For this purpose, (LAWSHE) equation was used to calculate the content validity ratio (CVR) between the referee’s professor on the extent to which the items represent the objectives that fell under it as follows:

$$CVR = \frac{Ne - \frac{N}{2}}{\frac{n}{2}}$$

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

CVR: has been calculated for the essentiality of each question, where a higher score (between 1 and -1) indicated higher agreement among expert panel members.

In the formula,

CVR = Content Validity Ratio

N= Total number of raters

n= number of experts indicating “essential” for a question

According to the Lawshe method, the critical CVR needed to be ≥ 0.49 given a panel size of thirteen (13) experts

| Number of Experts | Minimum Value |
|-------------------|---------------|
| 6 | .99 |
| 8 | .78 |
| 10 | .62 |
| 15 | .49 |
| 20 | .42 |
| 25 | .37 |
| 30 | .33 |

The researcher found that the CVR is 0.7 For the complete questionnaire.

Reliability

Reliability is a measure of the instrument's consistency. The reliability of any measurement must first be shown before it can be considered legitimate. An assessment of a measuring procedure's accuracy and precision is known as its reliability. When a measurement is reliable, there is a lower chance that the result will be a result of a random mistake in the measurement. The Cronbach's alpha must be greater than .70 in order to be considered reliable (Nunnally, 1978).

Reliability of the instruments involves the degree to which a certain instrument delivers comparable findings across some repeated trials. The researcher used the pilot sample to pre-test each of the questionnaires. The data collected from the participants were not included in the main research. Pre-testing was undertaken to examine the questionnaire's structure and the order, meaning, and ambiguity of questions. Pre-testing was done in order to improve and

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

determine the reliability of the research instruments before they are employed in the real study (Nassazi, 2013).

The cronbach's alpha ranges from 0 to 1 GeorgeandP (2003) provides the following rules of thumb: “ $\geq .9$ Excellent, $\geq .8$ Good, $\geq .70$ Acceptable, $\geq .6$ Questionable, $\geq .5$ Poor, and $< .5$ unacceptable” (P.231)

For the purposes of this thesis, the internal consistency of the questionnaire was evaluated with a method known as Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). This method is widely used and it has subsumed the other two methods of reliability testing: split-half and test-retest.

In mathematical terms, Cronbach's alpha is the equivalent of the average of all possible split-half estimates. To allow the estimation of Cronbach's alpha all the split-half estimates from the sample and their resulting correlations are required (a statistical routine determines the random subset of items).

The determination of the alpha coefficient is simple, especially with the assistance of computer software. The formula of coefficient alpha computationally is as follow:

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{k}{k-1} \right) \left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i^2}{\sigma_t^2} \right)$$

Where:

k is the number of items on the scale,

σ_i^2 is the variance of scores on item i across subjects, and

σ_t^2 is the variance of total scores across subjects where the total score for each respondent represents the sum of the individual item scores.

Since Cronbach's alpha is a proportion, its value can vary between .00 and 1.00. The degree of internal consistency is usually considered acceptable if this coefficient is over 0.75 or better. the generally agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70, although it may

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research. However, for social research, a Cronbach alpha coefficient at least over 0.7 is required (Hoppas, 2013).

Accordingly, the results were presented in table 2 below that shows the result of each variable and the aggregate value.

Table 07 Reliability statistics

| Reliability Statistics | | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------|
| items | | | Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| Training strategy | Current practices of training | Training need | 0.82 | 09 |
| | | Training design | | 08 |
| | | Training delivery | | 07 |
| | | Training evaluation | | 07 |
| | Training effectiveness | | 0.809 | 06 |
| | Commitment of senior management | | 0.834 | 05 |
| | Adoption of modern technologies | | 0.810 | 05 |
| | Competencies development | | 0.898 | 13 |
| Employee engagement | | 0.853 | 09 | |

Source: SPSS questionnaires pilot test result, 2022

| Reliability Statistics | |
|------------------------|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| 0.873 | 69 |

3.12 Method of Data Analysis

Data obtained from respondents were analyzed according to the objective of the study. To make certain that the logically complete and consistent responses, data editing and coding were carried out by the researcher. Then, data were organized and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

For quantitative data, Likert Scales were weighed according to the level of agreement. These data were coded, organized, and tabulated by using descriptive statistics techniques with the help of Software Package for Social Science (SPSS 29 version) software and presented

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

through frequency, percentile, mean, and aggregate mean values, while the demographic analysis was presented using frequency distribution and percentages.

Finally, the data were compiled, tabulated, and assessed suitably. Interviewed individuals were given questions to answer and then their replies were recorded and summarized with the quantitative data. Accordingly, the summary data was assessed in short in accordance with the theoretical framework to arrive at meaningful findings and suggestions.

Questionnaires are systematized and can be applied to a large sample of people at the same time. As such, this data collection process is very pragmatic and allows researchers to collect data without spending much time and effort (Oppenheim, 2000).

The data acquired through questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS. The questionnaire was created and conducted in person and sent to SMEs workers who had attended training sessions. We relied on self-administered surveys because of their high response rate and a high degree of data correctness (Oppenheim, 2000).

3.13 Ethical Considerations

Throughout the duration of the study, the researcher remained scientifically objective. Every responder who participated in the research has been entitled to the right to privacy and dignity of treatment. Information acquired is retained under absolute confidentiality by the researcher. In accordance with APA guidelines, the authors gratefully appreciate the help and participation of all those who contributed, as well as the many sources from which they gathered their data.

This study's ethical foundations were the following. Fairness, respect for the integrity of persons, and openness on the side of respondents to provide information about the research's subject matter, as well as the restriction of its usage for academic purposes, are only a few examples of these values.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

3.14 Data Analysis Approach

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a component of multivariate statistical methods applied to analyze both direct and indirect links between one or more independent latent variables and one or more dependent latent variables (Gefen et al., 2000). With SEM numerous multivariate statistical studies may be undertaken, including regression analysis, path analysis, factor analysis, canonical correlation analysis, and growth curve modeling. Structural Equation Modeling enables researchers to examine the overall fit of a model and to test the structural model altogether (Gefen et al., 2000).

SEM not only examines the predicted structural links across constructs, but also the linkages that exist between a construct and its related measurements. When performing SEM appropriately, it delivers benefits over the first generation of analytic methods (e.g., principal component analysis, factor analysis, or multiple regression). SEM gives flexibility for researchers to examine the interaction between theory and data (Chin, 1998). In fact, it has been observed that SEM helps researchers to:

- (1) model relationships among multiple predictors and criterion variables;
- (2) construct unobservable latent variables;
- (3) model errors in measurement for observed variables; and,
- (4) statistically test a priori theoretical and measurement assumptions against empirical data (Chin, 1998).

Rules of Thumb for Selecting CB-SEM or PLS-SEM in for a researcher to select which statistical techniques to utilize, knowing the assumptions underpinning both statistical approaches are essential. The decision between CBSEM and PLS-SEM may be made based on numerous variables such as research purpose, kinds of measurement model definition, the modeling of the structural model, data characteristics, and model assessment (Hair et al., 2011). According to Hair et al., (2011), there are numerous rules of thumb that may be utilized as advice when picking between PLS-SEM and CB-SEM.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

In order to choose between these two methodologies, the researcher must first determine the purpose of the study before making a final decision. Using CB-SEM is an effective strategy to use when the goal of the study is to test or confirm a theoretical hypothesis. As a result, while testing a theory, the capacity to explain how well a theoretical model matches the observable facts is required (Barclay et al., 1995). According to Barclay et al. (1995), CB-SEM is better suited for modeling situations where the goal is to reduce the covariance matrix of the model.

This has always been one of the advantages of CB-SEM. PLS-SEM, on the other hand, is appropriate when the goal of the study is to make predictions and construct theories. Aims for this sort of modeling include the identification of correlations between variables that are best predicted and the maximization of the amount of covariance between latent variables to improve the model's interpretation.

Second, CB-SEM is restricted to research models that make use of reflecting constructs, and nothing else. Although prior research has used formative measures within the structural model, they have often resulted in identification issues (Henseler et al., 2009). For example, the use of formative constructs inside CB SEM would result in a scenario in which the explanation of the covariance of all indicators is no longer viable to achieve (Chin, 1998b). Furthermore, when CB-SEM is used to handle both reflecting and formative variables, the results are reasonably consistent (Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010).

On the other hand, PLS-SEM can be employed to analyze a research model that consists of both reflective and formative constructs (Chin, 1998b). Thus, PLS enables researchers to use either reflective, formative, or the combination of both reflective and formative constructs at the same time.

Third, CB-SEM is predicated on a set of assumptions that must be satisfied before any further analysis can be performed. These assumptions involve the evaluation of 1) multivariate normality of the data, 2) observation independence, and 3) variable metric uniformity of the variables (Sosik et al., 2009). The data must have a normal distribution in order to be used with CBSEM, and the sample size must be high. If any of the assumptions are broken, the findings of the CB-SEM will be incorrect (Hair et al., 2011). PLS-SEM, on the other hand, is a more robust technique that may be used to examine data that does not follow a normal distribution.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Data normality is also not a need since PLS makes use of standardization methods that turn any non-normal data into data that complies with the central limit theorem, hence eliminating the need for this requirement.

Finally, the primary goal of the PLS-SEM is to test and/or forecast the theoretical model that has been proposed based on the literature, rather than to determine which other model is more closely aligned with the data (Sosik et al., 2009). In PLS, the residuals on manifest and latent variables are associated, enabling PLS to "estimate" the variables. Table 9 highlights the general rules of thumb for deciding between CB-SEM and PLS-SEM selection.

Table 08 the rules of thumb for selecting CB-SEM and PLS-SEM

| Criteria to evaluate | CB-SEM | PLS-SEM |
|--|--------|---------|
| 1. Research objective | | |
| 1.1 Predicting key target constructs | | * |
| 1.2 Theory testing, theory confirmation, or comparison of alternative theories | * | * |
| 1.3 Exploratory an extension of an existing structural theory | | |
| 2. Measurement model specification | | |
| 2.1 If formative constructs are part of the structural model | | * |
| 2.2 If error terms require additional specifications such as co-variation | * | |
| 3. Structural model | | |
| 3.1 If a structural model is complex | | * |
| 3.2 If a structural model is non-recursive | * | |
| 4. Data characteristics and algorithm | | * |
| 4.1 Data meet distributional assumptions | * | * |
| 4.2 Data did not meet distributional assumptions | | * |
| 4.3 Small sample size consideration | * | * |
| 4.4 Large sample size consideration | * | |
| 4.5 Non-normal distribution | | * |
| 4.6 Normal distribution | | |
| 5. Model evaluation | | |
| 5.1 Use latent variable scores in subsequent analyses | * | |
| 5.2 Requires global goodness of fit criterion | * | * |

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| 5.3 Need to test for measurement model invariance | | |
|---|--|--|

Source: Adapted from Henseler et al. (2009) and Hair et al. (2011)

3.15 Review of Research Methodology and Analytical Methods

Cluster analysis, multiple regression, and logistic regression have been the most widely utilized multivariate approaches in the last two decades. However, to obtain statistical significance, these approaches need the assumption of normal distribution and a high number of participants (Hair et al. 2017). The use of new methodologies, such as structural equation modeling, has begun in recent years, according to academics (Hair et al. 2017).

A model for measuring relationships between latent variables is referred to as structural equation modeling (SEM). PLS-SEM is a novel multivariate approach that has gained popularity since it does away with the limitations of older techniques in terms of correcting for measurement error, among other things.

The strengths of PLS-SEM are a few key characteristics of its usage that make data collection more practical and flexible (Hair et al., 2017).

First and foremost, PLS-SEM is a nonparametric approach that does not rely on the assumption of a normal distribution. As is well known, achieving normal distribution is challenging, particularly when the researcher is unable to conduct random sampling owing to specific research restrictions during data collection, as is the case here.

Second, despite the use of limited sample size, PLS-SEM provides enough statistical power. PLS-SEM needs a modest sample size when compared to other analytic techniques such as multiple regression, even though a higher sample size would result in improved accuracy of the estimate. In the case of PLS-SEM, the sample size requirement is "ten times the highest number of formative indicators used to assess a single construct" or "ten times the most recent number of structural routes aimed towards a specific construct in the structural model" (Hair et al., 2017). Another option is to use the G-Power program to compute the minimal sample size required for a certain experiment.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Third, the PLS-SEM can assess both the measurement model and the structural model at the same time, which is quite convenient. It may indicate the relative value of an indicator inside a construct as well as the relative importance of a construct to the endogenous latent variables when used in conjunction with a construct analysis.

Fourth, reflective and formative measurement models can be easily incorporated into the structural model. PLS-SEM is able to analyze a model with complex relationships.

Fifth, PLS-SEM is capable of dealing with missing data with ease, provided that the number of missing values is less than the tolerable threshold. In general, methodologies are chosen in accordance with the research objectives and the type of empirical data collected. Because of the bootstrapping approach used in PLS-SEM, there is reduced inaccuracy in measurement. The selection of this analysis method was influenced by a few key characteristics of PLS-SEM, including the fact that there is no specific requirement for normal distribution of data, the ability to analyze all constructs and their indicators at the same time, and the ability to deal with small sample sizes for exploratory purposes (Hair et al., 2017).

Despite the fact that it provides the advantages listed above, PLS-SEM has certain limitations. A structural model that has circular linkages or causal loops will not be handled by this program. It is also not suggested for confirmatory purposes since there is no suitable global goodness-of-model fit metric at the time of the study. Recognizing that there is currently no widely accepted goodness-of-model fit metric for PLS-SEM, it is advised that reliability and validity tests be performed to assess the model's quality and predictive capacity (Hair et.al.,2017).

3.16 Introduction to Structural Equation Modelling and Partial Least Squares

The introduction of structural equation modeling with latent variables has altered the character of research in a variety of fields. Since Jöreskog's initial work on maximum likelihood factor analysis in 1967, as well as its subsequent applications to the estimation of structural equation systems (Jöreskog, 1972), structural equation modeling (SEM), has emerged as one of the most essential tools for conducting empirical research. It has been used widely in the fields of psychology, management, and marketing, among others. A general approach to structural equation modeling is currently divided into two categories: covariance-based

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

structural equation modeling (CB-SEM), which is implemented in software such as LISREL, AMOS, and EQS, and variance-based structural equation modeling, also known as Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM).

Model parameters are estimated such that the theoretical covariance matrix predicted by structural equations may be as near as feasible to an empirically observed covariance matrix inside the fitted model, which CB-SEM emphasizes.

When maximum likelihood (ML) estimation is used, several assumptions must be met, such as that the observed indicators have a multivariate normal distribution and that the sample size is large enough. The PLS-SEM method (Hair et al., 2014) would be a good alternative for researchers if any of these assumptions were broken. In contrast to CB-SEM, a PLS-SEM analysis does not need the fulfillment of any distributional assumptions and thus is capable of providing strong and accurate fits even for very small sample sizes.

3.17 A Review of Applications of PLS-SEM

Structure models are tested using the PLS-SEM variance-based technique. Using PLS-SEM has been more popular among business researchers in recent years (Henseler et al., 2009). Summaries of works using PLS-SEM are provided in the following sections, which illustrate this point. PLS-relevance SEMs and scope in business and management are highlighted, and this serves as a rationale for focusing the current study on missing data on PLS-SEM. Marketing, information systems, and strategic management are the three key business and management disciplines that these applications fall under.

3.17.1 PLS-SEM in Strategic Management

When it comes to strategic management, there have been five studies that have used PLS-SEM. Cool et al. (1989) proposed a structural model that incorporated and extended previous findings on the connections between risk-return outcomes and market share, conduct attributes of firms, and inter-firm rivalry. Because it doesn't need multivariate normal data, PLS-SEM proved very effective in this investigation.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

According to the results of a partial least squares causal model, researchers Johansson and Yip (1994) developed a model of a global strategy that takes into account the ability of an industry to become more globally competitive as well as the implementation of a global strategy as well as the results of that implementation in terms of performance. Because of its capacity to model latent constructs under non-normality and with limited sample size, PLS-SEM was selected over CB-SEM.

Birkinshaw et al. (1995) used a PLS-SEM to examine the association between a company's global integration strategy and its performance. This method was chosen over CB-SEM because the researchers wanted to be able to forecast the dependent variable in their investigation. To better understand how companies learn from their international joint ventures, Tsang (2002) put out a model. It was decided that a PLS-SEM would be more suited while the research model was in its infancy and hadn't been thoroughly tested yet.

3.18 Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling

Prior to the development of the PLS-SEM technique, Wold was working on principal component analysis (PCA). In 1979, it was fully established, with his first reference to PLS-SEM being made in 1985. (Wold, 1985). After Wold's discovery, several academics have continued to build and refine the algorithm based on it. Following is a brief introduction of PLS-SEM, its method, and the context in which it may be used.

3.18.1 The PLS-SEM Algorithm

In the PLS-SEM method, a preliminary phase is followed by an iterative main operation and a final phase. During the first step, all variables are normalized to make interpretation of the findings and the primary procedure's computations easier. There are two primary phases in the process.

In the first step, called outside approximation, the weighted sums of the manifest variables are used to estimate all of the unknown variables that aren't yet known. Each block of indicators gets the same weight in the first round. These weights are used to calculate latent variable scores for each case. After the next step, more iterations come up with more appropriate weights based

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

on real-world data and proxies for all the latent variables that were found in the next step. Ordinary least squares regression is used to figure out the weights.

The second stage is known as "inside approximation," and it develops proxies for each endogenous latent variable based on its connection with other nearby latent variables. OLS regression is applied once again. Using the new latent variable proxies from this regression, we may iterate this pair of outside and inside approximations one more time. This happens when prior iterations of the method fail to enhance the latent variable estimates by a significant enough margin. In the last step of the process, factor loadings, regression coefficients, and validation measures are generated, among other things. Algorithm results provide users with standardized regression coefficient weights for all latent variables and a load for each of the formative indicators as well as weights and loads for each of the reflective indicators.

3.19 Factor Analysis

The goal is to summarize patterns of correlations between observed variables, reduce a large number of observed variables to a smaller number, provide an operational description (regression equation) of an underlying process using observed variables, or theoretically test the existence of the underlying processes. Factor analysis may also be used to decrease a large number of linked variables to a more manageable amount before they are employed in other analyses such as multiple regression or multivariate variation analysis (Paudyal, 2020).

There are two methods for doing factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. In the early phases of a project, exploratory analysis is used to gather data regarding (explore) the interrelationships between a number of variables. Confirmatory factor analysis is a more complicated and advanced set of procedures for analyzing (confirming) certain hypotheses or theoretical ideas that underpin numerous variables later in the research process (Paudyal, 2020).

Exploratory factor analysis is used to categorize the number of variables that influence them and to determine which variables are connected. One underlying notion of EFA is that the data set includes common 'latent' components, and the goal is to determine a limited number of common factors that consider the correlations. As another way of looking at factor analysis, the dependent variables are referred to as 'surface characteristics,' while the underlying processes

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

(factors) are referred to as 'interior attributes' (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Common factors influence more than one surface property, while unique factors influence just one particular variable (Yong and Pearce 2013).

Factor analysis, which is used to study 'groups' of variables (e.g. factors), can reduce large data sets with numerous variables - in other words, factor analyses aggregate related variables into descriptive categories (Yong and Pearce 2013). For research including a few or hundreds of variables, questionnaire questions, or a smaller-set battery of tests, factor analysis is effective for determining an underlying definition and facilitating interpretation.

Factor analysis is useful for categorizing variables rather than attempting to take too many variables into consideration, which may be trivial. Other applications of factor analysis include data processing, hypothesis testing, visualization, and scaling. A factor analysis requires both univariate and multivariate normality in the data. It is also critical that no univariate or multivariate outliers exist. A sample size of at least 300 people is recommended. Each variable under consideration for factor analysis will contain five to ten observations (Paudyal, 2020).

Because a higher sample size reduces data inaccuracy, EFA often works better with bigger sample sizes. Ordinal or continuous variables are commonly used in factor analysis, however categorical and dichotomous variables may also be used (Yong and Pearce 2013). After the initial factor analysis, the observed matrix will create multiple sets of factors, which must be rotated. Factor rotation is a technique for explaining relationships with the correspondence matrix in order to get the simplest structure possible (Paudyal, 2020).

3.20 Measurement Model

There are two types of measurement models used in measurement studies that incorporate several indicators of latent constructs (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). The two models are the principal factor model, also known as the reflecting model, and the composite latent variable model, also known as the formative model.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

3.20.1 Principle Factor Model

The key factor model is the most extensively used latent variable measurement model, in which covariation across measures is generated by variance in the underlying latent factor and hence reflects it (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

The causal chain runs from the construction to the indicators, and it is postulated that changes in the underlying construction cause changes in the indicators. The latent variable in this model has an effect on the indicators, accounting for their inter-correlations (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

Reflective indicators of a substantial latent construction element should be internally consistent, and since all measurements are regarded as equally legitimate indicators of the underlying structure, two equally accurate measures should be interchangeable (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

Concepts such as purchase-intention attitudes, for example, are typical instances of acceptable applications of the reflective indicator model in practice (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). An attitude is commonly defined as a tendency to react to something in a consistently favorable or unfavorable way. Attitudes are typically calculated on multi-item scales with endpoints such as good-bad, like-dislike, and favorable-unfavorable, among other things (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). When calculating purchasing intentions, subjective assessments of how likely-unlikely, likely-unlikely, and/or potentially impossible future transactions are viewed are typically used.

3.20.2 Composite Latent Model

Changes in the measures are thought to create changes in the underlying structure of the composite latent variable model. As a consequence, the model's findings were considered causative (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). Unlike the reflecting model, this model does not assume that all stages are produced by a single underlying structure (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). Rather than that, it posits that all interventions have an effect on a single idea (or cause). In other words, causation runs from the indicators to the latent structure, and the indicators

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

collectively determine the structure's conceptual and empirical relevance (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

Given that some have theorized that the latent concept is impacted by rather than by formative phases, they may be related, but this is not inferred or equated by the model (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). Additionally, it would be quite consistent to have completely uncorrelated formative signs (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). This may be the case when a latent composite structure is modeled using mutually incompatible behavioral forms.

3.20.3 Similarities Between Two Models

The styles of the two measurement models are rather similar. The measuring methods for reflective and formative indicators have greater importance than the actual items employed to assess them (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). In other words, these structures contain terms that are not entirely reducible to empirical terms; they refer to processes or entities that are not specifically observed (though they do not have to be non-observable in theory); their mathematical interpretation cannot be established simply by a suitable grouping of terms in a direct empirical equation; and the truth of the empirical laws involved is a requirement (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003)

The correct measurement model will be used in conjunction with four sets of questions (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). The steps are as below:

Step first: The first set of questions focuses on the relationship of causation between the notion and its indicators (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). For formative measurement models, causation runs from the measurement to the construct, while for reflective measurement models, it flows from the construct to the measurements (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

Step two: The interchangeability of the indication is the second phase. Indicators should not be interchangeable with formative measurement models, but they should be for reflective measurement models (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

Step three: The degree to which the indicators are multicollinear. The third consideration is whether or not the measurements will conflict with one another. Covariation among the

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

indicators is not necessary or indicated in formative indicator models, but it is an essential requirement in reflective indicator models (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

Step four: The fourth criterion is whether or not all subjects will be presented in the same context and have the same outcomes (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). Because all indicators represent the same underlying structure and are designed to be interchangeable in the reflective indicator model, they should all have the same context and implications (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003). Because the indicators do not always reflect the same parts of the construct's environment and are therefore not intrinsically identical, there is no reason to presume that they have the same history and consequences in the formative indicator model (Jarvis, MacKenzie, et al. 2003).

3.21 Model Evaluation

The evaluation of model structures is based on a number of factors. In general, a two-step approach is used to apply the various criteria systematically:

(1) the assessment of the measurement model and, (2) the assessment of the structural model. To assess the measurement models, reflective and formative models have been distinguished.

3.21.1 Assessment of the Measurement Models

- Assessment of Reflective Measurement Models

Unidimensionality refers to a latent variable whose measurement items are more closely related to it than to any other latent variable. Exploratory factor analysis may be used to examine it (EFA). The goal of EFA is to see whether the measuring items are convergent with the related constructs (factors). If the loading coefficient is more than 0.6, the item loading is regarded as high; if the value is less than 0.4, the item loading is considered low (Gefen & Straub, 2005).

Cronbach's alpha (CA) and composite reliability (CR) are two conventional criteria for evaluating internal consistency reliability (Henseler, 2010). Because CA implies that all indicators are equally reliable, the internal consistency reliability of latent variables in PLS-SEM is often underestimated. CR, on the other hand, considers the fact that indicators have

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

various loadings (Henseler, 2010). An internal consistency reliability value over 0.7 in the early phases of research, and values above 0.8 in more advanced stages, is deemed excellent, but a value below 0.6 suggests a poor contribution to the construct, regardless of whether the reliability coefficient is utilized.

Indicator Reliability determines how much of the variation in the indicators is explained by the latent variable. To measure indicator reliability, the researcher may track the loadings of reflective indicators. In general, a latent variable is thought to explain at least 50% of the variation in each indicator.

As a result, indicator loadings should be more than 0.7 and substantially different from zero, at least at the 0.05 level (Chin, 2010).

Convergent Validity relates to the degree to which individual objects load into their assigned construct. A regularly employed criterion for convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE) introduced by Fornell & Larcker (1981). An AVE value of at least 0.5 shows significant convergent validity, implying that a latent variable is able to explain at least half of the variation of its indicators on average.

Finally, **Discriminant Validity** is concerned with the degree to which various constructions' measurements vary from one another. Two metrics of discriminant validity are typically utilized in PLS-SEM. Cross-loadings are calculated by associating the component scores of each latent variable with each of the indicator variables for the first measure (Chin, 2010). It may be deduced that the construct indicators are not interchangeable if each indicator's loading is greater for its designated construct than for any component scores of the other constructs, and each construct loads greatest with its allocated items. The Fornell-Larcker criteria (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) specifies that a latent variable must share more variance with its assigned indicators than any other latent variable. As a result, the AVE of each latent variable should be larger than the greatest squared correlation of the latent variable with any other latent variable.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Table 09 Summaries of Validity Guidelines for Assessing Reflective Measurement Model

| Validity Type | Guidelines |
|-----------------------|--|
| Internal consistency | CR > 0.7 (for exploratory study) CR > 0.8 (advance research) CR < 0.6—lack of reliability |
| Indicator reliability | Item's loading > 0.7 and significant at least at the 0.05 level |
| Convergent validity | AVE > 0.50 |
| Discriminant validity | Cross loading: The item's loading of each indicator is highest for its designated construct. The square root of the AVE of a construct should be greater than the correlations between the construct and other constructs in the model (Fornell & Larcker). |

- **Assessment of Formative Measurement Models**

The validation of formative measurement models requires a different approach to that applied to reflective models. Henseler (2010) suggests assessing the validity of formative constructs on two levels: that for indicators and that for constructs.

The relevance of the indicator weights should be monitored using bootstrapping to measure the indicator level. A significant level of at least 0.05 indicates that an indicator is useful for the building of the formative index and has enough validity. In addition, the variance inflation factor should be calculated to determine the degree of multicollinearity among the formative indicators (VIF). The VIF shows how much of an indicator's variance may be explained by other indicators in the same construct. Multicollinearity is not a problem if the value falls below the usually recognized threshold of 10. (Mohd Jamil, 2012).

A test for nomological validity might be the initial step in determining the construct level. In this situation, nomological validity indicates that the formative concept performs as predicted inside a net of hypotheses. As a result, the links between the formative construct and the other model constructs (which have been adequately discussed in previous work) should be strong

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

and substantial (Henseler et al., 2009). The concept varies enough from the others if the correlations between formative and all other constructs are less than 0.7.

Reflective measurement models need different reliability and validity tests than formative measurement models due to their nature. Internal consistency (composite reliability), indicator reliability, convergent validity (average variance extracted), and discriminant validity are four kinds of tests that are used to evaluate reflective measurement models. The following are the thumb guidelines for the tests mentioned above (Hair et al., 2017):

- a) Internal consistency (composite reliability above 0.70)
- b) Indicator outer loading (0.40- 0.70)
- c) Convergent reliability (average variance extracted is 0.50 or above)
- d) Discriminant validity (Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio should be below 0.85 for general variables, and below 0.90 for variables with a similar concept)

Convergent validity, collinearity, statistical significance, and the relevance of the indicator weights are three kinds of tests used to evaluate the formative measurement model. The following are the thumb guidelines for the aforementioned tests (Hair et al., 2017):

- a) Convergent validity (Path coefficient above 0.70)
- b) Collinearity (Each indicator's tolerance (VIF) value must be more than 0.20 and less than 5)
- c) Statistical significance and the relevance of the indicator weights (Bootstrapping routine to check t values and p-values, loading should be above 0.50)

To describe how well the statistical model fits a set of observations (between observed values and the values expected in the model), the global model fit needs to be calculated.

Table 10 describes the global model fit indices for SEM-based PLS-SEM considering CFA (Hair et al.,2017).

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Table 10 Indices of Global Model Fit.

| Fit Indices | Statistical Notation | Formula |
|------------------------------|----------------------|--|
| Construct Reliability | CR | $CR = \frac{\sum (\lambda_{n,m})^2}{\sum (\lambda_{n,m})^2 + \sum (\text{Var}(\epsilon_{n,m}))}$ |
| Average Variance Extracted | AVE | $Ave = \frac{\sum (\text{Communalities})^2}{n}$ |
| Blindfolding Criteria Index | F2(A/B) | $F^2\left(\frac{A}{B}\right) = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$ |
| Goodness of Fit | GOF | $GOF = \sqrt{\text{Communality} * \overline{R^2}}$ |
| Coefficient of Determination | R2 | $R^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{L(0)}{L(\alpha)}\right)^{2/n}$ |

Source: (Hair et al.,2017)

3.21.2 Assessment of the Structural Model

The structural model may be examined when the measurement model has been properly verified. The coefficient of multiple determinations (R2) for each endogenous component is the first and most important criteria for evaluating the PLS-SEM. R2 is a measure of a latent variable's explained variance in relation to its overall variance. R2 values of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 in PLS-SEM path models are described as considerable, moderate, and weak, respectively, by Chin (1998).

The examination of the regression coefficients between the verified latent variables is the next stage in assessing the structural model. The regression coefficient algebraic signs, magnitudes, and significances should all be checked by the researcher. The study hypotheses corresponding to paths whose signs are contradictory to the theoretically expected connection are not supported. The value of a regression coefficient reveals how strong the association between two latent variables is. To account for a substantial influence inside the model, some writers propose that regression coefficients should be greater than 0.1. (Henseler et al., 2009). Regression coefficients should also be statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Resampling methods such as bootstrapping or jackknifing are often employed to determine the relevance.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Finally, another evaluation of the structural model concerns the model's power to anticipate. The predictive significance of the structural model is tested by the Stone-Geisser's Q2 statistic (M. Stone, 1974), which may be quantified by utilizing blindfolding techniques (Tenenhaus et al., 2005).

Only once the model has been verified can the findings obtained by the PLS-SEM method be interpreted. As a result, the structural model's hypotheses may be classified as either verified or rejected. After that, the researcher may answer his or her research questions, make findings, and draw implications for theory and practice. Finally, it is possible to determine the necessity for more investigation.

Next, the structural model shall be assessed by the tests as below (Hair et.al, 2017):

- a) Coefficient of determination (R2): R2 depends on the research discipline
- b) Cross-validated redundancy (Q2) – Q2 should be above zero to show predictive relevance.
- c) Size and significance of Path coefficients (-1 to +1)
- d) f2 effect sizes (0.02 indicates small contribution, 0.15 indicates medium and 0.35 indicates large construct's contribution of exogenous construct on endogenous construct)
- e) Collinearity between predictor constructs (Each indicator's tolerance (VIF) value must be more than 0.20 and less than 5)

Furthermore, since there is no goodness of fit index to discriminate between valid and invalid models, researchers should avoid using GoF (Goodness-of-fit index) (Hair et.al, 2017). Instead, the aforementioned reliability and validity test should be used to assess the quality of the PLS-SEM model.

Table 11 Structural model validity guidelines for assessing reflective structural model

| No | Criterion | Guideline |
|----|--|---|
| | Coefficient of determination (R2) | 0.67—substantial 0.333—moderate 0.190—weak |
| | Path coefficients | Path coefficient must be at least 0.100 and at significance (at least 0.05) |

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

3.22 Mediating Effect

Using the notion of mediating effect proposed by (Hayes, 2013), this research bootstraps the indirect impact to assess the mediating effect. In comparison to Baron and Kenny, Hayes (2013) recommends this strategy as a more appropriate way to assess a mediating impact (1986).

For interpretation of mediating effect results, Hair et al. (2017) recommended the procedure outlined in Chen (2010).

3.23 Chapter Summary

The research methodologies used, the variables of interest and data analysis methods have all been described in this chapter. The study issues were investigated utilizing a positivist technique that included surveys and interviews with top executives.

The discussion in this chapter reflects the growing popularity of partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) in a variety of domains. There has been a discussion of the differences between PLS-SEM and covariance-based methods to SEM. The PLS-SEM method is described in detail, and a framework for empirical research using PLS-SEM is supplied.

This chapter also included a summary of works that used PLS-SEM in a variety of settings. Finally, the final part reviewed past research that provided examples of how to deal with missing SEM data.

4 Chapter four

Research Findings and Discussions

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.1 Data Analysis and Interpretation

In this chapter, data gathered through questionnaires are presented, analyzed, and interpreted using percentages, frequencies, mean and standard deviation with the help of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 29 and SEM PLS. To collect relevant data, 260 questionnaires were distributed to employees of six (06) SMEs in the city of Sidi Bel Abbas. Among the questionnaires distributed to employees (260 questionnaires), the researcher collected 242 which accounts 93.07 % response rate, 18 of them were unfiled and not returned.

This response rate was very good to make conclusions on the effect of training strategy on competencies development. Accordingly, the analysis of this study was based on the number of questionnaires collected. According to the organized questionnaires the researcher produced the following analyses.

The findings of studies done using the statistical approach outlined in Chapter 3 are presented in this chapter. As recommended by prior research, this chapter follows the generally recognized reporting style of PLS analysis (Chin, 2010). First, the measurement model's validity and reliability are evaluated, and then the structural model is verified. A post-hoc study is undertaken to analyze this impact since this dissertation entails examining the mediating function of employee engagement on competency development. This chapter also includes the preliminary study's findings, as well as a summary.

4.2 Personal Information of the Respondents

The first section of the questionnaire consists of six items about the demographic characteristics of the respondents such as:

gender group of respondents, age, educational levels, Current position, Years of work experience of the respondents, frequency of training, and relevance of the training for the respondent. The following table summarized the data pointed out by the respondents.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 12 Personal Information of the Respondents

| Variables | Category | Results | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|------------|
| | | Respondents (n) | percentage |
| Gender | Male | 135 | 58,4% |
| | female | 96 | 41,6% |
| | Total | 231 | 100% |
| Age | less than 30 | 60 | 26% |
| | between 31 and 45 | 118 | 51,1% |
| | Between 46 and 55 | 42 | 18,2% |
| | above 55 | 11 | 04,8% |
| | Total | 231 | 100% |
| Educational level | Secondary level and below | 27 | 11,7% |
| | Bachelor | 24 | 10,4% |
| | Bachelor's Degree | 94 | 40,7% |
| | Master Certificate | 84 | 36,4% |
| | Ph.D. | 02 | 0,9% |
| | Total | 231 | 100% |
| Current position | Director | 07 | 03% |
| | Deputy Director | 35 | 15,2% |
| | Head of the Department | 28 | 12,1% |
| | Head of service | 36 | 15,6% |
| | Employee | 125 | 54,1% |
| | Total | 231 | 100% |
| Years of work experience | Less than 05 years | 42 | 18,2% |
| | 6 years to 10 years | 117 | 50,6% |
| | 11 years to 15 years | 39 | 16,9% |
| | above 16 years | 33 | 14,3% |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| | | | |
|----------------------------|------------------|-----|-------|
| | Total | 231 | 100% |
| Number of training courses | one course | 83 | 35,8% |
| | above one course | 148 | 64,1% |
| | Total | 231 | 100% |

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

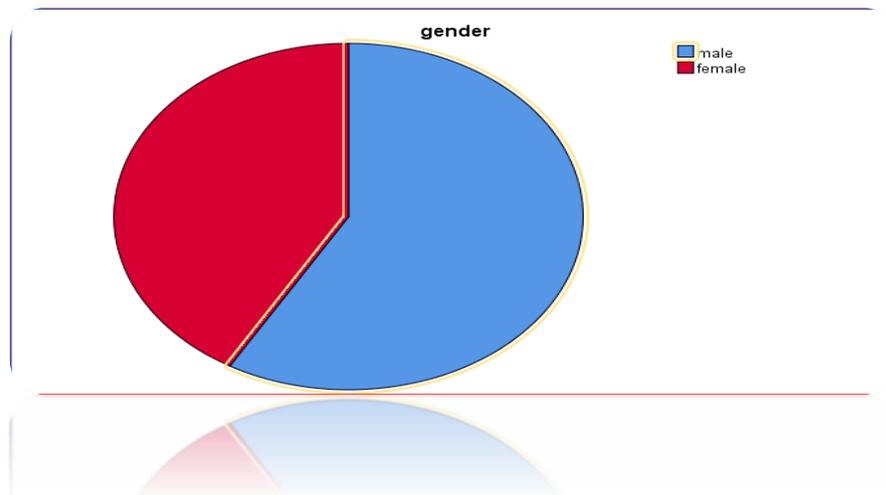
4.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The researcher sought to establish the demographic characteristics of the respondents to ascertain the distribution of the respondents concerning the target population.

The demographic data were also essential in explaining some of the replies. The demographic features of the respondents that were of interest to this research were; gender, age distribution, educational level, present position, years of work experience, and finally number of training courses.

4.2.1.1 Gender of the Respondents

Figure 21 Gender of the respondents



As shown in the above table, Item No. 1 of the table represents the Gender distribution of respondents. Accordingly, 135 (58,4%) of the respondents were male and the remaining 96

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

(41,6%) were females. Therefore, from the sampled respondents there are a greater proportion of male respondents than the female.

4.2.1.2 Age Distribution of the Respondents

Figure 22 Age distribution of the respondents

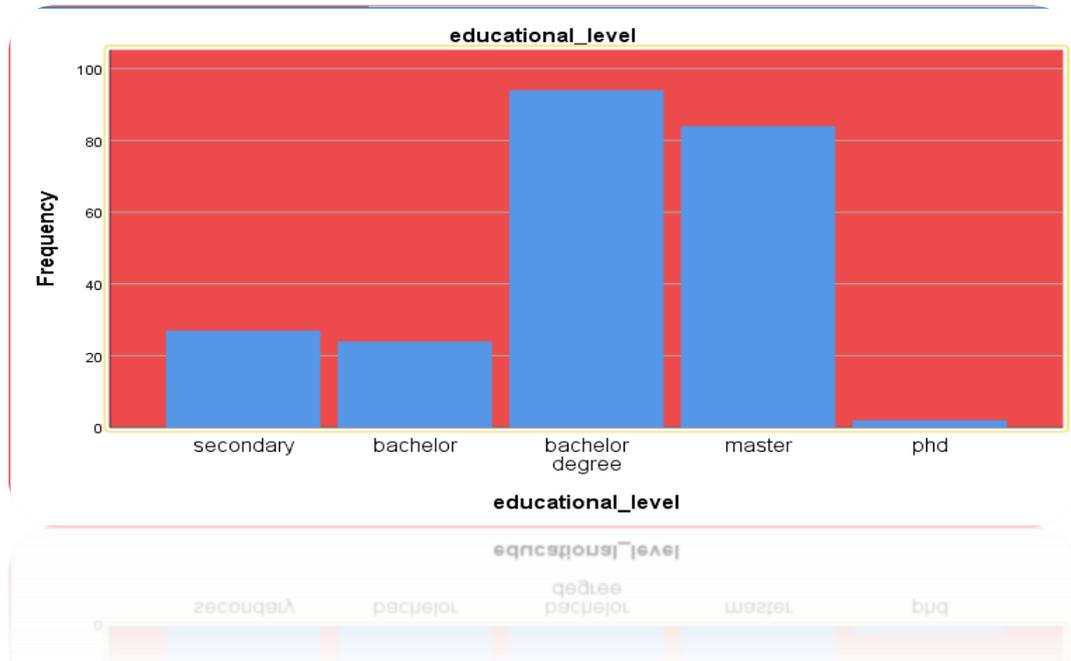


The study findings indicated that, the majority of the respondents 118 (51,1%) aged between 31-45 years, 60 (26%) aged less than 30 years, while 42 (18,2%) aged Between 46 and 55, and also those above 55 years were 11(04.8%), as indicated in figure 22. The results indicated that the study capture the information from the respondents across the ages, hence the reflection of the opinion of the entire population.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.2.1.3 Education Level

Figure 23 Education level



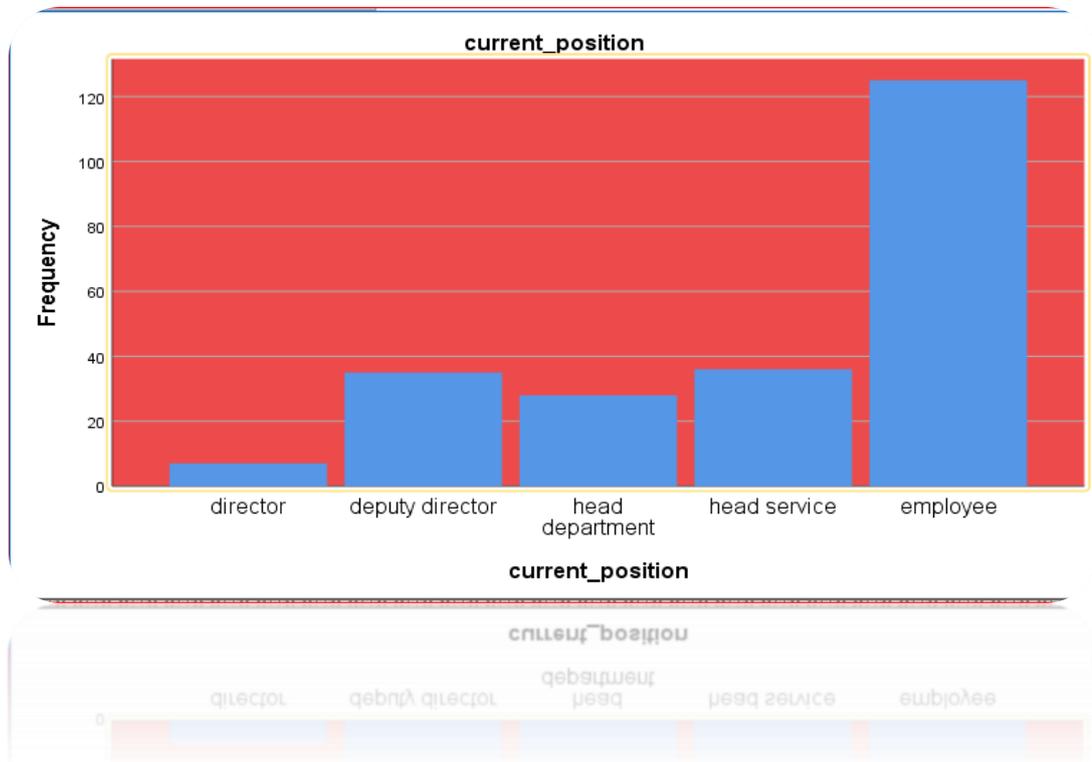
Most of the respondents 94 (40.7%) had a bachelor's degree, 84 (36.4%) had a master's certificate while 27 (11.7%) had secondary level and below, and 24 (10.4%) had a bachelor's, finally, 02 (0.9%) respondents had a Ph.D. certificate as indicated in figure 23.

This shows that the majority of employees from the sample respondents are bachelor's and master's degree holders. This implies that most of the respondents are aware to give adequate information and also, they are capable of quickly understanding the current practices of training given and implementing to their own tasks.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.2.1.4 Current Position

Figure 24 Current position

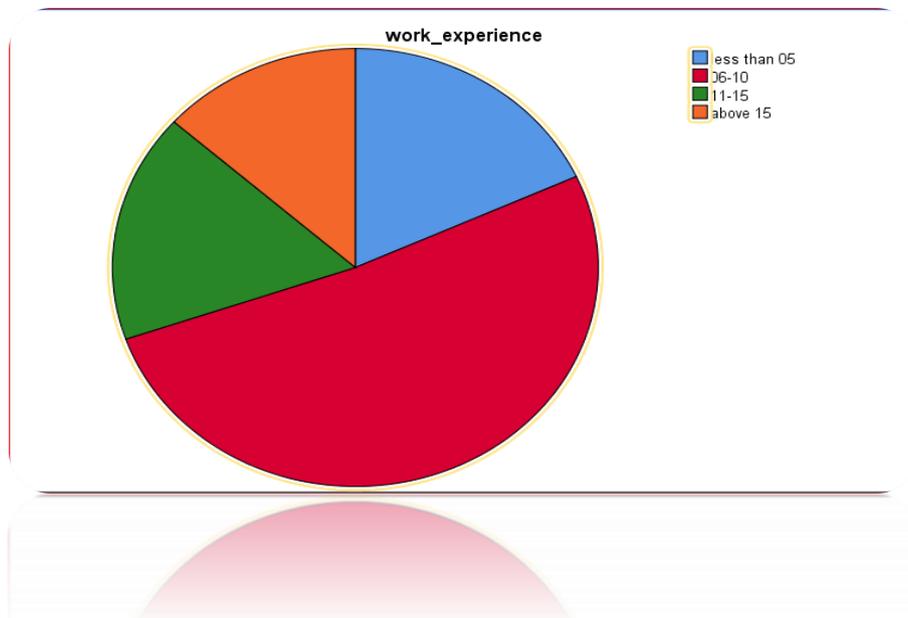


In the above table (3) item No. 3, it can be seen that the most of the respondents 125 (54.1%) are employees in SMEs, 36 (15.6%) are heads of service and 35 (15.2%) are deputies' director while 28 (12.1%) are heads of department from the sample respondents, finally, 07 (03%) are directors.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.2.1.5 Work Experience

Figure 25 Work experience

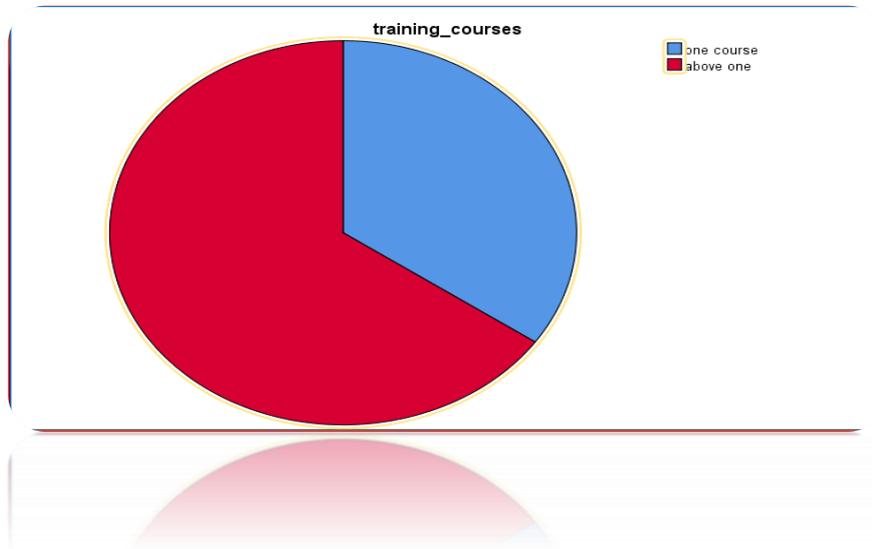


In the above table (3) item No. 3, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents served between 6 to 10 years 117 (50.6%) in SMEs in the city of Sidi Bel Abbes, 42 (18.2%) served less than 05 years, 39 (16.9%) served between 11 years to 15 years while 33 (14.3%) served above than 16 years, this indicates that the majority of respondents are young talent and newly recruited.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.2.1.6 Number of Training Courses

Figure 26 training courses



The schedule of employee training at SMEs as reported in the above table indicates that the majority of respondents represented 148 (64.1%) selected in many training courses in their enterprises but only 83 (35.8%) of respondents participated in one training course.

4.3 Analysis of Collected Data

4.3.1 Descriptive Data Analysis

In section two, in the questionnaire research related questions were covered such as: about training needs assessment with 09 items, training design with 08 items, training delivery with 07 items, training assessment with 07 items, the commitment of senior management with 06 items, training effectiveness with 05 items and the adoption of modern's technologies with 05 items, competencies development with 13 items, finally employee engagement with 09 items. Accordingly, the respondents have guided the following Likert scale approach listed in the table below: Strongly Disagree (SDA) =1, Disagree (DA) =2, Neutral (N) =3, Agree (A) = 4, and Strongly Agree (SA) =5.

4.3.2 Targeted Questions Related to the Subject Matter of the Study

In this section different statistical data analysis tools such as frequency, percent mean and aggregate mean were used to analyze the collected data. The summary of descriptive statistics

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

of all variables that were evaluated based on a 5- point Likert scale (“1” being “Strongly disagree” to “5” Being “Strongly agree”) will be presented

Standards, for 5- point Likert Scale the Mean Score Values are interpreted as depicted in the table below:

Table 13 Comparison Base for Mean Score Values of Five Point Likert Scale Instruments

| S/No | Mean Score values | Description |
|----------|-------------------|-------------|
| 1 | ≤ 3.39 | Low |
| 2 | 3.40 - 3.79 | Moderate |
| 3 | ≥ 3.80 | High |

Table 14 indicator of variables “training needs assessment”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|-----------|----------------------------------|---|-------|--|
| 01 | Training Needs Assessment | The enterprise determines the shortcomings in the efficiency of employees and develops the necessary training programs | TNA01 | (Moh’d Abu Bakir, 2019) (Alemayehu, 2017) (Altarawneh, 2005) |
| | | The enterprise determines the training needs of employees at all levels | TNA02 | |
| | | The enterprise encourages the self-evaluation of employees to know the strengths, weaknesses, and obstacles they face during their work | TNA03 | |
| | | The enterprise determines the times of the training courses in line with the nature of the employee’s work | TNA04 | |
| | | The enterprise proposes many training courses, and the employees choose from them what covers their needs | TNA05 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|-------|--|
| | | The enterprise identifies the training needs through the observation of the direct supervisor | TNA06 | |
| | | The enterprise determines the training needs by comparing the current capabilities of the employees with the new work requirements | TNA07 | |
| | | The method used to determine the training needs according to personal relationships | TNA08 | |
| | | The method used to determine the training needs according to the work needs | TNA09 | |

Table 15 indicator of variables “training design”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|-----------|------------------------|--|------|---|
| 02 | Training Design | Design training programs in accordance with the needs of employees | TD01 | (Moh’d Abu Bakir, 2019) (Alemayehu, 2017) (Altarawneh, 2005) |
| | | The enterprise explains the goal to be achieved and how to achieve it when designing training programs | TD02 | |
| | | The enterprise makes the necessary adjustments to the training courses before and during the course | TD03 | |
| | | The training program is designed based on a scientific methodology in terms of defining objectives, content and methods used | TD04 | |
| | | The enterprise determines the human, spatial, and time requirements necessary to complete the training program | TD05 | |
| | | There is a constant repetition in the content of the training courses conducted by the enterprise | TD06 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| | | Training courses are provided according to the needs of the worker | TD07 | |
|---|--------------------------------|--|-------|---|
| | | Qualified trainers are used based on the type of training program | TD08 | |
| Table 16 indicator of variables “training delivery | | | | |
| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
| 03 | Training Delivery (TDL) | The enterprise is committed to implementing the training programs as planned to meet the training needs of the employees | TDL01 | <p style="text-align: center;">(Moh’d Abu Bakir, 2019)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(Alemayehu, 2017)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">(Altarawneh, 2005)</p> |
| | | Employees in various departments are subject to an integrated training program that covers their needs | TDL02 | |
| | | When implementing training programs, the enterprise provides the specialized components for integration to achieve the needs of the trainees | TDL03 | |
| | | The method of training is chosen based on the objective of the training program | TDL04 | |
| | | The method of training helps in collecting the content of the training program and contributes to improving skills | TDL05 | |
| | | The qualified trainers with the appropriate competencies are selected to implement the training programs | TDL06 | |
| | | The content of the training courses is presented according to the style of lectures and seminars | TDL07 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 17 indicator of variables “training assessment”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|----|--------------------------|---|------|--|
| 04 | Training Assessment (TA) | The enterprise uses multiple standards and criteria that help in evaluating training programs and determining the level of results accurately | TA01 | (Moh’d Abu Bakir, 2019) (Alemayehu, 2017) (Altarawneh, 2005) |
| | | The enterprise uses various tools to determine the efficiency of the training program and its ability to achieve the objectives | TA02 | |
| | | The enterprise takes the results of evaluating the training program and the suggestions of employees in the development of subsequent training programs | TA03 | |
| | | Training programs helped reduce turnover and employee absenteeism in enterprise | TA04 | |
| | | The method of comparing the performance of the trainee before and after training is used to observe all changes in skills and knowledges | TA05 | |
| | | The results of the training courses are evaluated through their reflection on the performance of the trainees | TA06 | |
| | | The trainee is evaluated upon completion of the training process | TA07 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 18 indicator of variables “the commitment of senior management”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|----|---|--|--------|-------------------------------|
| 05 | the Commitment of Senior Management (CSM) | The enterprise always works to provide employees with knowledge and develop their skills and abilities in a positive and constructive manner | CSM 01 | (Rumman & Al-Rahahalh (2016)) |
| | | The enterprise takes the strategic decisions affecting the long-term with regard to the development of the performance of employees | CSM 02 | |
| | | The enterprise analyzes the internal environment in terms of the efficiency of the workforce | CSM 03 | |
| | | The enterprise has the ability to prepare and formulate the training strategy and the training programs it includes in a way that contributes to integration with the strategy of the enterprise as a whole. | CSM 04 | |
| | | The enterprise has full conviction to adopt positive ideas for training strategies | CSM 05 | |
| | | Implementation of training strategies is among the senior management priorities | CSM 06 | |

Table 19 indicator of variables “training effectiveness”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|----|-----------------------------------|--|-------|----------------------|
| 06 | Training Effectiveness (TE) | I was able to meet the objectives of the training. | TE 01 | (Alias et al., 2019) |
| | | The training significantly added to my store of knowledge. | TE 02 | |
| | | After undergoing training, employees can introduce new ways of performing their work | TE 03 | |
| | | The moral of the employees in the enterprise rises after completing the training | TE 04 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| | | | |
|--|---|-------|--|
| | Training improves long-term performance | TE 05 | |
|--|---|-------|--|

Table 20 indicator of variables “the adoption of modern technologies”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|-----------|--|---|--------|--|
| 07 | the Adoption of Modern Technologies (AMT) | The enterprise analyzes and studies the external environment in order to develop technology to keep pace with rapid environmental changes | AMT 01 | (Rumman & Al-Rahahalh (2016)) |
| | | The enterprise use of modern technology as a basis for the diversity of training programs | AMT 02 | |
| | | The enterprise is keen to train employees to apply modern technologies | AMT 03 | |
| | | The enterprise works on a strategy of adopting modern technology that is appropriate to the conditions of the external and internal environment | AMT 04 | |
| | | The enterprise uses electronic methods in training delivery | AMT 05 | |

Table 21 indicator of variables “competencies development”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|----|----------|--|-------|--------|
| | | My enterprise identifies the knowledge and skills I need to do my best job | CD 01 | |
| | | My enterprise is interested in increasing and developing my skills and efficiency since my appointment to the position | CD 02 | |
| | | My enterprise helps me diversify and develop my skills and competencies constantly, which makes me unique | CD 03 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| | | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|--|-------|---|
| 08 | Competencies Development (CD) | My enterprise helps me to prepare enough to take responsibility | CD 04 | (Thi, 2018) (Prasad & Green, 2015) |
| | | My enterprise helps me to solve problems and bear the pressures of work | CD 05 | |
| | | My enterprise helps me to raise my skills in using modern technology in my tasks | CD06 | |
| | | My enterprise helps me to improve my behavior and develop it better | CD07 | |
| | | My enterprise develops my abilities to plan, prioritize and implement them on time | CD08 | |
| | | My enterprise develops my decision-making capabilities in my work environment | CD09 | |
| | | My enterprise develops my ability to adapt to new and critical situations in my work | CD10 | |
| | | My enterprise pushes me to act firmly and honestly | CD11 | |
| | | My enterprise pushes me to work with others in one team and help them solve their problems | CD12 | |
| | | My enterprise pushes me to accept more responsibilities and challenges always | CD13 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 22 indicator of variables “employee engagement”

| No | Variable | Indicator | Code | source |
|-----------|---|--|-------|----------------------------|
| 09 | Employee Engagement (EE) | I know very well what is expected of me at work | EE 01 | (Gichohi, 2014) |
| | | My supervisor expresses confidence in my ability to do my job | EE 02 | |
| | | I feel the desire and vitality in my work environment | EE 03 | |
| | | I have great independence in doing my job without direct supervision | EE 04 | |
| | | I feel free and inspired to give my best at work | EE 05 | |
| | | I feel dedicated and serious about doing my job at a high level | EE 06 | |
| | | I involve my supervisor in many daily decisions | EE 07 | |
| | | My supervisor gives me a chance to express my opinions at work | EE 08 | |
| | | My supervisor thinks I can handle the tough tasks in my job | EE 09 | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Factor: training needs assessment

Table 23 Factor 1 (training needs assessment)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|--------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| TNA 01 | F | 93 | 77 | 23 | 26 | 12 | 3.92 | 1.19 | 2 | H |
| | % | 40.3 | 33.3 | 10 | 11.3 | 5.2 | | | | |
| TNA 02 | F | 60 | 123 | 17 | 27 | 04 | 3.90 | 0.97 | 3 | H |
| | % | 26 | 53.2 | 7.4 | 11.7 | 1.7 | | | | |
| TNA 03 | F | 77 | 95 | 28 | 28 | 03 | 3.93 | 1.02 | 1 | H |
| | % | 33.3 | 41.1 | 12.1 | 12.1 | 1.3 | | | | |
| TNA 04 | F | 57 | 103 | 29 | 36 | 06 | 3.73 | 1.07 | 6 | M |
| | % | 24.7 | 44.6 | 12.6 | 15.6 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TNA 05 | F | 62 | 70 | 47 | 42 | 10 | 3.57 | 1.18 | 8 | M |
| | % | 26.8 | 30.3 | 20.3 | 18.2 | 4.3 | | | | |
| TNA 06 | F | 64 | 95 | 33 | 31 | 08 | 3.76 | 1.10 | 5 | M |
| | % | 27.7 | 41.1 | 14.3 | 13.4 | 3.5 | | | | |
| TNA 07 | F | 62 | 103 | 26 | 32 | 08 | 3.77 | 1.09 | 4 | M |
| | % | 26.8 | 44.6 | 11.3 | 13.9 | 3.5 | | | | |
| TNA 08 | F | 53 | 84 | 36 | 43 | 15 | 3.50 | 1.21 | 9 | M |
| | % | 22.9 | 36.4 | 15.6 | 18.6 | 6.5 | | | | |
| TNA 09 | F | 58 | 95 | 34 | 35 | 09 | 3.68 | 1.12 | 7 | M |
| | % | 25.1 | 41.1 | 14.7 | 15.2 | 3.9 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement ‘**The enterprise determines the shortcomings in the efficiency of employees and develops the necessary training programs**’, 93 (40.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed that the enterprise determines the

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

shortcomings in the efficiency of employees, 77 (33.3%) of participants replied agree, 23 (10%) remained neutral, 26 (11.3%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 12 (5.2%) participants replied disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement “**The enterprise determines the training needs of employees at all levels**”, 60 (26%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 123 (53.2%) of participants selected agreed, 17 (7.4%) remained neutral, 27 (11.7%) of the respondents stayed disagree. The remaining 04 (1.7%) participants replied disagreed. This indicates that the enterprise determines the TNA at all levels.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement “**The enterprise encourages the self-evaluation of employees to know the strengths, weaknesses, and obstacles they face during their work**”, 77 (33.3%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 95 (41.1%) of participants replied agree, 28 (12.1%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 03 (1.3%) participants replied disagreed. The majority of the respondents agreed on the issue and this implies that the enterprise encourages the self-evaluation of employees to know the SWOT they face during their work.

From the above table (4) item No.4 for the statement “**The enterprise determines the times of the training courses in line with the nature of employee’s work**”, 57 (24.7%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 103 (44.6%) of participants replied agree, 29 (12.6%) remained neutral, 36 (15.6%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) participants replied disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No.5 for the statement “**The enterprise proposes many training courses, and the employees choose from them what covers their needs**”, 62 (26.8%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 70 (30.3%) of participants replied agree, 47 (20.3%) remained neutral, 42 (18.2%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 10 (4.3%) of participants replied disagreed. The majority of the respondents believe that the enterprise chooses from what covers their needs.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement “**The enterprise identifies the training needs through the observation of the direct supervisor**”, 64 (27.7%) of the respondents selected strongly agreed, 95 (41.1%) of participants replied agree, 33 (14.3%)

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

remained neutral, 31 (13.4%) of the respondents replied disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants replied disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 7 for the statement “**The enterprise determines the training needs by comparing the current capabilities of the employees with the new work requirements**”, 62(26.8%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 103 (44.6%) of participants replied agree, 26 (11.3%) remained neutral, 32 (13.9%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants replied disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 8 for the statement “**The method used to determine the training needs according to personal relationships**”, 53 (22.9%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 84 (36.4%) of participants replied agree, 36 (15.6%) remained neutral, 43 (18.6%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 15 (6.5%) of participants answered disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 9 for the statement “**The method used to determine the training needs according to the work needs**”, 58 (25.1%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 95 (41.1%) of participants replied agree, 34 (14.7%) remained neutral, 35 (15.2%) of the respondents replied disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants selected disagreed.

Training need assessments (TNAs) are a popular and valuable tool for the human resource development professional in determining an organization’s employee skills, knowledge, and talent base. At the same time, it provides information on areas where training programs can be effectively implemented with the greatest impact. So, it is better for the organization to have effective training need assessment practices in order to improve employees’ performance.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Factor: training design

Table 24 Factor 2 (training design)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|-------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| TD 01 | F | 61 | 110 | 25 | 29 | 06 | 3.82 | 1.04 | 3 | H |
| | % | 26.4 | 47.6 | 10.8 | 12.6 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TD 02 | F | 69 | 97 | 33 | 26 | 06 | 3.85 | 1.05 | 2 | H |
| | % | 29.9 | 42 | 14.3 | 11.3 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TD 03 | F | 63 | 88 | 41 | 28 | 11 | 3.71 | 1.13 | 4 | M |
| | % | 27.3 | 38.1 | 17.7 | 12.1 | 4.8 | | | | |
| TD 04 | F | 57 | 97 | 35 | 28 | 14 | 3.67 | 1.15 | 6 | M |
| | % | 24.7 | 42 | 15 | 12.1 | 6.1 | | | | |
| TD 05 | F | 64 | 92 | 33 | 30 | 12 | 3.71 | 1.15 | 5 | M |
| | % | 27.7 | 39.8 | 14.3 | 13 | 5.2 | | | | |
| TD 06 | F | 50 | 73 | 45 | 51 | 12 | 3.42 | 1.19 | 8 | M |
| | % | 21.6 | 31.6 | 19.5 | 22.1 | 5.2 | | | | |
| TD 07 | F | 56 | 97 | 35 | 28 | 15 | 3.65 | 1.61 | 7 | M |
| | % | 24.2 | 42 | 15.2 | 12.1 | 6.5 | | | | |
| TD 08 | F | 69 | 102 | 28 | 24 | 08 | 3.86 | 1.06 | 1 | H |
| | % | 29.9 | 44.2 | 12.1 | 10.4 | 3.5 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement “**Design training programs in accordance with the needs of employees**”, 61 (26.4%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 110 (47.6%) of participants replied agree, 25 (10.8%) remained neutral, 29 (12.6%) of

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement **“The enterprise explains the goal to be achieved and how to achieve it when designing training programs”**, 69 (29.9%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 97 (42%) of participants asserted agree, 33 (14.3%) remained neutral, 26 (11.3%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement **“The enterprise makes the necessary adjustments to the training courses before and during the course”**, 63 (27.3%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 88 (38.1%) of participants answered agree, 41 (17.7%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 11 (4.8%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement **“The training program is designed based on a scientific methodology in terms of defining objectives, content and methods used”**, 57 (24.7%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 97 (42%) of participants replied agree, 35 (15%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 14 (6.1%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement **“The enterprise determines the human, spatial and time requirements necessary to complete the training program”**, 64 (27.7%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 92 (39.8%) of participants replied agree, 33 (14.3%) remained neutral, 30 (13%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 12 (5.2%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement **“There is a constant repetition in the content of the training courses conducted by the enterprise”**, 50 (21.6%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 73 (31.6%) of participants replied agree, 45 (19.5%) remained neutral, 51 (22.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 12 (5.2%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

From the above table (4) item No. 7 for the statement “**Training courses are provided according to the needs of the worker**”, 56 (24.2%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 97 (42%) of participants replied agree, 35 (15.2%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 15 (6.5%) of participants replied strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 8 for the statement “**Qualified trainers are used based on the type of training program**”, 69 (29.9%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 28 (12.1%) remained neutral, 24 (10.4%) of the respondents asserted disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants selected strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Factor: training delivery

Table 25 Factor 3 (training delivery)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|---------------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| TDL 01 | F | 60 | 101 | 35 | 26 | 09 | 3.76 | 1.07 | 4 | M |
| | % | 26 | 43.7 | 15.2 | 11.3 | 3.9 | | | | |
| TDL 02 | F | 56 | 91 | 39 | 35 | 10 | 3.64 | 1.13 | 7 | M |
| | % | 24.2 | 39.4 | 16.9 | 15.2 | 4.3 | | | | |
| TDL 03 | F | 67 | 105 | 27 | 23 | 09 | 3.85 | 1.06 | 3 | H |
| | % | 29 | 45.5 | 11.7 | 10 | 3.9 | | | | |
| TDL 04 | F | 70 | 107 | 29 | 20 | 05 | 3.93 | 0.98 | 2 | H |
| | % | 30.3 | 46.3 | 12.6 | 8.7 | 2.2 | | | | |
| TDL 05 | F | 59 | 99 | 38 | 28 | 07 | 3.75 | 1.05 | 5 | M |
| | % | 25.5 | 42.9 | 16.5 | 12.1 | 03 | | | | |
| TDL 06 | F | 84 | 85 | 34 | 21 | 07 | 3.94 | 1.07 | 1 | H |
| | % | 36.4 | 36.8 | 14.7 | 9.1 | 03 | | | | |
| TDL 07 | F | 61 | 96 | 34 | 27 | 13 | 3.71 | 1.14 | 6 | M |
| | % | 26.4 | 41.6 | 14.7 | 11.7 | 5.6 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement “**The enterprise is committed to implementing the training programs as planned to meet the training needs of the employees**”, 60 (26%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 101 (43.7%) of participants answered agree, 35 (15.2%) remained neutral, 26 (11.3%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement **“Employees in various departments are subject to an integrated training program that covers their needs”**, 56 (24.2%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 91 (39.4%) of participants asserted agree, 39 (16.9%) remained neutral, 35 (15.2%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 10 (4.3%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement **“When implementing training programs, the enterprise provides the specialized components for integration to achieve the needs of the trainees”**, 67 (29%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 105 (45.5%) of participants answered agree, 27 (11.7%) remained neutral, 23 (10%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants replied strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement **“The method of training is chosen based on the objective of the training program”**, 70 (30.3%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 107 (46.3%) of participants asserted agree, 29 (12.6%) remained neutral, 20 (8.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 05 (2.2%) of participants replied strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement **“The method of training helps in collecting the content of the training program and contributes to improving skills”**, 59 (25.5%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 99 (42.9%) of participants replied agree, 38 (16.5%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants replied strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement **“The qualified trainers with the appropriate competencies are selected to implement the training programs”**, 84 (36.4%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 85 (36.8%) of participants replied agree, 34 (14.7%) remained neutral, 21 (9.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 7 for the statement **“The content of the training courses is presented according to the style of lectures and seminars”**, 61 (26.4%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 96 (41.6%) of participants stayed agree, 34 (14.7%)

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

remained neutral, 27 (11.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 13 (5.6%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

Factor: training assessment

Table 26 Factor 3 (training assessment)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|-------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| TA 01 | F | 76 | 93 | 30 | 26 | 06 | 3.89 | 1.06 | 1 | H |
| | % | 32.9 | 40.3 | 13 | 11.3 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TA 02 | F | 56 | 98 | 41 | 27 | 09 | 3.71 | 1.07 | 4 | M |
| | % | 24.2 | 42.4 | 17.7 | 11.7 | 3.9 | | | | |
| TA 03 | F | 64 | 90 | 42 | 29 | 06 | 3.76 | 1.07 | 2 | M |
| | % | 27.7 | 39 | 18.2 | 12.6 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TA 04 | F | 55 | 104 | 41 | 24 | 07 | 3.76 | 1.02 | 3 | M |
| | % | 23.8 | 45 | 17.7 | 10.4 | 03 | | | | |
| TA 05 | F | 55 | 89 | 46 | 31 | 10 | 3.64 | 1.11 | 6 | M |
| | % | 23.8 | 38.5 | 19.9 | 13.4 | 4.3 | | | | |
| TA 06 | F | 50 | 101 | 49 | 25 | 06 | 3.71 | 1.00 | 5 | M |
| | % | 21.6 | 43.7 | 21.2 | 10.8 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TA 07 | F | 58 | 79 | 43 | 34 | 17 | 3.54 | 1.22 | 7 | M |
| | % | 25.1 | 34.2 | 18.6 | 14.7 | 7.4 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement “**The enterprise uses multiple standards and criteria that help in evaluating training programs and determining the level of results accurately**”, 76 (32.9%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 93 (40.3%) of participants replied agree, 30 (13%) remained neutral, 26 (11.3%) of the

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement “**The enterprise uses various tools to determine the efficiency of the training program and its ability to achieve the objectives**”, 56 (24.2%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 98 (42.4%) of participants replied agree, 41 (17.7%) remained neutral, 27 (11.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement “**The enterprise takes the results of evaluating the training program and the suggestions of employees in the development of subsequent training programs**”, 64 (27.7%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 90 (39%) of participants replied agree, 42 (18.2%) remained neutral, 29 (12.6%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement “**Training programs helped reduce turnover and employee absenteeism in the enterprise**”, 55 (23.8%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 104 (45%) of participants replied agree, 41 (17.7%) remained neutral, 24 (10.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement “**The method of comparing the performance of the trainee before and after training is used to observe all changes in skills and knowledges**”, 55 (23.8%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 89 (38.5%) of participants asserted agree, 46 (19.9%) remained neutral, 31 (13.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 10 (4.3%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement “**The results of the training courses are evaluated through their reflection on the performance of the trainees**”, 50 (21.6%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 101 (43.7%) of participants answered agree, 49 (21.2%) remained neutral, 25 (10.8%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

From the above table (4) item No. 7 for the statement “**The trainee is evaluated upon completion of the training process**”, 58 (25.1%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 79 (34.2%) of participants answered agree, 43 (18.6%) remained neutral, 34 (14.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 17 (7.4%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

Factor: the commitment of senior management

Table 27 Factor 3 (the commitment of senior management)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|--------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| CSM 01 | F | 62 | 95 | 42 | 28 | 04 | 3.79 | 1.02 | 4 | M |
| | % | 26.8 | 41.1 | 18.2 | 12.1 | 1.7 | | | | |
| CSM 02 | F | 57 | 110 | 32 | 28 | 04 | 3.81 | 0.99 | 2 | H |
| | % | 24.7 | 47.6 | 13.9 | 12.1 | 1.7 | | | | |
| CSM 03 | F | 60 | 108 | 37 | 21 | 05 | 3.85 | 0.98 | 1 | H |
| | % | 26 | 46.8 | 16 | 9.1 | 2.2 | | | | |
| CSM 04 | F | 56 | 93 | 48 | 27 | 07 | 3.71 | 1.05 | 5 | M |
| | % | 24.2 | 40.3 | 20.8 | 11.7 | 03 | | | | |
| CSM 05 | F | 65 | 96 | 40 | 22 | 08 | 3.81 | 1.05 | 3 | H |
| | % | 28.1 | 41.6 | 17.3 | 9.5 | 3.5 | | | | |
| CSM 06 | F | 55 | 90 | 40 | 35 | 11 | 3.61 | 1.14 | 6 | M |
| | % | 23.8 | 39 | 17.3 | 15.2 | 4.8 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement “The enterprise always works to provide employees with knowledge and develop their skills and abilities in a positive and constructive manner”, 62 (26.8%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 95 (41.1%) of participants asserted agree, 42 (18.2%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 04 (1.7%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement “**The enterprise takes the strategic decisions affecting the long-term with regard to the development of the performance of employees**”, 57 (24.7%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 110 (47.6%) of participants asserted agree, 32 (13.9%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 04 (1.7%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement “**The enterprise analyzes the internal environment in terms of the efficiency of the workforce**”, 60 (26%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 108 (46.8%) of participants asserted agree, 37 (16%) remained neutral, 21 (9.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 05 (2.2%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement “**The enterprise has the ability to prepare and formulate the training strategy and the training programs it includes in a way that contributes to integration with the strategy of the enterprise as a whole.**”, 56 (24.2%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 93 (40.3%) of participants stayed agreed, 48 (20.8%) remained neutral, and 27 (11.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement “**The enterprise has full conviction to adopt positive ideas for training strategies.**”, 65 (28.1%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 96 (41.6%) of participants replied agree, 40 (17.3%) remained neutral, and 22 (9.5%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement “**Implementation of training strategies is among the senior management priorities**”, 55 (23.8%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 90 (39%) of participants replied agree, 40 (17.3%) remained neutral, 35 (15.2%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 11 (4.8%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Factor: Training Effectiveness

Table 28 Factor 3 (Training Effectiveness)

| Items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|--------------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| TE 01 | F | 94 | 91 | 22 | 15 | 09 | 4.06 | 1.05 | 1 | H |
| | % | 40.7 | 39.4 | 9.5 | 6.5 | 3.9 | | | | |
| TE 02 | F | 81 | 105 | 23 | 17 | 05 | 4.03 | 0.97 | 2 | H |
| | % | 35.1 | 45.5 | 10 | 7.4 | 2.2 | | | | |
| TE 03 | F | 87 | 90 | 25 | 23 | 06 | 3.99 | 1.05 | 3 | H |
| | % | 37.3 | 39 | 10.8 | 10 | 2.6 | | | | |
| TE 04 | F | 92 | 78 | 31 | 22 | 08 | 3.96 | 1.10 | 4 | H |
| | % | 39.8 | 33.8 | 13.4 | 9.5 | 3.5 | | | | |
| TE 05 | F | 75 | 103 | 27 | 17 | 09 | 3.94 | 1.04 | 5 | H |
| | % | 32.5 | 44.6 | 11.7 | 7.4 | 3.9 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement **“I was able to meet the objectives of the training.”**, 94 (40.7%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 91 (39.4%) of participants replied agree, 22 (9.5%) remained neutral, and 15 (6.5%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement **“The training significantly added to my store of knowledge”**, 81 (35.1%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 105 (45.5%) of participants replied agree, 23 (10%) remained neutral, 17 (7.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 05 (2.2%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement **“After undergoing training, employees can introduce new ways of performing in their work”**, 87 (37.3%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 90 (39%) of participants replied agree, 25 (10.8%)

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

remained neutral, 23 (10%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement “**The morale of the employees in the enterprise rises after completing the training**”, 92 (39.8%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 78 (33.8%) of participants replied agree, 31 (13.4%) remained neutral, 22 (9.5%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement “**Training improves long-term performance**”, 75 (32.5%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 103 (44.6%) of participants stayed agreed, 27 (11.7%) remained neutral, 17 (7.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

Factor: the adoption of modern technologies

Table 29 Factor 7 (the adoption of modern technologies)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|--------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| AMT 01 | F | 74 | 95 | 29 | 24 | 09 | 3.87 | 1.09 | 1 | H |
| | % | 32 | 41.1 | 12.6 | 10.4 | 3.9 | | | | |
| AMT 02 | F | 62 | 98 | 42 | 21 | 08 | 3.8 | 1.04 | 2 | H |
| | % | 26.8 | 42.4 | 18.2 | 9.1 | 3.5 | | | | |
| AMT 03 | F | 62 | 97 | 33 | 28 | 11 | 3.74 | 1.12 | 3 | M |
| | % | 26.8 | 42 | 14.3 | 12.1 | 4.8 | | | | |
| AMT 04 | F | 67 | 91 | 29 | 36 | 08 | 3.74 | 1.13 | 4 | M |
| | % | 29 | 39.4 | 12.6 | 15.6 | 3.5 | | | | |
| AMT 05 | F | 58 | 75 | 46 | 42 | 10 | 3.55 | 1.17 | 5 | M |
| | % | 25.1 | 32.5 | 19.9 | 18.2 | 4.3 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement “**The enterprise analyzes and studies the external environment in order to develop technology to keep pace with rapid environmental changes**”, 74 (32%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 95 (41.1%) of participants replied agree, 29 (12.6%) remained neutral, 24 (10.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement “**The enterprise uses of modern technology as a basis for the diversity of training programs**”, 62 (26.8%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 98 (42.4%) of participants replied agree, 42 (18.2%) remained neutral, 21 (9.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement “**The enterprise is keen to train employees to apply modern technologies**”, 62 (26.8%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 97 (42%) of participants replied agree, 33 (14.3%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 11 (4.8%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement “**The enterprise works on a strategy of adopting modern technology that is appropriate with the conditions of the external and internal environment**”, 67 (29%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 91 (39.4%) of participants replied agree, 29 (12.6%) remained neutral, 36 (15.6%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement “**The enterprise uses electronic methods in training delivery**”, 58 (25.1%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 75 (32.5%) of participants replied agree, 46 (19.9%) remained neutral, 3426 (18.2%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 10 (4.3%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Factor: competencies development

Table 30 Factor 8 (competencies development)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|--------------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| CD 01 | F | 63 | 97 | 40 | 24 | 07 | 3.8 | 1.04 | 6 | H |
| | % | 27.3 | 42 | 17.3 | 10.4 | 03 | | | | |
| CD 02 | F | 50 | 102 | 43 | 24 | 12 | 3.66 | 1.08 | 13 | M |
| | % | 21.6 | 44.2 | 18.6 | 10.4 | 5.2 | | | | |
| CD 03 | F | 56 | 95 | 41 | 28 | 11 | 3.67 | 1.11 | 12 | M |
| | % | 24.2 | 41.1 | 17.7 | 12.1 | 4.8 | | | | |
| CD 04 | F | 63 | 103 | 42 | 17 | 06 | 3.86 | 0.98 | 3 | H |
| | % | 27.3 | 44.6 | 18.2 | 7.4 | 2.6 | | | | |
| CD 05 | F | 56 | 99 | 44 | 23 | 09 | 3.73 | 1.05 | 10 | M |
| | % | 24.2 | 42.9 | 19 | 10 | 3.9 | | | | |
| CD 06 | F | 64 | 94 | 34 | 28 | 11 | 3.74 | 1.13 | 9 | M |
| | % | 27.7 | 40.7 | 14.7 | 12.1 | 4.8 | | | | |
| CD 07 | F | 65 | 106 | 32 | 23 | 05 | 3.87 | 1.00 | 1 | H |
| | % | 28.1 | 45.9 | 13.9 | 10 | 2.2 | | | | |
| CD 08 | F | 67 | 102 | 35 | 18 | 09 | 3.86 | 1.04 | 2 | H |
| | % | 29 | 44.2 | 15.2 | 7.8 | 3.9 | | | | |
| CD 09 | F | 57 | 102 | 42 | 20 | 10 | 3.76 | 1.05 | 8 | M |
| | % | 24.7 | 44.2 | 18.2 | 8.7 | 4.3 | | | | |
| CD10 | F | 58 | 112 | 30 | 22 | 09 | 3.81 | 1.04 | 5 | H |
| | % | 25.1 | 48.5 | 13 | 9.5 | 3.9 | | | | |
| CD11 | F | 54 | 102 | 37 | 28 | 10 | 3.70 | 1.08 | 11 | M |
| | % | 23.4 | 44.2 | 16 | 12.1 | 4.3 | | | | |
| CD12 | F | 68 | 102 | 28 | 20 | 13 | 3.83 | 1.11 | 4 | H |
| | % | 29.4 | 44.2 | 12.1 | 8.7 | 5.6 | | | | |
| CD13 | F | 69 | 99 | 27 | 19 | 17 | 3.79 | 1.17 | 7 | M |
| | % | 29.9 | 42.9 | 11.7 | 8.2 | 7.4 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement **“My enterprise identifies the knowledge and skills I need to do my best job”**, 63 (27.3%) of the respondents replied strongly agreed, 97 (42%) of participants answered agree, 40 (17.3%) remained neutral, 24 (10.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement **“My enterprise is interested in increasing and developing my skills and efficiency since my appointment to the position”**, 50 (21.6%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 43 (18.6%) remained neutral, 24 (10.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 12 (5.2%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement **“My enterprise helps me diversify and develop my skills and competencies constantly, which makes me unique”**, 56 (24.2%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 95 (44.1%) of participants replied agree, 41 (17.7%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 11 (4.8%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement **“My enterprise helps me to prepare enough to take responsibility”**, 63 (27.3%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 103 (44.6%) of participants replied agree, 42 (18.2%) remained neutral, 17 (7.4%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement **“My enterprise helps me to solve problems and bear the pressures of work”**, 56 (24.2%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 99 (42.9%) of participants replied agree, 44 (19%) remained neutral, 23 (10%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement **“My enterprise helps me to raise my skills in using modern technology in my tasks”**, 64 (27.7%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 94 (40.7%) participants replied agree, 34 (14.7%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%)

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 11 (4.8%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 7 for the statement **“My enterprise helps me to improve my behavior and develop it better”**, 65 (28.1%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 106 (45.9%) of participants replied to agree, 32 (13.9%) remained neutral, 23 (10%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 05 (2.2%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 8 for the statement **“My enterprise develops my abilities to plan, prioritize and implement them on time”**, 67 (29%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 35 (15.2%) remained neutral, 18 (7.8%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 9 for the statement **“My enterprise develops my decision-making capabilities in my work environment”**, 57 (24.7%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 42 (18.2%) remained neutral, 20 (8.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 10 (4.3%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 10 for the statement **“My enterprise develops my ability to adapt to new and critical situations in my work”**, 58 (25.1%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 112 (48.5%) of participants replied agree, 30 (13%) remained neutral, 22 (9.5%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 11 for the statement **“My enterprise pushes me to act firmly and honestly”**, 54 (23.4%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 37 (16%) remained neutral, 28 (12.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 10 (4.3%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 12 for the statement **“My enterprise pushes me to work with others in one team and help them solve their problems”**, 68 (29.4%) of the

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

respondents answered strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 28 (12.1%) remained neutral, 20 (8.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 13 (5.6%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 13 for the statement “**My enterprise pushes me to accept more responsibilities and challenges always**”, 69 (29.9%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 99 (42.9%) of participants replied agree, 27 (11.7%) remained neutral, 19 (8.2%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 17 (7.4%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Factor: employee engagement

Table 31 Factor 9 (employee engagement)

| items | Frequency Percentage | Strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean | Standard deviation | range | importance |
|--------------|----------------------|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| EE 01 | F | 82 | 102 | 26 | 13 | 08 | 4.02 | 1.00 | 1 | H |
| | % | 35.5 | 44.2 | 11.3 | 5.6 | 3.5 | | | | |
| EE 02 | F | 72 | 107 | 31 | 14 | 07 | 3.96 | 0.98 | 2 | H |
| | % | 31.2 | 46.3 | 13.4 | 6.1 | 03 | | | | |
| EE 03 | F | 67 | 94 | 47 | 16 | 07 | 3.85 | 1.01 | 8 | H |
| | % | 29 | 40.7 | 20.3 | 6.9 | 03 | | | | |
| EE 04 | F | 71 | 96 | 33 | 25 | 06 | 3.87 | 1.05 | 6 | H |
| | % | 30.7 | 41.6 | 14.3 | 10.8 | 2.6 | | | | |
| EE 05 | F | 73 | 93 | 35 | 21 | 09 | 3.86 | 1.08 | 7 | H |
| | % | 31.6 | 40.3 | 15.2 | 9.1 | 3.9 | | | | |
| EE 06 | F | 71 | 99 | 34 | 20 | 07 | 3.89 | 1.03 | 5 | H |
| | % | 30.7 | 42.9 | 14.7 | 8.7 | 03 | | | | |
| EE 07 | F | 74 | 91 | 40 | 22 | 04 | 3.90 | 1.01 | 4 | H |
| | % | 32 | 39.4 | 17.3 | 9.5 | 1.7 | | | | |
| EE 08 | F | 75 | 98 | 27 | 25 | 06 | 3.91 | 1.05 | 3 | H |
| | % | 32.5 | 42.4 | 11.7 | 10.8 | 2.6 | | | | |
| EE 09 | F | 79 | 81 | 36 | 16 | 19 | 3.80 | 1.21 | 9 | H |
| | % | 34.2 | 35.1 | 15.6 | 6.9 | 8.2 | | | | |

H: high, M: moderate, L: low

Source: Questionnaire Survey Data, 2022

From the above table (4) item No. 1 for the statement **“I know very well what is expected of me at work”**, 82 (35.5%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 102 (44.2%) of participants replied agree, 26 (11.3%) remained neutral, 13 (5.6%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 08 (3.5%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 2 for the statement **“My supervisor expresses confidence in my ability to do my job”**, 72 (31.2%) of the respondents asserted strongly

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

agreed, 107 (46.3%) of participants replied agree, 31 (13.4%) remained neutral, 14 (6.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 3 for the statement **“I feel the desire and vitality in my work environment”**, 67 (29%) of the respondents stayed strongly agreed, 94 (40.7%) of participants replied agreed, 47 (20.3%) remained neutral, 16 (6.9%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 4 for the statement **“I have great independence in doing my job without direct supervision”**, 71 (30.7%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 96 (41.6%) of participants replied agree, 33 (14.3%) remained neutral, 25 (10.8%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 5 for the statement **“I feel free and inspired to give my best at work”**, 73 (31.6%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 93 (40.3%) of participants replied agree, 35 (15.2%) remained neutral, 21 (9.1%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 09 (3.9%) of participants stayed strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 6 for the statement **“I feel dedicated and serious about doing my job at a high level”**, 71 (30.7%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 99 (42.9%) of participants replied agree, 34 (14.7%) remained neutral, 20 (8.7%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 07 (03%) of participants answered strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 7 for the statement **“I involve my supervisor in many daily decisions”**, 74 (32%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 91 (39.4%) of participants replied agree, 40 (17.3%) remained neutral, 22 (9.5%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 04 (1.7%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 8 for the statement **“My supervisor gives me a chance to express my opinions at work”**, 75 (32.5%) of the respondents answered strongly agreed, 98 (42.4%) of participants replied agree, 27 (11.7%) remained neutral, 25 (10.8%) of the

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

respondents selected disagree. The remaining 06 (2.6%) of participants asserted strongly disagreed.

From the above table (4) item No. 9 for the statement **“My supervisor thinks I can handle the tough tasks in my job”**, 79 (34.2%) of the respondents asserted strongly agreed, 81 (35.1%) of participants replied agree, 36 (15.6%) remained neutral, 16 (6.9%) of the respondents selected disagree. The remaining 19 (8.2%) of participants responded strongly disagreed.

4.3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

To establish construct validity in this research, EFA was initially done on the TS, CD, and EE (training strategy, competencies development, employee engagement) to confirm the underlying latent variables. As advocated by multiple studies, goods with factor loading below 0.40 should be either eliminated or refined. After the identification of latent and observable variables was done through EFA, the measurement constructs were further confirmed using CFA to check if the indicators are loaded on the selected latent variables (Ooi, 2013).

Basically, there are two basic sorts of factor analysis methodologies, namely EFA and CFA. In past research, there were considerable disputes concerning the suitability of these two techniques. For example, only a single technique should be employed with regard to any specific dataset or research topic. Besides that, the use of EFA “in the lack of solid theoretical construct. This argument is further that logically EFA is less difficult in contrast to CFA since a priori theory is required by CFA (Ooi, 2013).

majority of the scholars have classified factor analysis as exploratory and is useful in exploring the structure of a group of variables. Although the questionnaire used in this research was modified from past studies, part of it was combined with new questions which were constructed to characterize every factor based on a full theoretical reason. Furthermore, the customized survey has not been utilized in the context of Algerian SMEs. Therefore, factor analysis in this research was exploratory instead than confirmatory. EFA was employed to explore the unidimensionality of the constructs rather than analyzing the underlying dimensions of the variables. Hence, it was employed in this investigation. Furthermore, CFA was also

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

carried out in order to offer stronger evidence for the reliability and validity of the variables (Ooi, 2013).

Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and common factor analysis are two approaches of applying EFA. factor analysis is appropriate if the aim is to identify the constructs indicated in the original set of items. PCA is typically favored if the researchers are interested mainly in the minimal number of constructs required to explain the largest part of the variance shown in the original set of items. Since a consequence, PCA was selected for this research as the major objective of completing the factor analysis was to establish how and to what degree the items were associated with their underlying components (Ooi, 2013).

PCA approach may aid a researcher in identifying whether the chosen items cluster on one or more than one factor. In reality, this is significant if there are three or more components that are picked for assessing one construct.

4.3.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Training Strategy Constructs

In the preliminary stage, a PCA with Varimax rotation was conducted to validate the underlying structure of the TS dimensions. This study proposes four key dimensions namely (current practices of training - the commitment of senior management - training effectiveness - the adoption of modern technologies) and four sub-dimensions of the first dimension (training needs assessment - training design - training delivery - training assessment).

Multiple indicators were derived from the past literature in order to describe the comprehensive and rich meaning of each dimension especially current practices of training (training needs assessment with nine elements, training design with eight elements, training delivery with seven elements, training assessment with seven elements) and the commitment of senior management with six elements each; training effectiveness and the adoption of modern technologies with five elements. Altogether, the training strategy (ST) construct consists of 47 elements. Hence, it is imperative to identify the more significant indicative items to represent these dimensions.

Ooi (2013) stated that “in order to reduce redundant information, extract the most meaningful information, establish the factorial dimensionality, and confirm the validity of the

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

factorial dimensionality”. Thus, EFA was employed to reveal the basic factor structure of the training strategy and then validated with CFA. EFA was performed on the 47 items of TS. To justify the factor, only factor loading of at least 0.50 on the factor and at most 0.35 on the other factors were considered. In the path of the validation process, 25 items (i.e. TNA01, TNA04, TNA05, TNA08, TNA09, TD01, TD02, TD03, TD04, TD05, TD06, TD07, TDL01, TDL03, TDL04, TDL05, TDL06, TDL07, TA01, TA02, TA03, TA07, CSM06, TE04, AMT05) with poor factor loadings of less than 0.50 on their respective unobserved or latent variable were discarded.

Besides that, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy value for all items was greater than 0.60, with most of the analyses in the range of 0.835 to 0.900, indicating adequate inter-correlations while the Bartlett’s test of sphericity was large and significant for all of the factors analyses, with the value ranging from 301.194 to 1267.504. Therefore, it can be concluded that the factor loadings are deemed robust in enhancing the construct validity of the scales (Churchill, 1979). In short, it is indisputable that all the items are reliable measures of the constructs. Finally, the internal consistency of the measures was evaluated using Cronbach’s alpha, and all values were found to be greater than the recommended threshold of 0.60 (i.e. current practices of training = 0.823; commitment of senior management = 0.834; training effectiveness = 0.809; the adoption of modern technologies = 0.810). Table 33 illustrates the EFA results.

4.3.3.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Competencies Development

Similarly, EFA was performed on 13 items of CD by using the PCA with Varimax rotation to examine their unidimensionality. In the validation process of EFA, several items (i.e. CD01, CD02, CD03, CD05, CD06, CD08, and CD12) in the CD construct were dropped due to poor factor loadings of less than 0.50 on their respective unobserved or latent variable. The results of the EFA for the competencies development dimensions are presented in Table 33. The KMO and Bartlett’s test (chi-square) values are adequate and significant at 0.000 levels and therefore support the appropriateness of factor analysis on the data. The factor loadings are significantly robust to support the construct validity of the scales (Churchill, 1979). All factors of CD have acceptable reliability with an alpha value equal to 0.898.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.3.3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Employee Engagement

Similarly, EFA was performed on 09 items of EE by using the PCA with Varimax rotation to examine their unidimensionality. In the validation process of EFA, several items (i.e. EE01, EE02, EE09) in the EE construct were dropped due to poor factor loadings of less than 0.50 on their respective unobserved or latent variable. The results of the EFA for the employee engagement dimensions are presented in Table 33. The KMO and Bartlett's test (chi-square) values are adequate and significant at 0.000 levels and therefore support the appropriateness of factor analysis on the data. The factor loadings are significantly robust to support the construct validity of the scales (Churchill, 1979). All factors of EE have acceptable reliability with an alpha value equal to 0.853.

The numbers reported are different than the SPSS loadings due to the difference in the calculation process with SPSS and Smart PLS. SPSS does calculations based on the construct while Smart PLS does the factor loadings calculations based on the model (Garson, 2012; Sarstedt et al., 2017). The outer loadings represent the contribution of each factor to the associated construct and should be above 0.7 in a well-fitting model (Garson, 2012). Factor loadings above 0.7 indicate that the construct explains more than 50% of the factor's variance (Sarstedt et al., 2017).

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 32 Exploratory Factor Analysis

| constructs | No of items | Indicators | Factor loadings | KMO | Eing-value | % of variance | Cronbach's Alpha |
|---|-------------|--|--|-------|------------|---------------|------------------|
| Training strategy | | | | | | | |
| Current practices of training (TND) | 04 | TNA02 TNA03 TNA06 TNA07 | 0.819 0.753 0.741 0.715 | 0.868 | 3.877 | 45.974 | 0.849 |
| Current practices of training (TD) | 01 | TD08 | 0.768 | 0.864 | 2.981 | 43.258 | 0.807 |
| Current practices of training (TDL) | 01 | TDL02 | 1.000 | 0.842 | 2.862 | 45.226 | 0.797 |
| Current practices of training (TA) | 03 | TA04 TA05 TA06 | 0.774 0.847 0.876 | 0.858 | 3.320 | 51.798 | 0.841 |
| The commitment of senior management (CSM) | 05 | CSM01 CSM02 CSM03 CSM04 CSM05 | 0.735 0.776 0.740 0.776 0.786 | 0.851 | 3.294 | 54.901 | 0.834 |
| Training effectiveness (TE) | 04 | TE01 TE02 TE03 TE05 | 0.779 0.749 0.770 0.770 | 0.840 | 2.840 | 56.807 | 0.809 |
| The adoption of modern technologies (AMT) | 04 | AMT01 AMT02 AMT03 AMT04 | 0.716 0.889 0.780 0.721 | 0.835 | 2.858 | 57.163 | 0.810 |
| Competencies development (CD) | 06 | CD04 CD07 CD09 CD10 CD11 CD13 | 0.766 0.819 0.755 0.736 0.785 0.758 | 0.897 | 5.589 | 54.243 | 0.898 |
| Employee engagement (EE) | 06 | EE03 EE04 EE05 EE06 EE07 EE08 | 0.721 0.709 0.747 0.722 0.716 0.821 | 0.900 | 3.293 | 46.472 | 0.853 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

4.3.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA model identifies the link between the observable variables and the underlying constructs with factors permitted to inter-correlate freely. In this work, the confirmatory

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

measurement model was applied to investigate convergent validity and construct reliability. Therefore, a measurement model was done on both independent and dependent variables to assess how well the observed variables are connected to a collection of latent variables. In reality, all measurement models were built based on theoretical and empirical foundations presented in prior works. The goodness-of-fit of the measuring models defines how well the item is in investigating the targeted constructs. The goodness-of-fit indices that examine the measurement model comprise the normed chi-square test, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR).

4.3.5 Assessment of Normality

4.3.5.1 Normality

The "degree to which the distribution of the sample data conforms to a normal distribution" is referred to as normality (Hair et al., 2010). Skewness and Kurtosis may be used to test the data's normalcy statistically. Skewness (SI) is a metric that measures the symmetry of data distribution. When compared to the normal distribution, Kurtosis (KI) indicates the form of the data distribution, i.e. peaked or flattened (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), a high sample size (i.e. 200 answers) lessens the negative impact of nonnormality.

Kurtosis and skew measures are used to determine if indicators meet normalcy standards. Skew and kurtosis are two ways in which a distribution cannot be unique, and they may occur individually or in the same variable.

The asymmetric shape of a unimodal distribution is referred to as skew. A positive skew indicates that most values are below average, whereas negative skew indicates the opposite. In comparison to a normal distribution with the same variance, positive kurtosis denotes a heavier tail, and higher peak, while negative kurtosis merely displays the reverse.

Acceptable skewness values fall from -3 to $+3$ and for kurtosis, the acceptable value falls from -1 to $+1$ when using AMOS is necessary.

If the skewness is below -1 (negatively skewed down) or greater than 1 (positively skewed), the information is strongly skewed

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

The perfect values for skewness and kurtosis that reflect a good indication of the normal distribution are (+3, -3). skewness and kurtosis are considered acceptable if they are lower than three (<3). any values above +3 or below -3 are a good indication that the variables are not normally distributed.

As shown in Appendix 4, all of the items in this research were within the typical range of skewness and kurtosis. As a result, no steps were necessary to process the data, and the data were correct and ready for the next stage of analysis, as well as validating the research model.

4.4 Measurement Model Assessment

The first step in establishing if the model's structure matches the data is to look at how the components are loaded onto the constructs. The second stage was to establish the internal consistency and reliability of the concept. The last stage in assessing the model structure was to compute convergent and discriminant validity.

Loading of the outer weight. The components for each construct and their loadings are included in the outer measurement model (Garson, 2012). The outer loadings match the factor loadings discovered in the exploratory factor analysis. The provided figures deviate from the SPSS loadings owing to differences in the computation procedure between SPSS and Smart PLS. SPSS performs computations based on the construct, while Smart PLS computes factor loadings based on the model (Garson, 2012; Sarstedt et al., 2017). The outer loadings indicate each factor's contribution to the related construct and should be more than 0.7 in a well-fitting model (Garson, 2012). Factor loadings greater than 0.7 suggest that the construct explains more than half of the variation in the factor (Sarstedt et al., 2017).

The outer loadings for the model are shown in Table 34. All loadings are above 0.7 indicating good loading for a well-fitting model.

Smart PLS 3.0 M3 is used to assess the measurement and structural model. This statistical software assesses the psychometric properties of the measurement model and estimates the parameters of the structural model.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

As discussed in Chapter 3, the validity and reliability of the measurement model are evaluated by assessing:

- (1) internal consistency reliability;
- (2) indicator reliability;
- (3) convergent validity; and,
- (4) discriminant validity.

The following sections present the results of all analyses to evaluate the validity and reliability of the measurement model.

4.4.1 Internal Consistency Reliability

A measurement model is said to have satisfactory internal consistency reliability when the composite reliability (CR) of each construct exceeds the threshold value of 0.7. Table 35 shows the CR of each construct for this dissertation ranges from 0.844 to 0.879. These results indicate that the items used to represent the constructs pose satisfactory internal consistency reliability.

4.4.2 Indicator Reliability

The indicator reliability of the measurement model is measured by examining the items loadings. A measurement model is said to have a satisfactory indicator reliability when each item's loading estimate is higher Between 0.5 - 0.7 (Hair et al., 2017).

Based on the analysis, all items in the measurement model exhibited loadings exceeding 0.5, ranging from a lower bound of 0.570 to an upper bound of 0.705. All items are significant at the level of 0.001. Table 35 shows the loading for each item. Thus, all items used for this research demonstrate satisfactory indicator reliability.

4.4.3 Convergent Validity

In this dissertation, the measurement model's convergent validity is assessed by examining its average variance extracted (AVE) value. Convergent validity is said to be adequate when constructs have an average variance extracted (AVE) value close to 0.5 or

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

higher. Table 35 shows that all constructs have an AVE ranging from 0.548 to 0.694, suggesting the measurement model exhibits an adequate convergent validity.

Table 33 Measurement model assessment

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|---|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Training needs assessment (TNA) CR=0.844 AVE=0.575 CA=0.849 | TNA02 | 0.646 | 0.819 |
| | TNA03 | 0.658 | 0.753 |
| | TNA06 | 0.671 | 0.741 |
| | TNA07 | 0.699 | 0.715 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|--|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Training design (TD) CR=1.00 AVE=1.00 CA=0.807 | | | |
| | TD08 | 0.641 | 0.768 |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|---|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Training delivery (TDL) CR=1.00 AVE=1.00 CA=0.797 | | | |
| | TDL02 | 0.000 | 1.000 |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|--|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Training assessment (TA) CR=0.872 AVE=0.694 CA=0.841 | TA04 | 0.634 | 0.774 |
| | TA05 | 0.603 | 0.847 |
| | TA06 | 0.628 | 0.876 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|---|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Commitment of senior management (CSM) CR=0.874 AVE=0.582 CA=0.834 | CSM01 | 0.678 | 0.735 |
| | CSM02 | 0.631 | 0.776 |
| | CSM03 | 0.673 | 0.740 |
| | CSM04 | 0.631 | 0.776 |
| | CSM05 | 0.618 | 0.786 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|---|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Training effectiveness (TE) CR=0.851 AVE=0.588 CA=0.809 | TE01 | 0.627 | 0.779 |
| | TE02 | 0.663 | 0.749 |
| | TE03 | 0.638 | 0.770 |
| | TE05 | 0.638 | 0.770 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|---|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Adoption of modern technologies (AMT) CR=0.860 AVE=0.608 CA=0.810 | AMT01 | 0.698 | 0.716 |
| | AMT02 | 0.558 | 0.889 |
| | AMT03 | 0.626 | 0.780 |
| | AMT04 | 0.642 | 0.721 |

Source: prepared by researchers,2022

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|---|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Competencies development (CD) CR=0.875 AVE=0.583 CA=0.898 | CD04 | 0.642 | 0.766 |
| | CD07 | 0.574 | 0.819 |
| | CD09 | 0.656 | 0.755 |
| | CD10 | 0.676 | 0.736 |
| | CD11 | 0.674 | 0.785 |
| | CD13 | 0.652 | 0.758 |

Source: prepared by researchers,2022

| Construct | Items | Standard deviation | Loadings |
|--|-------|--------------------|----------|
| Employee engagement (EE) CR=0.879 AVE=0.548 CA=0.853 | EE03 | 0.693 | 0.721 |
| | EE04 | 0.705 | 0.709 |
| | EE05 | 0.665 | 0.747 |
| | EE06 | 0.692 | 0.722 |
| | EE07 | 0.698 | 0.716 |
| | EE08 | 0.570 | 0.821 |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.4.4 Discriminant Validity

In this dissertation, the measurement model's discriminant validity is assessed by using two measures: (1) Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion; and, (2) cross-loadings. A measurement model has adequate discriminant validity when: (1) the square root of the AVE exceeds the correlations between the measure and all other measures; and, (2) an indicator's loading is higher for its respective construct than for any constructs.

The first criteria are evaluated using the SmartPLS algorithm function, which produces the AVE value for each construct. The square root of the extracted average variance (AVE) is compared to the correlation of latent constructs in this technique (Hair et al., 2014).

A latent construct should be able to explain the variation of its indicator better than it should be able to explain the variance of other latent constructs. As a result, the square root of the AVE of each construct should be greater than the correlations with other latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014).

In this dissertation, all square roots of AVE exceeded the off-diagonal elements in their corresponding row and column. The **bolded** elements in Table 36 represent the square roots of the AVE and non-bolded values represent the inter-correlation value between constructs. As shown in Table 36, all off-diagonal elements are lower than the square roots of AVE confirming that Fornell and Larcker's criterion is met.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 34 Inter-correlation Matrix

| | Current practices of training | The commitment of senior management | Training effectiveness | Adoption of modern technologies | Competencies development | Employee engagement |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Current practices of training | 0.777 | | | | | |
| Commitment of senior management | 0.514 | 0.763 | | | | |
| Training effectiveness | 0.710 | 0.541 | 0.767 | | | |
| Adoption of modern technologies | 0.653 | 0.362 | 0.412 | 0.780 | | |
| Competencies development | 0.499 | 0.415 | 0.389 | 0.541 | 0.764 | |
| Employee engagement | 0.593 | 0.521 | 0.541 | 0.613 | 0.479 | 0.740 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Examining indicators and comparing them to all concept correlations is the second step in determining discriminant validity. The assigned construct's factor loading indications should be greater than the other constructs' loading indicators. Appendix 5 shows the results of cross-loadings generated by the SmartPLS algorithm function (The Cross-Loading Output Using Smart PLS).

When compared to other variables, all measurement items utilized in this dissertation loaded higher against their respective targeted latent variable. Furthermore, each block's loading is larger than that of any other block in the same rows and columns, clearly differentiating each latent variable as the conceptual model hypothesized. As a result, the cross-loading output verifies the discriminant validity of the measurement model.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.4.5 The Goodness of Model Fit

According to Hair et al., (2014)'s standards for acceptable fit, SRMR should be less than 0.08, while the ideal value for NFI must be above 0.9. These, fit statistics for the research model demonstrate acceptable fit appear in Table 37.

Table 35 Model fit indexes

| Measure | Saturated model | Estimated model |
|------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| SRMR | 0.076 | 0.151 |
| NFI | N/A | N/A |
| Chi-Square | INFINITE | INFINITE |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Overall, the measurement model's reliability and validity tests are good, indicating that the items used to measure constructs in this dissertation are valid and suitable for estimating parameters in the structural model.

4.5 Structural Model

The structural model assessment was carried out systematically according to the assessment procedure outlined in Hair et al. (2017). Firstly, the coefficient of determinant (R²) was presented to show the overall performance of the model. This is followed by the significance and relevance of the relationships were assessed based on the p-Value. Next, the f square (f²) effect size was reported. Finally, the predictive relevance Q square (Q²) was presented.

The subsections that follow detail the tests performed to evaluate the validity of the structural model for this dissertation, which necessitates a look at the coefficient of determination (R²) and path coefficients. This dissertation was also used to evaluate the mediation linkages indicated in the research model (Hayes, 2013). Bootstrapping is used to test the importance of mediators.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.5.1 Coefficient of Determination (R²)

The coefficient of determination (R²) value represents the amount of variance in a dependent variable explained by the independent variables. In other words, the measurement model explains the proportion of variability in the data. This value should be high in order to adequately explain the variance of the endogenous latent variable; thus, a higher R² value improves the structural model's predictive ability. The R² statistics in this dissertation are calculated using the SmartPLS algorithm function. The t statistics values are generated while the SmartPLS bootstrapping algorithm generates 5000 samples from 231 examples.

Results of the structural model (presented in table 38) show that employee engagement use explains 20.9% of the variance in competencies development.

Training strategy explains 43.9% of the variance in competencies development and 50.4% of the variance in employee engagement. The R² criterion is met and the structural model has adequate predictive ability (Chin, 1998).

Table 36 The value of R²

| | R square | AVE | GOF |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|------------|------------|
| Training strategy | 0.439 | | |
| Training needs assessment | 0.592 | 0.685 | 0.430 |
| Training design | 0.589 | | |
| Training delivery | 0.321 | | |
| Training assessment | 0.738 | | |
| The commitment of senior management | 0.302 | | |
| Training effectiveness | 0.316 | | |
| The adoption of modern technologies | 0.790 | | |
| Competencies development | 0.497 | | |
| Employee engagement | 0.209 | | |

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.6 Path Coefficients

Each path in the structural model links two latent variables that indicate a hypothesis. Path coefficients enable the researcher to confirm or reject each hypothesis, as well as better comprehend the strength of the link between dependent and independent variables.

Table 37 latent variables correlations

| | TS | CPT | CSM | TE | AMT | EE | CD |
|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----|
| TS | 1 | | | | | | |
| CPT | 0.977 | 1 | | | | | |
| CSM | 0.834 | 0.751 | 1 | | | | |
| TE | 0.731 | 0.635 | 0.569 | 1 | | | |
| AMT | 0.862 | 0.803 | 0.678 | 0.576 | 1 | | |
| EE | 0.618 | 0.590 | 0.494 | 0.557 | 0.516 | 1 | |
| CD | 0.791 | 0.749 | 0.677 | 0.682 | 0.663 | 0.683 | 1 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Path coefficients are normalized beta coefficients determined using ordinary least squares regression. The Bootstrapping approach, together with t-statistics, is used to assess if path coefficients are significant.

Table 40 presents the path coefficients, *t*-statistics, and significance level for all hypothesized relationships. Using the results from the path assessment, each proposed hypothesis is either accept or reject. These results are discussed in the next section.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 38 Path Coefficients, Observed T- Statistics, Significant Level for all hypothesized Paths

| No | Hypothesis | Std coefficients | t- value | p-value | result |
|----|--|------------------|----------|---------|----------------------|
| 01 | H1: training strategy → competencies development | 0.310 | 4.234 | 0.000 | supported |
| 02 | H2: training strategy → employee engagement | 0.458 | 7.816 | 0.000 | supported |
| 03 | H3: employee engagement → competencies development | 0.507 | 6.576 | 0.000 | supported |
| 04 | H1/A: current practices of training → competencies development | 0.146 | 1.708 | 0.088 | Not supported |
| 05 | H1/B: commitment of senior management → competencies development | 0.232 | 2.781 | 0.005 | supported |
| 06 | H1/C: training effectiveness → competencies development | 0.376 | 5.144 | 0.000 | supported |
| 07 | H1/D: the adoption of modern technologies → competencies development | 0.126 | 1.568 | 0.117 | Not supported |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

4.7 Hypotheses Testing

Path coefficients between latent variables are evaluated to test the hypothesis and structural model presented. A route coefficient value should be at least 0.1 to allow for a particular influence inside the model (Hair et al., 2011). Of these route coefficients in this model (see Table 41), five of offered hypotheses are supported.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Table 39 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

| Hypothesis statement | | result |
|----------------------|---|-----------------|
| H1 | there is an effect of training strategy on competencies development | Accepted |
| H2 | there is an effect of training strategy on employee engagement | Accepted |
| H3 | there is an effect of employee engagement on competencies development | Accepted |
| H1/A | There is an effect of current practices of training on competencies development | Rejected |
| H1/B | there is an effect of commitment of senior management on competencies development | Accepted |
| H1/C | there is an effect of training effectiveness on competencies development | Accepted |
| H1/D | there is an effect of the adoption of modern technologies on competencies development | Rejected |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Supported hypotheses are significant at the level of 0.05, have signed in the expected directions, and possess a path coefficient value (β) ranging from 0.232 to 0.507.

As shown in table 39, there is an effect of training strategy on competencies development ($\beta = 0.310$; $p < .005$), supporting H1.

Further, there is an effect of training strategy on employee engagement ($\beta = 0.458$; $p < .005$), supporting H2.

In support of H3, there is an effect of employee engagement on competencies development ($\beta = 0.507$; $p < .005$).

There is an effect of current practices of training on competencies development ($\beta = 0.146$; $p < .005$), not supporting H1/A.

Also, there is an effect of commitment of senior management on competencies development ($\beta = 0.232$; $p < .005$), supporting H1/B.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

In support of H1/C, there is an effect of training effectiveness on competencies development ($\beta = 0.376$; $p < .005$).

Furthermore, there is an effect of adoption of modern technologies on competencies development ($\beta = 0.126$; $p < .005$), not supporting H1/D.

4.8 Mediating Effects

For assessment of mediation effects between training strategy and competencies development, employee engagement is explored as a mediator variable. Testing mediating effects via bootstrapping is the preferred method in the PLS-SEM setting (Hair et al., 2017; Hayes, 2013).

The measurement model and structural model were assessed prior to the mediator test. The measurement model was examined for reliability and validity; the structural model was assessed for the non-existence of multicollinearity concerns. These findings may be seen in the mediator test results, which can be seen in Table 42.

Following the mediation analysis procedure (Zhao et al., 2010), training strategy has a direct effect on competencies development, and the indirect effect of training strategy---employee engagement---competencies development is significant. This represents a direct and indirect effect, thus H8 is accepted.

Table 40 Mediator Test (Special indirect effects)

| No | Hypothesis | Beta value | T-value | p-value | result |
|----|------------------|------------|---------|---------|-----------|
| 09 | H4: TS → EE → CD | 0.232 | 4.491 | 0.000 | supported |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.9 Effect Size (f² Value)

f² effect size represents the impact of a specified exogenous construct on the endogenous construct. The table shows that TS has an effect on CD and TS also has an effect on EE. EE has a medium effect on TS and CD.

Table 41 The value of effect size (f²)

| F square | CD | EE | CPT | CSM | TE |
|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| TS | 0.151 | 0.265 | 0.542 | 0.432 | 0.461 |
| EE | 0.404 | / | / | / | / |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

4.10 Predictive Relevance Q²

By using the blindfolding procedure through the cross-validated redundancy approach in Smart PLS software, the Stone-Geisser's Q² value (Hair et al., 2017) is obtained. This value indicates the model's predictive relevance. Q² value above zero shows the model's predictive relevance. See Table 44.

Table 42 Predictive Relevance

| V | Q ² |
|-----|----------------|
| CPT | 0.207 |
| TNA | 0.485 |
| CSM | 0.169 |
| TE | 0.176 |
| AMT | 0.426 |
| EE | 0.108 |
| CD | 0.276 |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.11 Interview Analysis and Findings

Because it gives information on the issue under investigation, the interview is one of the most extensively utilized methods in scientific research.

Furthermore, because the interview is a direct technique that is used to hold individuals accountable in an isolated manner, it allows for the collection of sufficient information for the purpose of deep identification of the individuals under investigation, and it is either regulated or unregulated depending on the jurisdiction.

In addition, I employed the interview strategy at the beginning of my research since it was the instrument that enabled me to delve deeper into the elements and mysteries of the topic, which had previously seemed hazy to me. The interview took held with representatives from the human resources departments of the six organizations. The first meeting consisted of a quick introduction to the topic and its goals, which I followed with a question and answer session. It also assisted me in gathering adequate information on the institutions in terms of their growth, organizational structure, and the number of people employed by them. The information supplied by responders is utilized only for scientific reasons, and I was given a briefing on certain administrative reports about the way the training courses are carried out, which I found to be very helpful. The findings of this interview were also used in the development of the questionnaire and the analysis of the data.

Then, during the period between December 21, 2021, and January 25, 2022, we conducted some interviews with human resources officials and heads of departments, and departments that carry out the tasks of identifying training needs and designing and implementing programs. The interview focused on the following points:

1- Determine the degree to which the training plan is compatible with the overall strategy of the institutions, as well as the level of commitment shown by the top management to the training operations.

2- Gain an understanding of the strategies for establishing training requirements that are used in enterprises.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

3- Learn how to create training programs for others.

4- Ensuring that training programs are implemented in a scientifically sound manner and in accordance with training requirements.

5- Ensuring that the techniques of assessing training programs, as well as their success in terms of the development of human competencies, are followed at each institution.

6- Gain an understanding of the technical tools and techniques that are utilized in training, such as electronic and remote learning, and their influence on the development of competencies and the refinement of skills among personnel in educational institutions.

7- The level to which workers are willing to devote and participate, as well as their involvement in the development of human skills.

We relied on the semi-directed interview in order to provide folks more flexibility to express themselves and their opinions. The following was provided in response to inquiries concerning defining training requirements:

Six managers were interviewed for this study, which is summarized in this chapter. Managers' viewpoints are explored concerning training strategies and competencies development in chosen SMEs in Sidi bel abbes province.

Plan and policy development falls to the highest levels of management. In order to meet the demands of small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) as well as the requirements of employees, training and development plans are developed and changed annually.

"Through direct observation of department heads to determine their strengths and weaknesses, the HR manager of AZZOUZ enterprise determines training needs, and then develops the necessary programs that correspond to the reports of department heads regarding the recorded inefficiency in the efficiency of workers," says Mr. M.M Director of Human Resources at AZZOUZ Foundation.

Training is overseen by a committee comprised of HR and training managers and overseen by the company's executive team, which shows how serious the company's executives

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

are about their commitment to employee development. The top management verifies plans and provides input on training programs before they are executed by the management of training, according to HR manager. Consequently, the company puts the proposed plan into action.

These plans are amended often to allow the management to give the training that helps personnel to grow their associated abilities in order to make the SMEs compete locally and globally.

The management of the human resources is responsible for formulating strategies and training policies. The senior management assigns training places and revenues and makes observations and comments about the training strategies employed. Nevertheless, there are no defined and definite training programs or rules since they are established depending on the requirements of the SMEs and workers.

He was also backed up by the Director of Human Resources at FAMAG enterprise Mr B.R who stated that "the institution pays great attention to identifying deficiencies in the competencies of employees, and to translating them into training programs in the medium and long term, in a way that serves both the training strategy and the overall strategic direction of the institution."

Additionally, training materials are developed by training management. At times, a senior manager does not agree with the advice of the training management. Hence, the ideas are submitted back to the management to be reviewed with the training team to recommend other methods of giving training to the SMEs workforce.

This makes the training policies and plans fluid and changing since there are no written or official rules and plans that are carefully followed.

In addition, senior management produces yearly training plans after reviewing training requirements with HR managers and training managers. Top managers are accountable for making sure that the training courses have been executed effectively. They make choices on training programs, training locations, and income, as well as long-term goals. They're the ones in charge. They also decide on choosing the trainers who can offer the course. A top manager B.R explains:

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

When a new system is set to be introduced to the organization, the senior management of the SMEs takes all the required procedures to ensure that personnel receives the training needed to allow them to run the system more successfully.

When it comes to the Director of Human Resources at the FROMALAIT enterprise Mr T.O, acknowledged that "the creation of training programs is based on a scientific approach in terms of creating objectives and content, and that certified trainers are used throughout this process."

In agreement with him, the Director of Human Resources at the AZZOUZ enterprise. He "stressed that the supply of training courses inside the same institution was done in line with the demands of the personnel."

"The employees are subjected to integrated training programs that meet their requirements, with the methods of training selected in accordance with the aims and capabilities available in the institution," the Director of Human Resources at the Pharma Foundation revealed.

From the conversation with top managers, they regard training as part of the strategy of the organization and they guarantee that training is effectively developed and delivered. The training policies chosen are the product of conversations with the senior management, the management of training and training professionals, as well as HRM. Together they assign the training programs required. Managers interviewed, on the other hand, believe that the availability of training centers and trainers who are ready and prepared to give the training needed, financial incentives for employees who seek training, interest in training by trainees, and commitment to training by staff, managers, and trainers are all factors that lead to training being a successful endeavor.

Further criteria for the success of training are included in paying trainees for the growth of their skills and performance, the availability of experienced and highly motivated trainers who can impart their knowledge and skills to their trainees in accordance with the corporate plans. A Training Manager conveyed his opinions as follows:

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Training may be deemed effective if workers take it seriously and are interested in training as a technique for increasing their abilities. The requirement for personnel to increase their abilities and the availability of the trainers and training programs and facilities that help training accomplish its goals are conditions for the success of training.

The success of training is defined by the availability of skilled, qualified, and trustworthy trainers as well as trainees who can contribute to the success of training, and the availability of the training programs. The poll also supports the results that employees' engagement and satisfaction with their requirements are necessary for the realization of the strategic needs of SMEs. A few managers emphasized training tactics are not frequently executed by their firms, but the training plans and policies chosen are adaptable and may be delivered to workers depending on the changes in the work environment.

It is important to consider the efficacy of training and the assessment of training activities. The Director of Human Resources at the Khanter enterprise B.A responded by stating that "the various training activities lead to raising the efficiency of workers, refining their skills, and improving their behavior, and that the introduction of new methods during the conduct of their various activities is inevitable."

Even in the instance where training is offered to the personnel, those do not appear to make use of it owing to the absence of new technologies. Staff cannot execute what they learn in their training, and as a consequence, the advantages of training are extremely limited.

Methods utilized to determine training requirements included surveys, observation, and yearly reports on personnel. A Training Manager explains:

The SMEs employ multi-methods to identify the training requirements of their personnel. For instance, SMEs employ performance assessments, special training teams, questionnaires, and 'personal interviews' as means of determining the training requirements of their workforce. Adding to this, the business checks the performance of its workers via the direct observations of line managers.

Training is offered to workers as a consequence of their performance evaluation, which is one of the techniques used to measure TNA. Through performance review, we may nominate

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

workers and identify the proper trainers. Nevertheless, in the evaluation of training requirements, friendship and the connection between managers and personnel may play a role.

CHIALI enterprise Director of Human Resources Mr. T.O. affirmed that the institution "studies the internal and external environment for the development of technology and utilizes it as the foundation for the variety of training programs." It is dependent on electronic training, which aids in the development of human competencies, as well as increased engagement from workers, who experience a sense of devotion and seriousness towards their jobs. This provides them with the ability to engage in their everyday choices and allows them more freedom in their professional lives."

A timeline for matching organizational goals with the training needs of experienced employees is developed following an assessment of those employees' training needs and the best ways to meet them. After that, the flaws and strengths of new hires are recognized in preparation for their on boarding and training. In answer to how the company connects organizational goals with training needs, Mr. T.O explains:

When a new technology is brought to the company, training is offered to experienced employees. It is also delivered according to a planned training program, which is often done once a year. On the other hand, training needs for newly appointed personnel are determined based on individual workers and their needs in addition to the needs of the jobs they fill.

He was also backed up by the Director of Human Resources at MED IJK, Mr. T.B who stated that, when the evaluation of training needs is done properly, training will be effective. This is not enough since the growth of technology and offering workers training periodically and maintaining their skills up to date with the improvement in technology.

It does seem that the evaluation of training needs is done properly and qualified trainers are selected to instruct personnel. A specific training team, questionnaires, and interviews were among the most often utilized methods of TNA, according to workers, while managers believe that small and medium-sized businesses use "personal interviews," questionnaires, and performance monitoring.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

The training depends critically on its ability to be evaluated. Sometimes, training providers provide personnel an assessment, and line managers submit their views and evaluation of training. One training Manager adds that \sOne of the techniques of assessing the training program is by sending some workers from other branches to play the role of customers to evaluate staff performance.

Some managers feel that training effectiveness may be evaluated by looking at how well their employees perform and how well their training materials are designed. This is accomplished by having employee's complete evaluation forms at the conclusion of training. An HR Manager says that the procedures utilized for the assessment of the training programs include: 'testing trainees after every training course and asking them to fill out a questionnaire.'

Management keeps an eye on employee productivity and conducts interviews with a few trainees to see what they've learned throughout training. They also utilize yearly reports and compare the performance of trainees before and after training to assess the development they have achieved.

Such assessment offers the management a thorough notion about the validity of the training offered and its effectiveness. The evaluation of training takes place as a final step of training and managers feel that an effective technique of assessing training is by testing trainees and how far their abilities have progressed. This gives managers a way to identify and address training issues. To evaluate the training needs of their employees, SMEs mostly rely on conventional techniques such as surveys, line manager observations, and interviews.

When there are fewer trainees, trainers can devote more time and attention to each one, which benefits both the trainees and the trainers. The facilities and spaces at training locations should be suitable for the participants. The study has indicated that training locations were not optimal for efficient training as has also been highlighted by training managers and workers.

For the purpose of training workers on how to operate the newly installed systems, foreign specialists are sought from across the world. In order for SMEs to employee training programs, external trainers must evaluate them and provide professionals in the training programs. This also covers the assessment of training before and after it has taken place. A Training Manager provided clarification.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) hire external trainers to give specialized training to their employees. External trainers assess the effectiveness of the training programs in place and provide specialized training to employees.

According to an HR manager, when it comes to in-house training, 'lectures' are the most often used method of delivery, followed by group discussions and self-training. Due to the conventional manner of giving training, and the fact that the most prevalent training techniques derive from the traditional style of training delivery, this may be explained in part. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) do not often use current training delivery techniques, even though such approaches may be more successful in training.

Chapter Four: Research Findings and Discussions

4.12 Chapter Summary

Smart PLS is being used to investigate the factors that impact training strategy, employee engagement, and the effect of employee engagement on competency development. There are several interesting insights that can be drawn from the research that was done on both the measurement and structural models.

In the first instance, the structural model proved acceptable dependability and validity. The internal consistency of all constructs was more than 0.7, while the composite dependability of all constructs was greater than 0. All of the item loadings fell within the range of the suggested cut-off values. The measuring model also revealed good convergent and discriminant validity, with AVE values within the required range.

Further, all manifest variables loaded on their corresponding latent variable and the square roots of AVE for each construct were bigger than its inter-correlation.

Second, the validation of the structural model yielded findings that were both satisfying and accurate. The R² was significant, with values ranging from modest to good. Furthermore, five out of the seven recommended routes inside the structural model were found to be viable. To be more specific, these putative impacts had values more than 0.1 and were statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

Third, the structural model revealed a substantial mediating link between the variables. There was a mediation impact on the link between training strategy and competencies development for one concept (i.e., employee engagement).

5 Chapter five

**Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and
Further Research**

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

Introduction

Firstly, the interpretation of the hypotheses findings and key implications are discussed, as well as theoretical and managerial implications emanating from the findings of this dissertation. The discussion starts with a review of research questions, then discusses the effect of training as a strategic choice on competencies development. Further, it continues with, limitations and future research recommendations. At the end of the chapter, a conclusion is presented.

5.1 Summary of the Finding

This chapter extensively studied and evaluated the data acquired from the sampled respondents on the influence of training strategy and employee engagement on the development of competencies in SMEs chosen in the province of Sidi bel abbes. The outcomes of this research study and the following assessment carried out on the replies indicate the important areas of training and development with its aspects stated and its difficulties on skills development. Results of this research have crucial consequences for human resource managers whether they are employing effective human resource methods such as training and development for excellent employee performance providing.

In the study, the main researcher objectives were to find the effect of training as a strategic choice with its dimensions (current practices of training, the commitment of senior management, the effectiveness of training, the use of modern technologies as the basis of the implementation of training programs) on competencies development, the effect of training strategy on employee engagement, and Exploring the impact of employee engagement on the development of human competencies.

However, despite the fact that all interviewees indicated that training and development were an important part of the strategic planning of the small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) studied, no strategic framework was in place to serve as a framework for operational training and development strategy.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

Furthermore, it can be concluded that clear human resource management in general, and training and development in particular at SMEs, should become more closely tied to the needs and strategies. As this occurs, training and development will be the thread that ties together all other activities and integrates these with the rest of the departments.

Respondents made it apparent that the absence of new technology as the foundation for the execution of training programs was the biggest organizational challenge restricting training and development. As a result, sample SMEs chosen in an effort to improve employee competency and morale competition must work to guarantee successful training and development programs in all divisions.

5.2 Summary of Hypothesis

Table 43 summary of hypothesis

| Hypothesis statement | | result |
|----------------------|--|----------------------|
| H1 | there is an effect of training strategy on competencies development | Supported |
| H2 | there is an effect of training strategy on employee engagement | Supported |
| H3 | there is an effect of employee engagement on competencies development | Supported |
| H1/A | There is an effect of current practices of training on competencies development | Not supported |
| H1/B | there is an effect of commitment of senior management on competencies development | Supported |
| H1/C | there is an effect of training effectiveness on competencies development | Supported |
| H1/D | there is an effect of the adoption of modern technologies on competencies development | Not supported |
| H4 | There is an indirect effect of training strategy on competencies development via employee engagement | Supported |

Source: prepared by researchers, 2022

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

The mean score of training needs assessment (3.75) with a standard deviation (1.10), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that the SMEs are establishing the training needs assessment in a scientific and systematic manner.

The mean score of the training design (3.71) with a standard deviation (1.17), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that the design of the training program is satisfactory.

The mean score of training delivery (3.79) with a standard deviation (1.07), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that the method of training delivery is chosen based on the objective of the training program.

The mean score of the training assessment (3.73) with a standard deviation (1.07), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that the SMEs use various tools to determine the efficiency of the training program and its ability to achieve the objectives.

The mean score of the commitment of senior management (3.76) with a standard deviation (1.03), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that the implementation of training strategies is among the senior management priorities.

The mean score of the training effectiveness (3.99) with a standard deviation (1.04), this indicates a high mean score which means that the effectiveness of training leads to raising the efficiency of employees at a high level in performing their various daily tasks and reducing their mistakes in the sample SMEs selected.

The mean score of the use of modern technologies as the basis of the implementation of training programs (3.74) with a standard deviation (1.11), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that the SMEs selected use of modern technology as a basis for the diversity of training programs in varying degree.

The mean score of the development of competencies (3.77) with a standard deviation (1.06), this indicates a moderate mean score which means that SMEs are interested in increasing and developing employees' skills and efficiency since their appointment in their positions.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

The mean score of the employee engagement (3.89) with a standard deviation (1.04), this indicates a high mean score which means that employees feel free and inspired to give their best at work and they feel dedicated and serious about doing their job at a high level.

Based on the results in Table 40, The findings of this study indicate that **there is a significant direct effect of training strategy on competencies development with $B= 0.310$ at $p=0.000$** , This supports the argument by Miller et.al (2002) who indicates that there is a strong relationship between training and performance. They argue that employees who are skilled tend to be more productive than those who are not. This result is in line with prior literature which presents that training impacts employee performance partly through improving employee skills which enables them to know and perform their jobs better (Wright & Geroy, 2001; Swart et al., 2012; Harrison, 2005).

It is confirmed in the research that "training helps to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of present or future performance of workers in any organization." by Ivancevich (2010). According to Mumford (1987), training and development tactics include designing a plan to increase technical and leadership abilities that may have an impact on goal attainment. Mumford made a similar point. Therefore, A-Poly must establish a framework for making training and development choices based on its vision and strategic plan. The results of the research fall in accordance with the views presented by McCracken & Wallace (2000) highlighting that training techniques and the strategies of the organizations create the foundation upon which the strategic planning of the organization is developed.

Training enhances employees' understanding of certain professions and gives them the possibility of gaining new abilities (Iatagan et al., 2010). Some of those polled believe that training enhances and expands the knowledge and abilities of workers, boosts their productivity and effectiveness, and teaches them new methods of doing their jobs.

Several studies have shown that better training results in a more cohesive workforce, better service for customers, lower costs for small and medium-sized businesses, and a more positive experience for employees. Snell et al (2015) think that offering workers training is vital for strengthening their attitudes. When human resources are adequately trained and have the requisite skills and talents, they would then be abler to cope with the breakthroughs in science

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

and technology that are going place. Employees would strengthen their teamwork abilities, and serve consumers properly. The results of this study show that training reduces employee absenteeism and enhances teamwork, learning management, and problem-solving abilities in small and medium-sized businesses.

According to Harrison and Kessels (2004), via training, personnel should be able to predict the knowledge and abilities needed for future tasks rather of waiting for issues to occur and responding to them. According to the findings, training aims to enhance employee performance, increase knowledge, and increase productivity, which is similar to Iatagan et al (2010) and Jackson & Schuler (2000).

According to Ugbonhe et al. (2016), development plan programs boosted workers' abilities and inspired them to produce better results. Al-Qudah et al. (2014) discovered a favorable relationship between training and development and improving the abilities of Jordanian public sector personnel, resulting in improved organizational performance. Al-Mzary et al. (2015) found that training and development improved the capacities of Al-Yarmouk University personnel. Furthermore, Rumman and Al-Rahahalh (2016) discovered the same findings, but at al Al- Balqa' Applied University.

In terms of the positive relationships and effects of training, development, and learning programs on boosting workers' skills and performance, the findings mirrored those of Tahir et al., (2014), Obi-Anike & Ekwe, (2014), and Habib et al., (2016). According to Noe and Kodwani (2018), training communicates new information, skills, and changing attitudes to workers in order to improve awareness of their present knowledge and abilities.

This result is reliable because the more employees are trained on how to perform their jobs effectively and efficiently the more effective and efficient, they become, and this increases their work performance and improves the standard of their skills and knowledge. The finding was consistent and in support of the following recent studies; (Sasidaran, 2018; Motlokoa et al., 2018; Jayasinghe & Fernando, 2017; Hassan, 2016; Setyawaty et al., 2017; Ibrahim et al., 2017; Raza et al., 2017).

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

According to the findings of Sasidaran (2018) and Motlokoa, Sekantsi, and Monyolo (2018), there is a significantly substantial beneficial relationship between training and employee performance. Ohueri, Enegbuma, Wong, Kuok, and Kenley (2018) discovered that employee training is one of the key elements that positively improve workers' job abilities. Similarly, Jayasinghe and Fernando (2017), Hassan (2016), and Setyawaty, Kartini, Sulaeman, and Joelyati (2017) discovered that ongoing training and development improves labor productivity. According to Ibrahim, Boerhannoeddin, and Bakare (2017), the training approach substantially predicts employee performance. Finally, Raza et al. (2017) stated that employee training has a large influence on employee performance and work satisfaction.

This supports the thesis of Becker et al., (2011) who emphasizes that firms should invest in their personnel via training and development to raise their knowledge because this is the only method for organizations to improve their portfolio. Kokkos (2005), (Walsh, 2009), and Herold (2012) further emphasize that after firms have acquired personnel, they need continually upgrade their abilities in order to improve performance.

In validating the results of the research on the impact of training and development on employee performance, prior studies done by McIlrath & Lyons (2012) demonstrated that the success of organizational goals would rely on the skills available in the company. They claim that talents acquired by workers have a major effect on employee performance.

The study revealed that training and development had a positive impact on employee performance. It was established that organizations that we're able to achieve their goals are those that had imparted relevant skills to their employees.

Oribabor's (2000) study corroborates this study's findings that training and development should aim to develop technical, human, conceptual, and managerial competencies for the purpose of advancing individual and organizational growth. Additionally, (Brodie, 2006; Butler, 2008), and Clardy (2005) postulated that no organization can survive without equipping its employees with the necessary skills. Because man is a dynamic being, the need to remain current and relevant in all realms of human effort necessitates staff development to stay abreast of current events and practices. Training has also aided in motivating employees when they are actively or indirectly involved in accomplishing the organization's objectives.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

In contrast, good employee experiences and views of training and development had a greater impact on employee competence than on employee commitment. Employees who view T&D programs to be of high quality, helpful, and relevant to their jobs may turn into proactive and motivated learners, effectively acquiring KSAs (Noe & Kodwani, 2018).

Increases productivity, improves work quality; improves skills, knowledge, understanding, and attitude; improves tool and machine use; reduces waste, accidents, turnover, lateness, absenteeism, and other overhead costs; eliminates obsolescence in skills, technologies, methods, products, and capital management, according to Oguntimehin (2001). It raises incumbents' performance to the level required for the position; enhances the application of new rules and regulations; prepares individuals for success, increases manpower development, and secures the enterprise's survival and growth.

The finding of this research shows that **there is no significant direct effect of the current practices of training (training needs assessment, training design, training delivery, training assessment) on competencies development with $B = 0.146$ at $p = 0.088$** . My results are not consistent with the findings of Bayoud et al (2012) who argue that the training needs of employees should be established and their skills should be improved in line with the resources needed by organizations. This indicates that the trainees will reach the desired level of performance if the training is well designed and delivered.

This means that if workers are satisfied with the training program's delivery manner, their performance will improve (02). The determinants of a training program should ideally be undertaken as a 'multi-stage' process that addresses the issues of who, what, how, and when workers should get training to meet their requirements (Magableh et al., 2011).

The results of this research corroborate several elements of TNA that were emphasized by Albahussain (2000), who discovered that just a few companies perform TNA on a regular basis, whereas the majority only do so on occasion. As a result, just because TNA is done regularly does not guarantee that training is successful. TNA's role in continuing operations should be expanded. However, training techniques that are designed to develop workers' knowledge and abilities may be used, and the method chosen is dependent on the goals of the

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

training programs given. As a result, the organization and delivery of any training program are critical in motivating learners to improve their performance (Katou & Budhwar, 2007).

According to Beevers and Rea (2010), T&D assessment comprises validation, which is concerned with the success of T&D goals and covers criteria such as the benefits obtained from training as compared to the cost of training. However, in Arab nations, notably Algeria, assessment is seen as an expense rather than an investment to be appreciated. According to studies conducted among Arab organizations, appraisal is not seen as a necessary duty (Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002).

According to Al-Athari and Zairi (2002), just eight out of forty public-sector managers believe that training evaluation is critical. According to El-Arabi (2007), using questionnaires in the evaluation of training programs is ineffective because most Arab organizations do not value follow-up procedures for assessing training effectiveness.

Assessing development requirements is the first step, according to DeCenzo et al (2016), and it is focused on gathering information on the skills and abilities that must be accessible to meet the organization's goals. According to Noe & Kodwani (2018), any error in requirements assessment would result in a waste of resources and a failure to meet objectives. The second phase is to plan development strategy programs, which includes creating development goals, deciding program content, identifying development techniques, selecting competent trainers, and providing the essential resources and facilities for the transition to the third stage (implementation of the development strategy programs).

Employee skills evolve as a result of successful training programs, according to Wright & Geroy (2001). It not only improves employees' overall performance in order to effectively perform their current job, but it also improves workers' knowledge, skills, and attitude to prepare them for future jobs, resulting in superior organizational performance. Employee skills are built via training, allowing them to carry out job-related tasks effectively and meet corporate goals in a competitive way. However, various environmental elements, such as corporate culture, organizational structure, job design, performance rating methods, power and politics in the business, and group dynamics, have an impact on employee performance. Employee performance suffers when the aforementioned issues exist in the company, not because of a

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

lack of necessary knowledge, skills, or attitude, but because of the aforementioned roadblocks. These components should be considered to make training successful and to guarantee that training has a good influence on employee performance, according to Wright and Geroy (2001). Furthermore, according to Eisenberger et al (1986), employees feel more committed to the company when they sense organizational commitment to them, and as a result, they perform better.

Employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies, and behavior are all gained from training (Benedicta, 2010). According to the findings, training improves performance by developing skills and competencies, reducing learning time for employees starting new jobs on appointment, transfer, or promotion, and helping to reconcile the gap between what should happen and what is happening to raise performance levels.

The other finding of the study shows that **there is a significant direct effect of the commitment of senior management with training issues and programs on competencies development with B= 0.232 at p=0.005**. This finding is consistent with the findings of Al-Obaidi (2013).

Based on the results in Table 40, The findings of this study indicate that **there is a significant direct effect of training effectiveness on competencies development with B= 0.376 at p=0.000**, This supports the argument by Altarawneh (2005) examined the relationship between the effectiveness of training and development programs and the performance of both employees and organizations at the Jordanian commercial banks, her results emphasized the positive association between the studied variables.

When assessing the results of training and development, according to Barnett & Mattox (2010), the organization should ensure that appropriate resources are supplied in order to achieve an objective result.

The finding of this research shows that **there is no significant direct effect of the use of modern technologies as the basis of the implementation of training programs on competencies development with B= 0.126 at p=0.117**. this study was confirmed by the findings of liambo (2018) who showed that training and development strategies provided by

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

the organization were not aligned with technology. The recommendations suggest that top management should ensure that all the equipment and tools used for staff training are aligned with prevailing technology. My results are not consistent with the findings of the Al-Arabi. (2012).

The other finding of the study shows that **there is a significant direct effect of training strategy on employee engagement with $B= 0.458$ at $p=0.000$** . This study was also confirmed by the study of Wellins & Concelman (2005) who noted that organizations can enhance engagement in their workforce by creating a learning culture and creating individual development plans for every employee. Many studies had shown that most employees want to keep their jobs inventive and interesting by acquiring new knowledge and skills and applying new approaches in their daily work life.

Training and career development are two crucial dimensions in the process of engaging workers, and this highlights the urgent need for policies on diversity and conflict management to be developed as soon as possible. The performance of engaged personnel directs the firm toward customer pleasure, which in turn directs the organization toward profitability or positive business results (Bassi & McMurrer, 2010). The authors go on to claim that contemporary business expects its staff to be upbeat and to take responsibility for furthering their knowledge and skills development. It is anticipated that they would spend their time and effort maintaining high-performance appraisal standards.

Employees that are active, devoted, and fascinated in their jobs were in high demand in organizations. Several researchers, like Davidhizar and Shearer (1998), have concluded that effective management involves the staff in their job and results in good employee performance. This may be accomplished by appropriate candidate selection, appropriate training, power-sharing, work-information exchange, knowledge or employee skills, and a performance-based compensation structure.

The other finding of the study shows that **there is a significant direct effect of employee engagement on competencies development with $B= 0.507$ at $p=0.000$** . It was also validated by the research conducted by Rao (1996), which claimed that some of the factors that might improve employee performance are as follows: 1) If an organization believes it is required, an

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

employee will work harder if the organization believes it is necessary. In the second, the employee understands what is expected of them, and when they are periodically empowered to adjust these expectations, they do so. 3). Employees believe that the company gives an opportunity for their efforts to be recognized and rewarded for their efforts. 4). Employees are aware that their employer gives possibilities for them to put their abilities to use to the greatest extent feasible. Workers' performance may be measured using timelines in finishing the job, specifically the capacity of employees to complete their work on time, provided they are treated with dignity and respect by their supervisors (Mangkunegara, 2011) It is possible to assess performance in the following ways: Employees' ability to accomplish their job on time, as measured by their timeliness, is a key factor in determining their performance. Employees are considered to have completed their employment if they meet or surpass the organization's aim for finishing the task. 3) Perform error-free work that does not create errors in violation of a condition of employment for each individual employee.

Engaged employees are those who are focused on the work they accomplish at their jobs and who are willing to devote their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources to this labor. One who is engaged in their work is one who pursues the duties that are connected with it with a feeling of self-investment, enthusiasm, and passion, all of which should convert into greater levels of performance in the position and outside of the role (Christian et al., 2011). Because engaged employees are more likely to engage in extra-role behavior than disengaged employees, it is likely that they will engage in extra-role behavior. This is because engaged employees are more likely to accomplish goals and perform tasks efficiently, allowing them to pursue activities that are not part of their job descriptions.

Staff members, according to proponents of human resources, are the primary sources of organizational creativity and innovation. Disengaged personnel, on the other hand, cannot be forced to enhance their competencies, nor can they be propelled to do so. According to Gallup (2005), just 29 percent of corporate workers are engaged, with the remaining employees either moderately involved or entirely disengaged, according to a worldwide survey conducted in 2005. Undoubtedly, disengaged employees are a liability to the organization and hardly challenge the status quo while engaged employees exhibit emotional job attachment,

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

unreserved commitment, increased productivity, high job passion, and in most cases, they go extra miles (S. Abraham, 2012).

Gallup (2005) defined three sorts of individuals in a longitudinal study: engaged workers disengaged employees, and actively disengaged employees. According to Gallup, engaged workers are builders who continually strive for excellence in their professions. Employees who are not engaged are more concerned with the tasks assigned to them than with the organization's goals. They carry out their instructions. Actively disengaged workers are hazardous people who not only perform poorly but also serve to demotivate the organization's performance. According to (McEwen, 2011), engaged employees are fully engaged and enthusiastic about their work. They are invested in their organization's future success and are prepared to make discretionary efforts to ensure their organizations' success.

There are numerous prior empirical studies and published literatures on employee engagement and others that have successfully demonstrated the importance of employee engagement in terms of increasing skills and attitudes, organizational performance excellence, and success across a variety of industries. Recent studies, such as those conducted by Gallup (2005) and Abraham (2012), have shown why employee engagement has gained prominence in many firms, with an emphasis on increased productivity and performance excellence. Anitha (2014) evaluated the effect of employee engagement on employee performance and discovered that employee engagement has a statistically significant effect on employee performance. Employee engagement, according to Abraham (2012), leads to improved customer service, creativity, productivity, low staff turnover, a devoted workforce, a strong feeling of work commitment, increased skills and attitudes, a desire to put in additional time on the job, and pride in their work.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

5.3 Conclusion

The importance of training and development in the corporate world has been highlighted in the previous literature. Thus, it is essential to examine any issues related to training and development in any business sector. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of training as a strategic choice on competencies development within the sample SMEs selected in the province of Sidi bel abbes. Moreover, sub-goals are developed to facilitate a clear achievement of the purpose of the study. These include (1) What is the level of the implementation of the training strategy in its dimensions (current practices for training - the commitment of senior management – training effectiveness — the use of modern technologies in training) in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province? (2) What is the level of possessing the necessary competencies to face future environmental challenges in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province? (3) What are the current practices of training in the sample selected in terms of how is Training Needs Assessment (TNA) is conducted, what are the training delivery methods and how is training evaluation and follow-up conducted? (4) What processes are used to identify training needs and to plan and organize training programs and how are these programs evaluated? (5) is there a significant direct effect of training strategy on competencies development in selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province? (6) What are the views of employees concerning the impact of training programs on improving their skills and abilities, and positively changing their behavior? (7) Is the training strategy, mature and effective in terms of helping the sample SMEs to improve their human competencies? (8) What is the mediating role of employee engagement in the relationship between training strategy and competencies development?

The findings reported in this study suggest that training and development have an impact on the development of competencies in their jobs. This result is broadly consistent with prior management literature on training and development. To gain more specific knowledge of training and development from the sample SMEs, different questions are presented to the respondents and thus examined. These questions are focusing on training needs assessment, training design, training delivery, training evaluation, the commitment of senior management, the effectiveness of training, the adoption of modern technologies as the basis of the implementation of training programs, and employee engagement.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

Each training session's primary purpose is to enhance workers' abilities; hence, all types of firms build ongoing training and development plans for their staff. The purpose of training is to determine what workers will learn after completing the training program. Some SMEs organize and conduct training programs for their workers without defining the program's purpose and goals, without understanding what information, skills, and talents employees will acquire at the conclusion of the program, or if they will be able to meet job performance targets. As a result, SMEs must build training programs with specific aims and objectives in mind, while also taking into account the unique requirements of both the person and the organization.

This research is primarily concerned with the function of training in promoting employee performance. Training is critical in developing the capabilities of new and existing personnel to do their jobs effectively. Additionally, it trains people to assume future positions within an organization with full skills and assists them in overcoming any job-related weaknesses. Training is seen as an investment by the company that not only generates a high rate of return but also assists in achieving a competitive edge.

Employees are referred to as the firm's unique, non-imitable, and valuable resource, and the success or failure of any corporation is largely determined by the performance of its employees. As a result, firms that recognize this truth are ready to spend on training programs designed to grow their staff. Effective training is seen as a critical aspect in enhancing performance, since it may increase both employee and company expertise. It assists in closing the gap between needed and actual performance, i.e. the difference between intended and actual employee performance. Training must be applied to any performance deficiency that may be alleviated by suitable training. There are several strategies for improving employee performance in the workplace, and training is one of them. Training, in particular, improves employee performance and organizational productivity by developing skills, competencies, and abilities.

Training programs provide the impetus necessary for employees to enhance their performance and skills, hence increasing company productivity. As a result, training should be tailored to the unique requirements and goals of each organization. Effective training is the deliberate intervention aimed at achieving the essential learning for improved employee

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

performance. The study substantiated the concept that training improves employee performance.

The preceding questions have been chosen because they contribute to a better understanding of the training practices in the firms under consideration. The responses to the questions about employee participation in training and selection for training indicate that these enterprises have sound and possibly transparent policies regarding training and development, as the majority of respondents indicated that they had participated in training and that the majority were provided with opportunities to train as part of the enterprise's mandatory practice for all employees and/or upon joining the enterprise. When the subject of competency development and employee engagement is examined, the results indicate that there is a significant direct effect of both dependent, independent, and mediator variables.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

5.4 Contributions to Knowledge

5.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

The theoretical contributions of this research are:

- This research adds to the body of information about the theory of training strategy and competency development in Algeria and is the first to examine training strategy and employee engagement in the country.

- The study of the literature indicated gaps and the need for further empirical investigations in Algeria and the Arab globe.

By presenting training and development as a concept and demonstrating how it is done in Sidi bel abbes city, this study combines and expands earlier research. Additionally, it demonstrates why T&D is handled in accordance with Algerian society's tradition.

Thus, by situating practice within a specific cultural context, the study may serve as a springboard for theory development and has linked together prior research on T&D worldwide.

- This study will aid scholars in developing a theoretical foundation for T&D in Algerian SMEs that applies to other sectors of the Algerian economy.

For instance, the study has substantiated the role of training as a strategic choice concerning the development of competencies and employee engagement. Researchers can build on such findings, particularly in the context of Algerian SMEs.

- This study emphasizes that current training practices, senior management commitment, training effectiveness, and the adoption of modern technologies as the foundation for training program implementation are all new dimensions that must be considered when studying training strategy in Algeria and other Arab countries.

- A country's political, economic, and sociocultural settings all have an impact on the type and importance of national human resource development. In the organizational structure of SMEs, there should be a single entity responsible for all aspects of training. Due to a lack of

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

appropriately qualified personnel and applicable curriculum, Algerian organizations continue to experience poor productivity. The national human resource development framework has a recurring theme of individual development and life improvement via education and training.

- Algerian SMEs are seeking to modernize their training strategies around four guiding principles: human capital investment through education and training; treating employees as intellectual assets, developing innovative and cost-cutting behaviors within organizations; increasing employee engagement and competency development. Curricula should promote international investment and emphasize language and computer training. Human resource development may contribute to the development and shape of Algerian society. Algeria relies heavily on indigenous specialists and professionals, as well as international experts, to offer skills and information to the country, which results in the success and continuation of Algerian enterprises.

5.4.2 Practical Contributions

From a practical sense, this study assists SMEs in determining how they may improve their training and development planning, the success of their present programs, and the perspectives of their workers. Furthermore, the findings of this study point out issue areas such as the incorporation of contemporary technologies into training programs, the reasons for employees' incapacity to grasp T&D programs, the efficiency of training programs, as well as the need for adequate training assessment. Above all, according to the findings of the research, the effect of employee involvement is the most significant component in the training of SMEs employees and the development of competencies. Employee involvement is often a critical factor in the training of workers, especially when it comes to the development of human capabilities. Maintaining employee satisfaction and dedication to training, on the other hand, is a crucial factor in the overall effectiveness of training initiatives.

Trainees are urged to seek training, and the current research reveals some of the issues associated with training practices that are impeding their ability to go further in their careers. The report serves as a practical guide to new ways of thinking about technology and development in the Algerian economic sector.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

5.4.3 Contributions to HRD Knowledge

The value and application of a critical training approach, as well as the idea of competencies development, are examined in this literature review and case study, which contributes to the body of knowledge in human resource development. Although the advantages of competence models are significant, this research gives further insight into why the choice to use competency models in an organization should not be made without careful deliberation. As a result, companies must be prepared to dedicate considerable amounts of time to planning and communication, data collecting, change management, and resistance management. This work offers up new research opportunities, especially in terms of identifying the different aspects of competency-based strategy execution and employee engagement that may be investigated.

5.5 Recommendations and Future Research

This research has aided in the resolution of some critical issues about training strategies and practices in general. The report emphasizes the need of having specialized training and development centers to give training. Also necessary are considerations for the planning of T&D operations as well as the implementation of assessment methods.

Rather than being seen as an alternative, the research emphasizes that training and development should be viewed as an investment that is required to refine the skills of the intellectual capital of the enterprises, as T&D planning cannot be separated from larger business plans. According to the findings of the research, T&D should be handled exclusively by a specialized training unit. Furthermore, senior management should assist in the training process and should not be the only decision-maker in matters pertaining to training and development. On-the-job training programs should be expanded because more attention must be paid to determining the training requirements of employees.

A greater range of training delivery techniques, including seminars, conferences, and case studies, in addition to the conventional methods that are currently in place, should be considered by the researchers once they have been tailored to the needs of the local environment. Above all, there is a need to make accessible skilled trainers and the training courses that fit employees

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

and the plans of SMEs. A larger level of participation in planning is required from experienced training managers.

Trainees should be placed in training programs that are appropriate for their academic level, and trainees should be chosen based on their academic credentials and experience rather than on personal factors. Employees should be chosen based on their yearly performance reports as well as the SMEs' demands. To evaluate the training that is offered to employees, suitable training assessment programs are required. This kind of training evaluation should take place both before and after the session.

Based on the results and conclusions, the following recommendations have been made, which call for greater in-depth study on the issue by other scholars in the future.

- When employees are aware of the company's training policies and the organization's strategic aim, they are much more equipped when it comes to putting their skills and knowledge to good use. Therefore, the Corporation needs to concentrate on delivering knowledge about the matter to the wide population of its employees. Furthermore, the company must emphasize the importance of developing and implementing training programs in accordance with the company's training strategy and only on the basis of gap assessments.

- SMEs should explicitly disclose the findings for each worker, what change in staff skill, attitude, conduct, and knowledge. Enterprise leaders must also make it clear what, if anything, will be changing and by how much.

- Training goals should be apparent to both management and SMEs and employees since they may be used to judge their success.

- Systematic training and development should be provided to the employees of the chosen SMEs so that they may take on more responsibility and do so with the necessary self-assurance.

- SMEs should offer performance feedback which will enable personnel to be aware of changes to both their work objectives and the overarching goals of the business.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

- The issue area and the employee's skill deficiencies may be identified via a regular assessment of training needs. Employees can identify their own training needs by using a variety of tools, such as recorded performance evaluation reports and questionnaires, as well as informal methods such as observations, interviews, and on-the-job training. This will help the company better address individual and organizational issues. Moreover, trainee selection criteria and processes need to be used uniformly in places.

- The business needs to follow clear and transparent trainees and trainer selection processes to choose the appropriate candidate for the correct training at the right time and follow its practicality consistently. In addition, corporate criteria for evaluating training before awarding them must be prepared in order to decide whether or not the training adds value.

- Every business should have a training unit or division to assist newly hired employees in becoming familiar with the organization's objectives, policies, structure, production, and services, among other things.

- Management should set aside a quantity of money (budget) to carry out a training program and improve the efficiency with which it is carried out.

- Management should have recognized the issues with training and development programs and devised a strategy for dealing with them.

- Most of the training given for the corporate employees was outsourced /Off-the-job/training that has generated advantages of below average. Hence, the Corporation is not entirely disregarding off-the-job training techniques, as its primary emphasis areas were planning and supervision of big projects, better to adapt on in-house training, experience sharing with seniors, and knowledge transfer training based on actual completed projects. A pre-and post-test must also be included in any training, whether it's done outside of the workplace or in the workplace, so that the results may later be used to establish new goals and to gauge the training's success.

- There are four layers of training assessment in Donald Kirkpatrick's model (i.e. Reaction, Learning, Behavior change, and Results), and they are crucial for evaluating the

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

efficacy of training programs, particularly the behavior and result components. Hence, the Corporation prefers to use the model on regular basis instead of merely measuring the instant response of trainees.

- In addition, the Corporation should have some participation in the evaluations of the contents of training and training materials provided by training businesses in order to enable employees subsequently utilize the materials as a reference on their real job through which learned to practical successes.

- Capacity of training specialists has to be refreshed frequently to let them analyze training programs' effectiveness on continuous bases to support the company's effort that in turn helps the corporation in deciding on more training.

- Organizational management should identify the types of employees who need training and development and then establish training and development plans for each of these groups.

Increasing employee output in any company is dependent on their prior knowledge and skills, as well as their ability to hire new employees. Having a clear understanding of what is expected of them, as well as a familiarity with their workplace, helps employees operate more effectively and efficiently. All of this may be achieved with the right kind of training and growth. Equally, effective training and development is a channel of skill growth, motivation, and enhancement of employees' productivity which contribute to the accomplishment of the company objectives.

- Regardless of the duration or length of training and development, management should not overlook it. This is because the more a company attempts to reduce training costs in the beginning, the higher the cost will be in the future.

- A concept should be established for analyzing a person's productivity (achievement), knowledge, potential, behavior, skills, and performance, and then organizing training and development for that individual to increase productivity.

- The report also suggests that SMEs diversify their training techniques for their employees, as well as perform specific training programs for managers.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

- According to the report, SMEs should be concerned with providing the required financial and material resources for the training process, as well as the need to consider training a vital building block and a strategic priority in every department within SMEs.
- The necessity for top management in SMEs to support the foundations of contemporary technology in training to guarantee that employees benefit from the most recent training programs and so boost their productivity.
- The research proposes assessing workers' performance after completing a training course in order to identify the employee's and program's strengths and deficiencies.
- Other comparable studies focusing on activating the function of training techniques to increase the efficiency of employees in SMEs are required.
- Workplace circumstances in the organization should be addressed so that they are favorable to learning transfer.
- There should be a greater focus on the assessment process, in terms of employing more practical ways, taking into account the workplace environment, and extending the evaluation process after the program has ended.
- In addition, methods of two-way communication between trainees and instructors should be developed to guarantee the transfer of training to the working environment.
- It is necessary to raise awareness among top management, supervisors, and workers about the relevance of training and development activities in terms of improving the skills, knowledge, and abilities (KSAs) of both managers and employees.
- The top management and supervisors need to be more actively involved and supportive of training procedures to obtain the best possible outcomes.
- It is advised that employees get feedback after training in order for them to become aware of areas where they may enhance their performance.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

- The employer should give enough training resources to enhance the training programs offered.
- The company should strengthen training programs so that employees learn new skills while on the job.
- The employer should make mandatory training programs available to all employees to increase their knowledge and grasp of the yearly company plan and goals.
- Employees should be given effective training for managers to spend less time managing employees.
- Find current approaches that suit the defined goals of the training procedure. Also, picking skilled trainers to train in various hotels services.
- The need of striving to raise the levels of training programs and specify its goals explicitly.
- It is imperative that the study's findings be disseminated to all SMEs in the province of Sidi bel abbes, so that they may take its suggestions and results into account in order to improve staff productivity.
- Employees should be supplied with additional training programs to lower the expense of hiring and training new staff members.
- If training is offered properly in the company there will be a decrease in personnel turnover.
- The necessity of working on strategies and training techniques that correspond with the courses' goals.
- The necessity of hiring skilled trainers that can accomplish the course and aid the learners to attain their intended goals.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

- It is important for organizations to be aware of how they define training requirements. People in charge of needs assessment should concentrate on collecting data from a wide range of people and/or groups methodically and objectively.

- An organization's success will be enhanced if it has strong links with specialist training and development institutions.

- Companies should approach training and development activities or phases as a system. This implies that the data from each step should be utilized to review and monitor the data from the preceding phase, and vice versa. In the case of the evaluation phase, data from the evaluation phase should be utilized to adjust the assessment and delivery phases, for instance.

5.6 Process for Developing an Effective and Well-Constructed Training Program

Providing effective feedback is the last stage in a circular process that starts with the assessment of training requirements and concludes with the provision of effective feedback. It is confirmed by the researcher that if the following stages are performed in a methodical and patient manner, the outcomes will be satisfying to both participants and the organization. These stages are shown in the following examples:

- ✓ **Identifying the training requirements:** In the context of a certain scenario, training need is defined as a discrepancy between "what is" and "what should be" in terms of incumbents' knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and behavior for that circumstance at a given moment in time. This discrepancy is referred to as "an issue," and it often happens when there is a disparity between "desired performance" and "actual performance." Trainers may use the needs identification process to ensure that they have created a training program that is appropriate for a specific training challenge.
- ✓ **Identifying the training requirements of an organization:** The training requirements and corporate goals should be aligned with one another. Afterward, the findings of these investigations are compared to the organization's goals and

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

objectives. These comparisons draw attention to particular areas in which further training is required.

- ✓ **Create a list of training goals:** It is essential that objectives be SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Timely) and clear, and that they serve to develop individuals while also meeting the demands of businesses. Performance goals, measurement criteria, and the perception that the objectives are reachable by people should all be included in the objectives.
- ✓ **Analyze the currently used training techniques:** Convenience, substance, delivery style, and depth of information are just a few of the factors to consider while reviewing.
- ✓ **Develop new approaches or use existing ones:** It is critical to remember that employee training and development is a learning process while choosing employee training and development approaches. Employee training and development must be tailored to the specific requirements of your firm, including the setting, job descriptions, employment contracts, and collective bargaining agreements.
- ✓ **Develop and implement a training program:** When the planning part of a training program is completed, it is time to put the program into action. Putting a training program into operation is defined as the moment at which a trainer initiates a training plan, or as the process of putting a training program into action.
- ✓ **Methods of training and development should be evaluated:** Evaluating activities in the context of their goals is a process that determines the relevance, efficacy, and impact of activities. Consider the fact that most extension training activities take place within a wider framework of projects, programs, and goals when assessing an extensive training program. The outcomes of the evaluation may be utilized to inform future decision-making.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

- ✓ **Examine the acquired findings in comparison to industry norms:** Individual, group, and organizational standards are often utilized by companies in today's society. The concrete influence of the training program on people, their work environments, or the business as a whole is what is measured in terms of results.
- ✓ **Participants should get effective feedback:** An important component of a successful training and development program is effective and timely feedback, which should be provided in connection with the establishment of performance objectives. Employee performance will increase if they get timely and accurate feedback on their progress toward their objectives. A timely report on one's performance, as well as information on which strategies are working and which aren't, is required. Input may be received from a variety of sources, including managers and supervisors, measuring systems, and peers, among other things.

5.6 Limitations of the Study

This study, like many others, has several shortcomings, the most notable of which are as follows:

First and foremost, the scope of the research is confined to the effects of three variables: training strategy, competencies development, and employee engagement. It is recommended that future research include additional variables such as empowerment, commitment, motivation, green training, and green competencies, among others, that contribute to performance and productivity in a way that the existing research cannot. These variables include but are not limited to commitment, empowerment, and motivation.

For the second time, the assessment of study factors, as well as their impact on performance and productivity, are entirely based on the views and attitudes of respondents as they complete the questionnaires. As a result, there may be some components of mistakes and bias in the data collection.

Chapter Five: Summary and Discussion of Finding, Implication, and Further Research

Third, because the study only included six small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the private sector, if the findings of this study are to be generalized, additional SMEs should be investigated in order to obtain more up-to-date and valuable contributions regarding the effect of training and development on employee competencies and productivity.

For the fourth time, since the main findings of this research are relevant to small and medium-sized businesses, the current results cannot be applied to larger corporations as a generalization.

Fifth, although the literature search was thorough, it is possible that some potentially significant studies were left out, and the selection of literature sources may have involved components of bias and subjectivity in the process.

Lastly, the sample size (**n=231**) is considered modest for this kind of research owing to limits in terms of time, resources, and the willingness of participants to participate. Concerning respondents' willingness to participate, the researcher promised them that the anonymity of the information they submitted would be preserved and that the information would only be used for the purposes of the study.

References

Abdullah, H. (2009). Definitions of HRD: Key concepts from a national and international context. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 10(4), 486–495.

Abraham, S. (2012). Job satisfaction as an antecedent to employee engagement. *Sies Journal of Management*, 8(2).

Abraham, S. E., Karns, L. A., Shaw, K., & Mena, M. A. (2001). Managerial competencies and the managerial performance appraisal process. *The Journal of Management Development*, 20(10), 842–852.

Adesola, A. B. (n.d.). *THE IMPACT OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN RADISSON BLU ANCHORAGE HOTEL SUBMITTED BY.*

Aguinis, H., & Pierce, C. A. (2008). Enhancing the relevance of organizational behavior by embracing performance management research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, 29(1), 139–145.

Aït Razouk, A., & Bayad, M. (2009). Investigating the use of strategic human resource management in French small and medium-sized enterprises: Longitudinal study. *Human Systems Management*, 28(1–2), 47–56.

Aktar, A., & Pangil, F. (2017). The relationship between employee engagement, HRM practices and perceived organizational support: Evidence from banking employees. Aktar, A. & Pangil F.(2017), “The Relationship between Employee Engagement, HRM Practices and Perceived Organizational Support: Evidence from Banking Employees” *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 7(3).

Akwei, C. A., Peppard, J., & Hughes, P. (2007). *The process of creating dynamic capabilities* [PhD Thesis]. Loughborough University.

Al-Athari, A., & Zairi, M. (2002). Training evaluation: An empirical study in Kuwait. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.

Albawardy, F. A. (2010). *The strategic value of learning: A comparative study between multinational private and public sectors organizations in Saudi Arabia* [PhD Thesis]. University of Portsmouth.

Alemayehu, M. S. (2017). Effects of Training on Employee Performance in Ethiopia Revenue and Customs Authority at Customs procedure Sector. *Unpublished Thesis. Addis Abeba University.*

Alfes, K., Veld, M., & Fürstenberg, N. (2021). The relationship between perceived high-performance work systems, combinations of human resource well-being and human resource performance attributions and engagement. *Human Resource Management Journal, 31*(3), 729–752.

Alias, S. A., Ong, M. H. A., Rahim, A. R. A., & Hassan, R. (2019). The role of training design factors in influencing training effectiveness among public service employees. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 9*(5), 898–913.

Allen, M. R., & Wright, P. M. (2006). Strategic management and HRM (CAHRS Working Paper# 06-04). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, School of Industrial and Labor Relations. *Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies. Retrieved from: Http://Digitalcommons. Ilr. Cornell. Edu/Cahrswp/404.*

Al-Mzary, M. M. M., Al-rifai, A. D., & Al-Momany, M. O. E. (2015). Training and Its Impact on the Performance of Employees at Jordanian Universities from the Perspective of Employees: The Case of Yarmouk University. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(32), 128–140.

Al-Qudah, M. K. M., Osman, A., Ab Halim, M. S., & Al-Shatanawi, H. A. (2014). The effect of human resources planning and training and development on organizational performance in the government sector in Jordan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 4*(4), 79.

Altarawneh, I. I. (2005). *Training and development effectiveness: Practices, roles and impacts on performance in Jordanian banking organisations* [PhD Thesis]. University of Huddersfield.

Amabile, T. M. (1996). *Creativity in context (Boulder, CO, Westview Press)*. westview press.

Ambrosini, V., & Bowman, C. (2009). What are dynamic capabilities and are they a useful construct in strategic management? *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11(1), 29–49.

Anderson, N., Potočnik, K., & Zhou, J. (2014). Innovation and creativity in organizations: A state-of-the-science review, prospective commentary, and guiding framework. *Journal of Management*, 40(5), 1297–1333.

Anderson, V. (2007). *The value of learning: From return on investment to return on expectation*. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Anderson, V. (2009). Desperately seeking alignment: Reflections of senior line managers and HRD executives. *Human Resource Development International*, 12(3), 263–277.

Andrew, O. C., & Sofian, S. (2012). Individual factors and work outcomes of employee engagement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 40, 498–508.

Andrews, M., & Chilton, F. (2000). Student and mentor perceptions of mentoring effectiveness. *Nurse Education Today*, 20(7), 555–562.

Anitha, J. (2014). Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*.

Argyris, C. (1999). *On organizational learning. Toinen painos*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1978). What is an organization that it may learn. *Organizational Learning: A Theory Perspective*, Argyris C, Schoen DA (Eds). Addison-Wesley: Reading, MA, 8–29.

- Ariani, D. W. (2013). The relationship between employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 4(2), 46.
- Armstrong, C., Flood, P. C., Guthrie, J. P., Liu, W., MacCurtain, S., & Mkamwa, T. (2010). The impact of diversity and equality management on firm performance: Beyond high performance work systems. *Human Resource Management*, 49(6), 977–998.
- Armstrong, M. (1996). A Handbook of. *Personnel Management Practice*.
- Armstrong, M. (2006). *Strategic Human Resource Management-A Guide to Action 3rd Ed.*
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *Armstrong's Handbook Of human resource Management practice 11th edition*.
- Armstrong, M. (2016). *Armstrong's handbook of management and leadership for HR: Developing effective people skills for better leadership and management*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014). *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice: Edition 13*. Kogan page.
- Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2020). *Armstrong's handbook of human resource management practice*.
- Arshad, A., Azhar, S. M., & Khawaja, K. (2014). Dynamics of HRM practices and organizational performance: Quest for strategic effectiveness in Pakistani organizations. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(9).
- Arthur, D. (2006). *Fundamentals of human resources management*. AMACOM Div American Mgmt Assn.
- Arthur Jr, W., Bennett Jr, W., Edens, P. S., & Bell, S. T. (2003). Effectiveness of training in organizations: A meta-analysis of design and evaluation features. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 234.

- Assaf, A. R., Cummings, K. M., Graham, S., Mettlin, C., & Marshall, J. R. (1985). Comparison of three methods of teaching women how to perform breast self-examination. *Health Education Quarterly*, *12*(3), 259–272.
- Au, A. K. M., Altman, Y., & Roussel, J. (2008). Employee training needs and perceived value of training in the Pearl River Delta of China. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Baird, L., & Meshoulam, I. (1988). Managing two fits of strategic human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, *13*(1), 116–128.
- Bakker, H., Jones, W., & Nichols, M. (1994). Using core competences to develop new business. *Long Range Planning*, *27*(6), 13–27.
- Bal, P. M., & De Lange, A. H. (2015). From flexibility human resource management to employee engagement and perceived job performance across the lifespan: A multisample study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *88*(1), 126–154.
- Bala, A., Aklahyel, M. U., & Ibrahim, Y. (2014). The effect of training and development in improving employees' productivity: A study of some selected small scale industries in Gombe metropolis. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, *3*(6), 27–37.
- Barber, J. (2004). Skill upgrading within informal training: Lessons from the Indian auto mechanic. *International Journal of Training and Development*, *8*(2), 128–139.
- Barclay, D., Higgins, C., & Thompson, R. (1995). *The partial least squares (PLS) approach to casual modeling: Personal computer adoption ans use as an Illustration*.
- Barham, K., Fraser, J., & Heath, L. (1988). *Management for the Future: How Leading International Companies Develop Managers to Achieve Their Vision; a Major Research Project...* FME, Foundation for Management Education.
- Barnett, K., & Mattox, J. R. (2010). Measuring Success and ROI in Corporate Training. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, *14*(2), 28–44.

- Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99–120.
- Barney, J. B. (1997). *Gaining and sustaining competitive advantage*. Massachusetts. Addison-Wesley, Reading.
- Barney, J. B. (2001). Is the Resource-Based ‘View’ a Useful Perspective for Strategic Management Research? Yes. *The Academy of Management Review*, 26(1), 41–56. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/259393>
- Barney, J. B., & Wright, P. M. (1998). On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in Alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management*, 37(1), 31–46.
- Barone, D. F., Hutchings, P. S., Kimmel, H. J., Traub, H. L., Cooper, J. T., & Marshall, C. M. (2005). Increasing empathic accuracy through practice and feedback in a clinical interviewing course. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 24(2), 156–171.
- Bassi, L., & McMurrer, D. (2010). Does engagement really drive results. *Talent Management Magazine*, 42–48.
- Bates, S. (2001). No Experience Necessary? *HR Magazine*, 46(11), 34–41.
- Batt, R., & Colvin, A. J. (2011). An employment systems approach to turnover: Human resources practices, quits, dismissals, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(4), 695–717.
- Bayoud, N. S., Kavanagh, M., & Slaughter, G. (2012). Corporate social responsibility disclosure and employee commitment: Evidence from Libya. *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 4(5), 37–50.
- Beardwell, J., & Claydon, T. (2007). *Human resource management: A contemporary approach*. Pearson Education.

- Beardwell, J., & Claydon, T. (2010). *Human resource management: A contemporary approach*. New York, NY: Pearson Financial Times/Prentice Hall, 2010.
- Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (2006). Strategic human resources management: Where do we go from here? *Journal of Management*, 32(6), 898–925.
- Becker, B. E., Huselid, M. A., Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (1998). High performance work systems and firm performance: A synthesis of research and managerial implications. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*.
- Becker, B., & Gerhart, B. (1996). The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: Progress and prospects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 779–801.
- Becker, K., Antuar, N., & Everett, C. (2011). Implementing an employee performance management system in a nonprofit organization. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 21(3), 255–271.
- Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P. R., Mills, D. Q., & Walton, R. E. (1984). *Managing Human Assets*. The Free Press.
- Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2018). *Business research methods*. Oxford university press.
- Benedicta, A. A. (2010). The impact of training on employee performance: A Case Study of HFC Bank (GHANA) Ltd. *A Research Project Ashei University College, Ghana*.
- Berge, Z., de Verneil, M., Berge, N., Davis, L., & Smith, D. (2002). The increasing scope of training and development competency. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*.
- Berman, E. M., Bowman, J. S., West, J. P., & Van Wart, M. R. (2019). *Human resource management in public service: Paradoxes, processes, and problems*. CQ Press.

Bink, M. L., Wampler, R. L., Dlubac, M. D., & Cage, E. A. (2011). *Training aids for basic combat skills: A procedure for training-aid development*. NORTHROP GRUMMAN CORP COLUMBUS GA.

Birkinshaw, J., Morrison, A., & Hulland, J. (1995). Structural and competitive determinants of a global integration strategy. *Strategic Management Journal*, 16(8), 637–655.

Boon, C., & Kalshoven, K. (2014). How high-commitment HRM relates to engagement and commitment: The moderating role of task proficiency. *Human Resource Management*, 53(3), 403–420.

Boswell, W. R., Bingham, J. B., & Colvin, A. J. (2006). Aligning employees through “line of sight”. *Business Horizons*, 49(6), 499–509.

Boud, D., Cressey, P., & Docherty, P. (2006). *Productive reflection at work: Learning for changing organizations*. Routledge.

Bowman, C., & Ambrosini, V. (2003). How the resource-based and the dynamic capability views of the firm inform corporate-level strategy. *British Journal of Management*, 14(4), 289–303.

Boxall, P. (1996). The strategic HRM debate and the resource-based view of the firm. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6(3), 59–75.

Boxall, P., & Purcell, J. (2011). *Strategy and human resource management*. Macmillan International Higher Education.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1982). *The competent manager: A model for effective performance*. John Wiley & Sons.

Brady, P. (2002). The Use Of Competency Standards in The Design Of Curriculum. A NSW Experience In Construction And Automotive Courses. *Paper at the 5 Th Annual Australian Vocational Education and Training Research Association (AVETRA), Melbourne, VIC*, 20–22.

- Brand, M. J., & Bax, E. H. (2002). Strategic HRM for SMEs: Implications for firms and policy. *Education+ Training*.
- Bratton, J., & Gold, J. (2017). *Human resource management: Theory and practice*. Palgrave.
- Bray, T. (2006). *The training design manual: The complete practical guide to creating effective and successful training programmes*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Brodie, J. M. (2006). Getting managers on board. *Human Resources Magazine*, November, 105–108.
- Brophy, M., & Kiely, T. (2002). Competencies: A new sector. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Brown, J. (2002). Training needs assessment: A must for developing an effective training program. *Public Personnel Management*, 31(4), 569–578.
- Brown, P. (2003). Seeking success through strategic management development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.
- Bshina, K. (2016). *The impact of training strategies on human resource development in Libyan public commercial banks* [PhD Thesis]. University of Huddersfield.
- Buckley, R., & Caple, J. (2009). *The theory and practice of training*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Budhwar, P. S., & Sparrow, P. R. (2002). Strategic HRM through the cultural looking glass: Mapping the cognition of British and Indian managers. *Organization Studies*, 23(4), 599–638.
- Buller, P. F., & McEvoy, G. M. (2012). Strategy, human resource management and performance: Sharpening line of sight. *Human Resource Management Review*, 22(1), 43–56.

- Burke, W. W. (2006). Where did OD come from. *Organization Development*, 13–38.
- Burrow, J., & Berardinelli, P. (2003). Systematic performance improvement—refining the space between learning and results. *Journal of Workplace Learning*.
- Butler, K. M. (2008). Getting employees to stay onboard instead of jumping ship. *Employee Benefit News, January*, 13–14.
- Buyens, D., & De Vos, A. (2001). Perceptions of the value of the HR function. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 11(3), 70–89.
- Cabello-Medina, C., López-Cabrales, Á., & Valle-Cabrera, R. (2011). Leveraging the innovative performance of human capital through HRM and social capital in Spanish firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(04), 807–828.
- Campbell, C. P. (1984). Procedures for developing and evaluating vocational training programs. *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education*, 21(4), 31–42.
- Cappelli, P., & Crocker-Hefter, A. (1996). Distinctive human resources are firms' core competencies. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24(3), 7–22.
- Carneiro, V. L. A., & Jorge, J. (2020). Competencies and training needs of the Portuguese optometrists—a national inquiry. *Journal of Optometry*, 13(2), 88–95.
- Carnevale, A. P. (1990). *Training in America: The Organization and Strategic Role of Training*. ASTD Best Practices Series: Training for a Changing Work Force. ERIC.
- Carroll, A., & McCrackin, J. (1998). The competent use of competency-based strategies for selection and development. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 11(3), 45–63.
- Cascio, W. F., & Boudreau, J. W. (2012). *Short introduction to strategic human resource management*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (1994). *Qualitative methods in organizational research: A practical guide*.

- Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (2004). *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*. sage.
- Cekada, T. L. (2010). Training needs assessment: Understanding what employees need to know. *Professional Safety*, 55(03), 28–33.
- Cepeda, G., & Vera, D. (2007). Dynamic capabilities and operational capabilities: A knowledge management perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(5), 426–437.
- Chandrasekar, K. (2011). Workplace environment and its impact on organisational performance in public sector organisations. *International Journal of Enterprise Computing and Business Systems*, 1(1), 1–19.
- Chang, J.-C., Chiang, T.-C., & Kun-YI, C. (2012). The systematic construction and influential factors of training needs assessment. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(24), 31–41.
- Cheng, M.-I., Dainty, A. R., & Moore, D. R. (2003). The differing faces of managerial competency in Britain and America. *Journal of Management Development*.
- Chiaburu, D. S., & Tekleab, A. G. (2005). Individual and contextual influences on multiple dimensions of training effectiveness. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. *Modern Methods for Business Research*, 295(2), 295–336.
- Chin, W. W. (2010). How to write up and report PLS analyses. In *Handbook of partial least squares* (pp. 655–690). Springer.
- Chodorek, M., & Sudolska, A. (2013). Talent Management in Company's Sustainable Development Concept. *Competition Forum*, 11(2), 92.
- Choperena, A., Pardavila-Belio, M. I., Errasti-Ibarrondo, B., Oroviogicoechea, C., Zaragoza-Salcedo, A., Goñi-Viguria, R., Martín-Pérez, S., Llàcer, T., & La Rosa, V. (2020).

Implementation and evaluation of a training programme to promote the development of professional competences in nursing: A pilot study. *Nurse Education Today*, 104360.

Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 89–136.

Clardy, A. (2005). Reputation, goodwill, and loss: Entering the employee training audit equation. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(3), 279–304.

Clark, N. (2004). Education in Libya. *World Education News and Reviews*, 17(4), 23–27.

Cole, G. A. (2002). *Personnel and human resource management*. Cengage Learning EMEA.

Collis, D. J., & Montgomery, C. A. (1995). Competing on Resources: Strategy in the 1990s. *Knowledge and Strategy*, 73(4), 25–40.

Commission, U. C. S. (1969). Application of a systems approach to training: A case study (Training Systems and Technology Series, No. 11). *Washington, DC: Bureau of Training*.

Conway, E., Fu, N., Monks, K., Alfes, K., & Bailey, C. (2016). Demands or resources? The relationship between HR practices, employee engagement, and emotional exhaustion within a hybrid model of employment relations. *Human Resource Management*, 55(5), 901–917.

Cool, K., Dierickx, I., & Jemison, D. (1989). Business strategy, market structure and risk-return relationships: A structural approach. *Strategic Management Journal*, 10(6), 507–522.

Cooper, K. (2000). *Effective competency modeling & reporting: A step-by-step guide for improving individual & organizational performance*. Amacom Books.

Cotes, J., & Ugarte, S. M. (2021). A systemic and strategic approach for training needs analysis for the International Bank. *Journal of Business Research*, 127, 464–473.

Cowling, A., & Mailer, C. (2013). *Managing human resources*. Routledge.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16(3), 297–334.

Crook, T. R., Todd, S. Y., Combs, J. G., Woehr, D. J., & Ketchen Jr, D. J. (2011). Does human capital matter? A meta-analysis of the relationship between human capital and firm performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(3), 443.

Cross, D. C., & Carbery, D. R. (2016). *Organisational Behaviour: Introducing Organizational Behaviour; Michelle Hammond; 2. Personality; Jill Pearson; 3. Perception; Jennifer Hennessey; 4. Work Related Attitudes and Values; Ultan Sherman; 5. Motivation and Stress in the Workplace; Collette Darcy; 6. Emotions and the Workplace; Deirdre O'Shea; 7. Groups and Teams in the Workplace; Christine Cross and Caroline Murphy; 8. Leadership; Ronan Carbery; 9. Power, Politics and Conflict at Work; Christine Cross and Lorraine Ryan; 10. Communication in the Workplace; Vivienne Byers; 11. Organizational Structure; Paul McGrath 12. Understanding Organizational Culture; Jean McCarthy and Caroline Murphy; 13. Managing Organizational Change; Grainne Kelly*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow. The Psychology of Optimal Experience*. New York (HarperPerennial) 1990.

Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. G. (2014). *Organization development and change*. Cengage learning.

Custard, H. A. (2012). *Pursuing development with educational technology standards: Complicating narratives of ICTs in the classroom*.

DABA, G. (2019). *ASSESSMENT OF TRAINING PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS: THE CASE OF ETHIOPIAN CONSTRUCTION DESIGN AND SUPERVISION WORKS CORPORATION* [PhD Thesis]. st. mary's University.

- Dabale, W. P., Jagero, N., & Nyauchi, M. (2014). The relationship between training and employee performance: The case of Mutare City council, Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 4(4), 61.
- Daft, R. L. (2008). New era of management. *Thompson Corporation, USA*, 390–391.
- Dale, M. (1998). *Developing management skills: Techniques for improving learning & performance*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., & Wright, P. M. (2005). Human resource management and labor productivity: Does industry matter? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 135–145.
- David, M., & Sutton, C. D. (2004). *Social research: The basics* (Vol. 74). Sage.
- Davidhizar, R., & Shearer, R. (1998). Rewarding with dignity. *Hospital Materiel Management Quarterly*, 20(2), 84–89.
- De Saá-Pérez, P., Díaz-Díaz, N. L., & Luis Ballesteros-Rodríguez, J. (2012). The role of training to innovate in SMEs. *Innovation*, 14(2), 218–230.
- De Wang, Y., & Niu, H. J. (2010). Multiple roles of human resource department in building organizational competitiveness-perspective of role theory. *International Management Review*, 6(2), 13.
- Dean, P. J. (1990). Using standards to improve performance. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 6(2).
- DeCenzo, D. A., Robbins, S. P., & Verhulst, S. L. (2016). *Fundamentals of human resource management*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurational performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 802–835.
- Denby, S. (2010). The importance of training needs analysis. *Industrial and Commercial Training*.

- Denis, D. K., & McConnell, J. J. (2003). International corporate governance. *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis*, 38(1), 1–36.
- Denzin, N. K. (2008). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (Vol. 3). Sage.
- Dessler, G. (2008). *Human resource management*. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Dick, W., & Carey, L. (1990). The systematic design of instruction 3rd ed. *Includes Bibliographical References: USA*.
- Dierickx, I., & Cool, K. (1989). Asset stock accumulation and sustainability of competitive advantage. *Management Science*, 35(12), 1504–1511.
- Ding, D., Brinkman, W.-P., & Neerincx, M. A. (2020). Simulated thoughts in virtual reality for negotiation training enhance self-efficacy and knowledge. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 139, 102400.
- Dixon, N. M. (1992). Organizational learning: A review of the literature with implications for HRD professionals. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 3(1), 29–49.
- Donovan, H., & Whitehouse, N. (1998). In search of management competence: The western Australian experience. *Management Development Forum*, 1(2).
- Donovan, P., Hannigan, K., & Crowe, D. (2001). The learning transfer system approach to estimating the benefits of training: Empirical evidence. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Dooley, C. R. (2001). The training within industry report 1940-1945. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 3(2), 127–289.
- Dubois, D. D. (1993). *Competency-based performance improvement: A strategy for organizational change*. ERIC.
- Dyer, L. (1983). Bringing human resources into the strategy formulation process. *Human Resource Management (Pre-1986)*, 22(3), 257.

- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500.
- Elbadri, A. N. A. (2001). Training practices of Polish companies: An appraisal and agenda for improvement. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Elman, C., Kapiszewski, D., & Vinuela, L. (2010). Qualitative data archiving: Rewards and challenges. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, 43(1), 23–27.
- Elnaga, A., & Imran, A. (2013). The effect of training on employee performance. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(4), 137–147.
- Faria, A. J. (2001). The changing nature of business simulation/gaming research: A brief history. *Simulation & Gaming*, 32(1), 97–110.
- Ferligoj, A., Prašnikar, J., & Jordan, V. (1997). Competitive advantage and human resource management in SMEs in a transitional economy. *Small Business Economics*, 9(6), 503–514.
- Fiegenbaum, A., Hart, S., & Schendel, D. (1996). Strategic reference point theory. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17(3), 219–235.
- Fiol, C. M., & Lyles, M. A. (1985). Organizational learning. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(4), 803–813.
- Fleishman, E. A. (1967). Development of a behavior taxonomy for describing human tasks: A correlational-experimental approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 51(1), 1.
- Fombrun, C. J., Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1984). *Strategic human resource management*. Wiley.
- Foot, M., & Hook, C. (2008). *Introducing human resource management*. Pearson Education.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50.

- French, R., Rayner, C., Rees, G., & Rumbles, S. (2015). *Organizational behaviour*. Wiley.
[https://researchportal.port.ac.uk/portal/en/publications/organizational-behaviour\(94039404-5452-45f5-9d2a-d894bb676dc3\)/export.html](https://researchportal.port.ac.uk/portal/en/publications/organizational-behaviour(94039404-5452-45f5-9d2a-d894bb676dc3)/export.html)
- French, W. (1969). Organization development objectives, assumptions and strategies. *California Management Review*, 12(2), 23–34.
- Fu, N., Flood, P. C., Bosak, J., Morris, T., & O'Regan, P. (2015). How do high performance work systems influence organizational innovation in professional service firms? *Employee Relations*.
- Gagne, R. M., Briggs, L. J., & Wager, W. W. (1992). Principles of instructional design. 4th. Fort Worth, TX: HBJ College Publishers.
- Gallos, J. V. (2006). The OD field: Setting the context, understanding the legacy. *Organization Development: A Jossey-Bass Reader*, 1–2.
- Garavan, T. N. (1991). Strategic human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 15(1), 17–30.
- Garavan, T. N. (1997). Training, development, education and learning: Different or the same? *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Garavan, T. N. (2007). A strategic perspective on human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9(1), 11–30.
- Garavan, T. N., Costine, P., & Heraty, N. (1995). The emergence of strategic human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Garavan, T. N., & McGuire, D. (2001). Competencies and workplace learning: Some reflections on the rhetoric and the reality. *Journal of Workplace Learning*.
- Garavan, T. N., Morley, M., Gunnigle, P., & McGuire, D. (2002). Human resource development and workplace learning: Emerging theoretical perspectives and organisational practices. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.

- Garson, D. (2012). *Partial least squares: Regression and path modeling*. Asheboro, NC: Statistical Publishing Associates.
- Gascó, J. L., Llopis, J., & González, M. R. (2004). The use of information technology in training human resources: An e-learning case study. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Geet, S. D., & Deshpande, A. A. (2008). *Elements of human resource management*. Pune, Mumbai: Pragati Book Centre.
- Gefen, D., & Straub, D. (2005). A practical guide to factorial validity using PLS-Graph: Tutorial and annotated example. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 16(1), 5.
- Gefen, D., Straub, D., & Boudreau, M.-C. (2000). Structural equation modeling and regression: Guidelines for research practice. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 4(1), 7.
- GeorgeandP, D. (2003). *Mallery, SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Ghuri, P., Grønhaug, K., & Strange, R. (2020). *Research methods in business studies*. Cambridge University Press.
- Gichohi, P. M. (2014). *The role of employee engagement in revitalizing creativity and innovation at the workplace: A survey of selected libraries in Meru County-Kenya*.
- Gilley, J., Egglund, S., Gilley, A. M., & Maycunich, A. (2002). *Principles of human resource development*. Basic Books.
- Gimmon, E., & Levie, J. (2010). Founder's human capital, external investment, and the survival of new high-technology ventures. *Research Policy*, 39(9), 1214–1226.
- Glass, F. (2013). *Work, money and power: Unions in the 21st century*. UC Berkeley Center for Labor Research and Education.

- Goddard, J. (1997). The architecture of core competence. *Business Strategy Review*, 8(1), 43–52.
- Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life (1st edn.)* Anchor. Penguin, Harmonds worth, UK., ISBN-13.
- Goldstein, I. L., & Ford, J. K. (2002). *Training in Organizations: Needs Assessment, Development, and Evaluation*. Wadsworth.
- Goldstein, I. L., & Ford, K. J. (1993). *Training in organizations: Needs assessment, development, and evaluation*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks. Cole Publishing Company.
- Gonzales, A. H., & Nelson, L. M. (2005). Learner-Centered Instruction Promotes Student Success: Northface University Prepares Its Computer Science Students for the Workplace with Real-World Projects. *THE Journal (Technological Horizons In Education)*, 32(6), 10.
- Gonzalez, G., Karoly, L. A., Constant, L., Goldman, C. A., & Salem, H. (2008). *Facing human capital challenges of the 21st century: Education and labor market initiatives in Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates* (Vol. 786). Rand Corporation.
- Goold, M., Campbell, A., & Alexander, M. (1997). Leveraging Competencies across business. *Campbell, A./Sommers Luchs, K*, 295–320.
- Goss, D. (1997). *Human resource management: The basics*. Cengage Learning.
- Graham, H. T. (1978). *Human Resources Management* (2nd Revised edition edition). Macd. & E.
- Grant, R. M. (1991). The resource-based theory of competitive advantage: Implications for strategy formulation. *California Management Review*, 33(3), 114–135.
- Gratton, C., & Jones, I. (2014). *Research methods for sports studies*. Routledge.
- Gratton, L., & Truss, C. (2003). The three-dimensional people strategy: Putting human resources policies into action. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 17(3), 74–86.

- Greer, C. R., & Greer, C. (2001). *Strategic human resource management*. Prentice Hall.
- Griffin, R. P. (2010). Means and ends: Effective training evaluation. *Industrial and Commercial Training*.
- Griggs, V., McCauley, P., Glaister, C., Holden, R., & Gold, J. (2010). The identification of training needs. *Human Resource Development: Theory and Practice, London: Palgrave Macmillan*, 105–128.
- Gruman, J. A., & Saks, A. M. (2011). Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(2), 123–136.
- Gubbins, C., & Garavan, T. N. (2009). Understanding the HRD role in MNCs: The imperatives of social capital and networking. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(2), 245–275.
- Guest, D. E. (1987). Human resource management and industrial relations [1]. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24(5), 503–521.
- Guest, D. E., Sanders, K., Rodrigues, R., & Oliveira, T. (2021). Signalling theory as a framework for analysing human resource management processes and integrating human resource attribution theories: A conceptual analysis and empirical exploration. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 31(3), 796–818.
- Guest, D., Michie, J., Sheehan, M., Conway, N., & Metochi, M. (2000). *Effective people management: Initial findings of the future of work study*. Chartered Inst. of Personnel and Development.
- Guthrie, J. P. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(1), 180–190.
- Habib, A., Hossain, S., & Essien, D. D. (2016). Assessing the Effect of Training on Employees' Performance in Nigeria Hotel Industry: A Case Study of Sheraton Hotel and Resorts Lagos. *Singaporean Journal of Business, Economics and Management Studies*, 51(3785), 1–13.

Haegeman, K., Marinelli, E., Scapolo, F., Ricci, A., & Sokolov, A. (2013). Quantitative and qualitative approaches in Future-oriented Technology Analysis (FTA): From combination to integration? *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 80(3), 386–397.

Hagan, C. M. (1996). The core competence organization: Implications for human resource practices. *Human Resource Management Review*, 6(2), 147–164.

Haggerty, J. J., & Wright, P. M. (2009). Strong situations and firm performance: A proposed re-conceptualization of the role of the HR function. *The Sage Handbook of Human Resource Management*, 100–114.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2014). Multivariate data analysis, new international edition. *Harlow: Pearson Education*.

Hallier, J., & Butts, S. (2000). Attempts to advance the role of training: Process and context. *Employee Relations*.

Hamel, G. (1994). The concept of core competence. *Competence-Based Competition*, 11, 33.

Hannah, S. T., & Lester, P. B. (2009). A multilevel approach to building and leading learning organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(1), 34–48.

Harlen, W., & James, M. (1997). Assessment and learning: Differences and relationships between formative and summative assessment. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 4(3), 365–379.

Harrison, R. (2005). *Learning and development*. CIPD Publishing.

Harrison, R. (2012). *Employee development*. Universities Press.

Harrison, R., & Kessels, J. (2004). *Human resource development in a knowledge economy. An organizational view*.

- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 268.
- Haslinda, A. (2009). Evolving terms of human resource management and development. *The Journal of International Social Research, 2*(9), 180–186.
- Hassan, S. (2016). Impact of HRM practices on employee's performance. *International Journal of Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences, 6*(1), 15–22.
- Hassan, T., Ahmed, H. A. S., & Harjan, S. A. (2016). Evaluating the role of training strategy in enhancing the training effectiveness. *Les Cahiers Du Mecas, 12*(2), 4–18.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: Methodology in the Social Sciences. *Kindle Edition, 193*.
- Heierhoff, V., Arntzen, A. A. B., & Muller, G. (2011). A training model for successful implementation of enterprise resource planning. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology, 60*, 94.
- Henseler, J. (2010). On the convergence of the partial least squares path modeling algorithm. *Computational Statistics, 25*(1), 107–120.
- Herold, L. (2012). Adult learning: From theory to practice. Fredericton. *National Adult Literacy*.
- Hesseling, P. (1966). *Strategy of evaluation research in the field of supervisory and management training*.
- Holden, L., & Beardwell, I. (1994). *Human resource management: A contemporary perspective*. Pitman.
- Holtbrügge, D., Schillo, K., Rogers, H., & Friedmann, C. (2011). Managing and training for virtual teams in India. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*.

- Holton III, E. F., Bates, R. A., & Ruona, W. E. (2000). Development of a generalized learning transfer system inventory. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11(4), 333–360.
- Hoppas, C. A. (2013). *Strategic human resource management and organisational performance: A study of the university administrators in Cyprus*.
- Houger, V. P. (2006). Trends of employee performance. Collaborative effort between managers and employees. *Performance Improvement*, 45(5), 26–31.
- Howard, M. C., & Gutworth, M. B. (2020). A meta-analysis of virtual reality training programs for social skill development. *Computers & Education*, 144, 103707.
- Hughey, A. W., & Mussnug, K. J. (1997). Designing effective employee training programmes. *Training for Quality*.
- Hussey, D. E. (1985). Implementing corporate strategy: Using management education and training. *Long Range Planning*, 18(5), 28–37.
- Iatagan, M., Dinu, C., & Stoica, A. M. (2010). Continuous training of human resources—a solution to crisis going out. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 5139–5146.
- Ibrahim, R., Boerhannoeddin, A., & Kayode, B. K. (2017). Organizational culture and development: Testing the structural path of factors affecting employees' work performance in an organization. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 22(2), 104–111.
- Iqbal, M. Z., & Khan, R. A. (2011). The growing concept and uses of training needs assessment. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- it Matter, H. D. (2013). Connecting training and development with employee engagement: How does it matter? *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 28(5), 696–703.
- Ivancevich, J. M. (2010). *Human Resource Management-11. Aufl. Boston, MA*.
- Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (2000). Managing human resources for innovation and learning. In *Innovatives management* (pp. 327–356). Springer.

- Jackson, S. E., Schuler, R. S., & Jiang, K. (2014). *An aspirational framework for strategic human resource management. The Academy of Management Annals*, 8 (1), 1-56.
- Jackson, S. E., Schuler, R. S., & Rivero, J. C. (1989). Organizational characteristics as predictors of personnel practices. *Personnel Psychology*, 42(4), 727–786.
- Jacobs, R. L., Jones, M. J., & Neil, S. (1992). A case study in forecasting the financial benefits of unstructured and structured on-the-job training. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 3(2), 133–139.
- Jacobs, R. L., & Park, Y. (2009). A proposed conceptual framework of workplace learning: Implications for theory development and research in human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(2), 133–150.
- Jain, N. C., & Jain, M. S. (2005). *Management Theory And Practice (1st Edition)*. A.I.T.B.S. Publishers.
- James, C., & Roffe, I. (2000). The evaluation of goal and goal-free training innovation. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Jayasinghe, R. S., & Fernando, N. G. (2017). Developing labour productivity norms for aluminium system formwork in Sri Lanka. *Built Environment Project and Asset Management*.
- Jehanzeb, K., & Bashir, N. A. (2013). Training and development program and its benefits to employee and organization: A conceptual study. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(2).
- Jiang, J., Wang, S., & Zhao, S. (2012). Does HRM facilitate employee creativity and organizational innovation? A study of Chinese firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(19), 4025–4047.
- Jimenez-Jimenez, D., & Sanz-Valle, R. (2008). Could HRM support organizational innovation? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(7), 1208–1221.

- Johansson, J. K., & Yip, G. S. (1994). Exploiting globalization potential: US and Japanese strategies. *Strategic Management Journal*, 15(8), 579–601.
- Johnson, B., & Turner, L. A. (2003). Data collection strategies in mixed methods research. *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*, 297–319.
- Johnson, L. A., & Helms, M. M. (2008). Keeping it local. *Education+ Training*.
- Jöreskog, K. G. (1967). Some contributions to maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 32(4), 443–482.
- Jothen, K. A., & Kunin, R. (2004). *Future Human Resources Development in British Columbia's Offshore Oil & Gas Industry: Preliminary Analysis*. BC Innovation Council.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692–724.
- Katcher, S., & Snyder, T. (2003). Organisational commitment. *USA: Atomic Dog*, 90.
- Katou, A. A., & Budhwar, P. (2014). HRM and firm performance. *Human Resource Management: Strategic and International Perspectives*. <https://research.aston.ac.uk/en/publications/hrm-and-firm-performance>
- Katou, A. A., & Budhwar, P. S. (2007). The effect of human resource management policies on organizational performance in Greek manufacturing firms. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 49(1), 1–35.
- Katz, R. (1955). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review*, Jan-Feb.
- Kaufman, B. E. (2015). Evolution of strategic HRM as seen through two founding books: A 30th anniversary perspective on development of the field. *Human Resource Management*, 54(3), 389–407.
- Keep, E., & Storey, J. (2014). Corporate training strategies: The vital component. Storey, J. *New Perspectives on Human Resource Management (Routledge Revivals)* Routledge: London, 109–125.

- Kelly, D. J. (2001). *Dual perceptions of HRD: Issues for policy: SME's, other constituencies, and the Contested definitions of human resource development.*
- Khanfar, S. M. (2011). Impact of training on improving hotelling service quality. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 2(3), 84.
- Kilvington, M. (2007). Social learning as a framework for building capacity to work on complex environmental management problems. *Landcare Research*, 1–7.
- Kim, S., & Wright, P. M. (2011). Putting strategic human resource management in context: A contextualized model of high commitment work systems and its implications in China. *Management and Organization Review*, 7(1), 153–174.
- Kirkpatrick, D. (1994). Evaluation, Training Programs: The four levels, San Francis co: Berrett-Koehler Publishers. learning transfer. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6(1), 36–48.
- Kirkpatrick, D., & Kirkpatrick, J. (2006). *Evaluating training programs: The four levels.* Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Kirkpatrick, D. L., & Craig, R. (1967). Evaluation of training. *Evaluation of Short-Term Training in Rehabilitation. Monograph*, 3, 35–56.
- Kirkpatrick, D. L., & Kirkpatrick, J. D. (2007). *Implementing the Four Levels: A Practical Guide for Effective Evaluation of Training Programs* (1 edition). Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Kirkpatrick, D. L., & Kirkpatrick, J. D. (2009). *Evaluating training Programs: The four levels (pp. 1-20).* Berrett.
- Kissack, H. C., & Callahan, J. L. (2010). The reciprocal influence of organizational culture and training and development programs. *Journal of European Industrial Training.*
- Kleiman, L. (2003). *Human Resource Management: A Managerial Tool for Competitive Advantage Third Edition.* Dreamtech Press.

- Klein, H. J., Noe, R. A., & Wang, C. (2006). Motivation to learn and course outcomes: The impact of delivery mode, learning goal orientation, and perceived barriers and enablers. *Personnel Psychology*, 59(3), 665–702.
- Klink, M. van der, & Boon, J. (2002). The investigation of competencies within professional domains. *Human Resource Development International*, 5(4), 411–424.
- Kock, H., & Ellström, P.-E. (2011). Formal and integrated strategies for competence development in SMEs. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Kokkos, A. (2005). Adult Education: Detecting the field. *Athens: Metaichmio (in Greek)*.
- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 4(2), 193–212.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International.
- Kramar, R. (2014). Beyond strategic human resource management: Is sustainable human resource management the next approach? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(8), 1069–1089.
- Krishnaveni, R., & Sripirabaa, B. (2008). Capacity building as a tool for assessing training and development activity: An Indian case study. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 12(2), 121–134.
- Kulvisaechana, S. (2003). *Human capital and performance: A literature review*.
- Kumagai, A. K. (2008). A conceptual framework for the use of illness narratives in medical education. *Academic Medicine*, 83(7), 653–658.
- Kumpikaite, V. (2008). Human resource development in learning organization. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 9(1), 25–31.

- Kurz, R., & Bartram, D. (2002). Competency and individual performance: Modelling the world of work. *Organisational Effectiveness: The Role of Psychology*. Wiley. Pp227-258.
- Lado, A. A., & Wilson, M. C. (1994). Human resource systems and sustained competitive advantage: A competency-based perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(4), 699–727.
- Lee, H. D., & Nelson, O. (2015). *Instructional analysis and course development*. American Technical Publishers.
- Lee, R. (1996). *What makes training pay*. Institute of Personnel and Development London, England.
- Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2009). A typology of mixed methods research designs. *Quality & Quantity*, 43(2), 265–275.
- Legge, K. (2004). *Human Resource Management: Rhetorics and Realities* (Special edition). Red Globe Press.
- Leiter, M. P., & Maslach, C. (1998). *Burnout*. En H. Friedman (Ed.). *Encyclopedia of Mental Health*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- LEONARD, E. B., & Nadler, Z. (1984). *The handbook of human resource development*. New York, John Wiley and Sons.
- Leondes, C. (2005). *Intelligent Knowledge-Based Systems Volume 1: Knowledge-based Systems*. Kluwer Academic.
- Liambo, T. F. (2018). *The effectiveness of training and development strategies to improve employee performance in the construction industry in Zimbabwe: A case study of KMP Holdings* [PhD Thesis].
- Licuanan, B. F., Dailey, L. R., & Mumford, M. D. (2007). Idea evaluation: Error in evaluating highly original ideas. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, 41(1), 1–27.

- Lopez-Cabrales, A., Pérez-Luño, A., & Cabrera, R. V. (2009). Knowledge as a mediator between HRM practices and innovative activity. *Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in Alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management*, 48(4), 485–503.
- Löwe, B., Hartmann, M., Wild, B., Nikendei, C., Kroenke, K., Niehoff, D., Henningsen, P., Zipfel, S., & Herzog, W. (2008). Effectiveness of a 1-year resident training program in clinical research: A controlled before-and-after study. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 23(2), 122–128.
- Lujan, H. L., & DiCarlo, S. E. (2006). First-year medical students prefer multiple learning styles. *Advances in Physiology Education*, 30(1), 13–16.
- Luoma, M. (2000). Investigating the link between strategy and HRD. *Personnel Review*.
- Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., & Patera, J. L. (2008). Experimental analysis of a web-based training intervention to develop positive psychological capital. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 7(2), 209–221.
- Mabey, C., Salaman, G., & Storey, J. (1998). *Human resource management: A strategic introduction*. Blackwell Publishing.
- MacDuffie, J. P. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *Ilr Review*, 48(2), 197–221.
- Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1(1), 3–30.
- Macey, W. H., Schneider, B., Barbera, K. M., & Young, S. A. (2011). *Employee engagement: Tools for analysis, practice, and competitive advantage* (Vol. 31). John Wiley & Sons.

- Magableh, I. K., Kharabsheh, R., & Al-Zubi, K. A. (2011). Determinants and impact of training: The case of SMEs in Jordan. *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 3(5), 104–116.
- Mahmud, K. T., Saira Wahid, I., Arif, I., & Belso-Martinez, J. (2019). Impact of training needs assessment on the performance of employees: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 5(1), 1705627.
- Mangkunegara, A. A. P. (2011). *Manajemen sumber daya manusia perusahaan*.
- Mankin, D. (2009). *Human resource development*. Oxford university press.
- Marchington, M., Kynighou, A., Wilkinson, A., & Donnelly, R. (2016). *Human resource management at work*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Marchington, M., & Wilkinson, A. (2002). *People management and development: Human resource management at work*. CIPD Publishing.
- Mark, A. H. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3), 635–672.
- Marquardt, M. J. (1996). Cyberlearning: New possibilities for HRD. *Training & Development*, 50(11), 56–58.
- Marsh, I. (2002). *Theory and practice in sociology*. Pearson Education.
- Martin, B. O., Kolomitro, K., & Lam, T. C. (2014). Training methods: A review and analysis. *Human Resource Development Review*, 13(1), 11–35.
- Martin-Alcazar, F., Romero-Fernandez, P. M., & Sánchez-Gardey, G. (2005). Strategic human resource management: Integrating the universalistic, contingent, configurational and contextual perspectives. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(5), 633–659.

- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 397–422.
- Masuda, A. D., Holtschlag, C., & Nicklin, J. M. (2017). Why the availability of telecommuting matters: The effects of telecommuting on engagement via goal pursuit. *Career Development International*.
- Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2004). Human Resource Management (10E). Thomson South-Western Publishers, Singapore, 373.
- Mathison, S. (2004). *Encyclopedia of evaluation*. Sage publications.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach (Applied social research methods series, Vol. 41)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(1), 11–37.
- McClellan, E., & Collins, C. J. (2011). High-commitment HR practices, employee effort, and firm performance: Investigating the effects of HR practices across employee groups within professional services firms. *Human Resource Management*, 50(3), 341–363.
- McCracken, M., & Wallace, M. (2000). Towards a redefinition of strategic HRD. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- McEwen, D. (2011). *Employee engagement: A Systemic approach to high employee engagement*.
- McGoldrick, J., Stewart, J., & Watson, S. (2001). Theorizing human resource development. *Human Resource Development International*, 4(3), 343–356.
- McIlrath, L., & Lyons, A. (2012). *Higher education and civic engagement: Comparative perspectives*. Springer.

- McIlvried, D. E., Prucka, S. K., Herbst, M., Barger, C., & Robin, N. H. (2008). The use of role-play to enhance medical student understanding of genetic counseling. *Genetics in Medicine, 10*(10), 739–744.
- McLagan, P. A. (1989). Models for HRD practice. *Training & Development Journal, 43*(9), 49–60.
- McLean, G. N., & McLean, L. (2001). If we can't define HRD in one country, how can we define it in an international context? *Human Resource Development International, 4*(3), 313–326.
- McMahan, G. C., Virick, M., & Wright, P. M. (1999). Alternative theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management revisited: Progress, problems, and prospects. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management, 4*(1), 99–122.
- McNabb, D. E. (2017). *Research methods in public administration and nonprofit management*. Routledge.
- Merriam, S. B., & Cunningham, P. M. (1989). *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education. The Jossey-Bass Higher Education Series*. ERIC.
- Meyer, T. (1996). *Creating Competitiveness Through—Competencies: Currency for the 21st Century*. Knowledge Resources.
- Miller, V. A. (1987). The history of training in RL Craig. *Training and Development Handbook, 3*.
- Moh'd Abu Bakir, S. (2019). Human resources development strategy and its role in promoting employees strategic thinking competencies: A study at jordanian information technology companies. *European Scientific Journal, ESJ, 15*(4), 238–262.
- Mohd Jamil, J. B. (2012). *Partial least squares structural equation modelling with incomplete data: An investigation of the impact of imputation methods* [PhD Thesis]. University of Bradford.

- Moinat, S. (2003). The basics of competency modeling. *St. Paul, MN: Full View Solutions*.
- Mondy, R. W., & Noe, R. M. (1999). Shane R. Premeaux. 1999. *Human Resources Management*.
- Moorby, E. (1996). *How to Succeed in Employee Development Maidenhead*. McGraw-Hill.
- Moore, D. R., Cheng, M.-I., & Dainty, A. R. (2002). Competence, competency and competencies: Performance assessment in organisations. *Work Study*.
- Moreland, R. L., & Myaskovsky, L. (2000). Exploring the performance benefits of group training: Transactive memory or improved communication? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 82(1), 117–133.
- Motlokoa, M. E., Sekantsi, L. P., & Monyoloc, R. P. (2018). The impact of training on employees' performance: The case of banking sector in Lesotho. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 8(2), 16–46.
- Motwani, J. G., Frahm, M. L., & Kathawala, Y. (1994). Achieving a competitive advantage through quality training. *Training for Quality*.
- Mulcahy, D. (2000). Turning the contradictions of competence: Competency-based training and beyond. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 52(2), 259–280.
- Müller, H.-M., Thomas, A., & Müller, J.-P. (2013). Globalising How? The Route Towards International HR Development. In *Strategic Human Resource Development* (pp. 315–326). Springer.
- Mullins. (2007). *Management & Organisational Behaviour* (8 edition). Financial Times/Prentice Hall.
- Mumford, A. (1987). Using reality in management development. *Management Education and Development*, 18(3), 223–243.
- MURPHY, K. R., & DeNISI, A. (2008). A model of the appraisal process. In *Performance Management Systems* (pp. 81–94). Routledge.

- Murray, P. (2003). Organisational learning, competencies, and firm performance: Empirical observations. *The Learning Organization*.
- Myers, C. A. (1981). *Personnel administration: A point of view and a method*. New York; Montreal: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Naama, A., Haven-Tang, C., & Jones, E. (2008). Human resource development issues for the hotel sector in Libya: A government perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(5), 481–492.
- Nachmias, D., & Nachmias, C. (1976). *Research methods in the social sciences*.
- Nadler, L., & Nadler, Z. (1989). *Developing human resources*. Jossey-Bass.
- Nadler, L., & Wiggs, G. D. (1986). *Managing human resource development*. Jossey-Bass.
- Narasimha, S. (2000). Organizational knowledge, human resource management, and sustained competitive advantage: Toward a framework. *Competitiveness Review: An International Business Journal*.
- Nassazi, A. (2013). *Effects Of Training On Employee Performance.: Evidence from Uganda*.
- Nawaz, M. S., Hassan, M., Hassan, S., Shaukat, S., & Asadullah, M. A. (2014). Impact of employee training and empowerment on employee creativity through employee engagement: Empirical evidence from the manufacturing sector of Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 19(4), 593–601.
- Nel, J. H., & Linde, B. (2019). *The art of engaging unionised employees*. Springer.
- Nelson, R. R., & Winter, S. G. (1982). An Evolutionary Theory of Economic Change (Belknap, Cambridge, MA). *NelsonAn Evolutionary Theory of Economic Change*1982.
- NNANNA, N. S. (2020). *EFFECTS OF TRAINING ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY ON AIRTEL NETWORKS LIMITED, ABUJA*.

- Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J. R., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P. M. (2008). Strategically managing the HRM function. *Human Resource Management; Gaining a Competitive Advantage*.
- Noe, R. A., & Kodwani, A. D. (2018). *Employee training and development, 7e*. McGraw-Hill Education.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory: 2d Ed*. McGraw-Hill.
- Nwachukwu, C. I. (2016). *Investigating the Linkage Between Competitive Strategy and Human Resource Management Practices in Nigeria Medium-Sized Enterprises*. Liverpool John Moores University (United Kingdom).
- Obi-Anike, H. O., & Ekwe, M. C. (2014). Impact of training and development on organizational effectiveness: Evidence from selected public sector organizations in Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Management, 6*(29), 66–75.
- O'dell, C., & Grayson, C. J. (1998). If only we knew what we know: Identification and transfer of internal best practices. *California Management Review, 40*(3), 154–174.
- Oguntimehin, A. (2001). Teacher effectiveness: Some practical strategies for successful implementation of universal basic education in Nigeria. *African Journal of Educational Management, 9*(1), 151–161.
- Oinas, P., & Van Gils, H. (2001). Identifying contexts of learning in firms and regions. *Promoting Local Growth: Process, Practice and Policy, 61–79*.
- Omoikhudu, J. (2017). *The Impact of Training and Development on Employee Retention in the Retail Sector, an Examination of the Role of Coaching in a Leading Retailer in Dublin, Republic of Ireland. A Case Study of Mark and Spencer's Store Dublin*. [PhD Thesis]. Dublin, National College of Ireland.
- Omran, A. (2016). Examining the effect of training strategies on employees' performance in the Libyan construction industry. *Journal of Engineering Management and Competitiveness (JEMC), 6*(2), 99–110.

- Oni-Ojo, E. E., Salau, O. P., Oludayo, O. O., & Abasilim, U. D. (2014). Strategic role of human resource training and development on organizational effectiveness in Nigerian banking industries. *Global Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2(4), 24–39.
- Ooi, K. B. (2013). *Total quality management and knowledge management in Malaysian manufacturing and service firms: A structural equation modeling approach/Ooi Keng Boon* [PhD Thesis]. University of Malaya.
- Oppenheim, A. N. (2000). *Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Organisation, G. (2005). *Employee Engagement: The Employee Side of the Human Sigma Equation*.
- Oribabor, P. E. (2000). Human resources management, A strategic approval. *Human Resources Management*, 9(4), 21–24.
- Orodho, A. J. (2005). *Techniques of writing research proposals and reports in Educational and Social Sciences, Nairobi: Kaneja HP Enterprises*.
- Othman, A. E. A. (2009). Strategic HRM practices: Perspectives of Malaysian and Japanese owned companies in Malaysia. *Global Business & Management Research*, 1(1).
- Otuko, A. H., Chege, K., & Douglas, M. (2013). Effect of training dimensions on employee's work performance: A case of mumias sugar company in Kakamega County. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 2(9), 138–149.
- Paudyal, P. (2020). *Relative importance of relational norms and serial reciprocity in distribution channels* [Master's Thesis]. Høgskolen i Molde-Vitenskapelig høgskole i logistikk.
- Peng, J., Zhang, G., Fu, Z., & Tan, Y. (2014). An empirical investigation on organizational innovation and individual creativity. *Information Systems and E-Business Management*, 12(3), 465–489.

- Penrose, E. (1959). The theory of the growth of the firm. *John Wiley & Sons, New York*.
- Pettigrew, A., Hendry, C., & Sparrow, P. (1989). *Training in Britain: Employer's perspectives on human resources*. Her Majesty's Stationery Office.
- Pfeffer, J. (1998). The real keys to high performance. *Leader to Leader*, 1998(8), 23–29. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ltl.40619980809>
- Phillips, J. J. (2012). *Return on investment in training and performance improvement programs*. Routledge.
- Phillips, J. J., & Holton, E. F. (1997). *Leading organizational change*. American Society for Training and Development.
- Porter, M. (1980). Competitive strategy. New York: Free Press. *Porter Competitive Strategy 1980*.
- Prahalad, C. K., & Hamel, G. (1994). *Competing for the Future* (Vol. 25). Harvard Business School Press Boston.
- Prasad, A., & Green, P. (2015). Organizational competencies and dynamic accounting information system capability: Impact on AIS processes and firm performance. *Journal of Information Systems*, 29(3), 123–149.
- Prennushi, G., Shaw, K. L., & Ichniowski, C. (1997). The effects of human resource management practices on productivity: A study of steel finishing lines. *Amer. Econom. Rev*, 87(3), 291–313.
- Price, A. (2000). *Principles of human resource management: An active learning approach*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Price, A. (2007). *Human resource management in a business context*. Cengage Learning EMEA.
- Price, A. (2011). *Fundamentals of human resource management*. Cengage Learning EMEA.

- Rabey, G. (2001). The five steps to accomplishment. *Industrial and Commercial Training*.
- Rae, L. (1997). *Planning and designing training programmes*. Gower Publishing, Ltd.
- Rao, T. V. (1996). Penilaian Prestasi Kerja: Teori dan Praktek. *Cetakan Ketiga. Penerjemah Ny. L. Mulyana. PT Binaman Pressindo. Jakarta*.
- Rashid, H. A., Asad, A., & Ashraf, M. M. (2011). Factors persuading employee engagement and linkage of EE to personal & organizational performance. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(5), 98–108.
- Raza, K., AFRIDI, D. F. K., & Khan, S. I. (2017). Impact of Training on Employees Performance and Job Satisfaction: An Empirical Study of Plastic Industry of Hayatabad Industrial Estate. *Journal of Business and Tourism*.
- Reed, R., & DeFillippi, R. J. (1990). Causal ambiguity, barriers to imitation, and sustainable competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(1), 88–102.
- Rees, G., & Smith, P. E. (2017). *Strategic Human Resource Management: An International Perspective* (2nd Revised edition). SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Rees, W. D., & Porter, C. (2004). Appraisal pitfalls and the training implications—part 2. *Industrial and Commercial Training*.
- Reid, M. A., & Barrington, H. (1994). *Training interventions: Managing employee development*. Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Ricardo, D. (1817). On the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation (London: J. Murray). Barney, JB–Arikan, AM (2001): *The Resource-Based View: Origins and Implications*, in *Blackwell Handbook of Strategic Management*, Malden, MA: Blackwell Publisher Inc, 124–188.
- Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617–635.

- Richey, R. C., Fields, D. C., & Foxon, M. (2001). *Instructional design competencies: The standards*. ERIC.
- Richman, A. (2006). Everyone wants an engaged workforce how can you create it. *Workspan*, 49(1), 36–39.
- Robbins, S. P., & DeCenzo, D. A. (1999). *Human Resource Management*. New York: JohnWiley & Sons. Inc.
- Robinson, D. G., & Robinson, J. (1989). Training for impact. *Training & Development Journal*, 43(8), 34–43.
- Robinson, I. (2006). *Human resource management in organisations: The theory and practice of high performance*. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Rochette, A., Swaine, B., Kehayia, E., Roche, L., Guérard, C., & Bourque, L. È.-M. (2017). Can training offered to shopping mall employees improve their knowledge about disability and perceived self-confidence in interacting with persons presenting various limitations? *Cogent Social Sciences*, 3(1), 1274226.
- Rosen, M. A., Hunt, E. A., Pronovost, P. J., Federowicz, M. A., & Weaver, S. J. (2012). In situ simulation in continuing education for the health care professions: A systematic review. *Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions*, 32(4), 243–254.
- Rossett, A. (2009). *First things fast: A handbook for performance analysis*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Rothwell, W. J., & Sullivan, R. L. (2005). *Practicing organization development: A guide for consultants* (Vol. 27). John Wiley & Sons.
- Rumman, M. A. A., & Al-Rahahalh, N. E. (2016a). Training strategy and its impact on the performance of employees. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 8(23), 75–80.

- Ruona, W. E. (2001). The foundational impact of the training within industry project on the human resource development profession. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 3(2), 119–126.
- Ruona, W. E., & Gibson, S. K. (2004). The making of twenty-first-century HR: An analysis of the convergence of HRM, HRD, and OD. *Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in Alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management*, 43(1), 49–66.
- Ruth, D. (2006). Frameworks of managerial competence: Limits, problems and suggestions. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Sacht, J. (2002). Critical success factors to support the management of performance in public and private sector organisations. *Equity-Skill Development News*, 3(5).
- Sadler-Smith, E. (2005). *Learning and Development for Managers: Integrating Individual and Organizational Learning*. Blackwell.
- Saiyadain, M. S. (1988). *Human Resources Management 4E*. Tata McGraw-Hill Education.
- Sal, A., & Raja, M. (2016). The impact of training and development on employees performance and productivity. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research*, 5(7).
- Saleem, Q., Shahid, M., & Naseem, A. (2011). Degree of influence of training and development on employee's behavior. *International Journal of Computing and Business Research*, 2(3), 2229–6166.
- Sallinen, S. (2004). Social Embeddedness of Dynamic Capabilities: The Case of Product Development. *University of Oulu, Finland*.
- Sambrook, S. (2009). Critical HRD: A concept analysis. *Personnel Review*.

- Samuel, M. O., & Chipunza, C. (2009). Employee retention and turnover: Using motivational variables as a panacea. *African Journal of Business Management*, 3(9), 410–415.
- Sanneh, L., & Taj, S. A. (2015). Employee engagement in the public sector: A case study of Western Africa. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 5(3), 70–101.
- Sarantakos, S. (2012). *Social research*. Macmillan International Higher Education.
- Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Hair, J. F. (2017). Partial least squares structural equation modeling. *Handbook of Market Research*, 26(1), 1–40.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students*. Pearson education.
- Saunders, M. N. K., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2000). *Research Methods for Business Students: Lecturers' Guide*. FT Prentice Hall.
- Schaufeli, W., & Salanova, M. (2007). Work engagement. *Managing Social and Ethical Issues in Organizations*, 135, 177.
- Schmid Mast, M., Kleinlogel, E. P., Tur, B., & Bachmann, M. (2018). The future of interpersonal skills development: Immersive virtual reality training with virtual humans. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 29(2), 125–141.
- Schuck, M. B., & Wollard, K. K. (2013). *A historical perspective of employee engagement: An emerging definition*.
- Schuler, R. S. (1998). *Managing human resources*. South-Western College Pub.
- Schuler, R. S., & Jackson, S. E. (1987). Linking competitive strategies with human resource management practices. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 1(3), 207–219.
- Schuler, R. S., & Jackson, S. E. (1996). *Video Supplement for Human Resource Management: Positioning for the 21st Century*, Randall S. Schuler and Susan E. Jackson. West Publishing Company.

- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach Fourth edition*, New York; Jonh Willey & Sons. Inc.
- Sendawula, K., Nakyejwe Kimuli, S., Bananuka, J., & Najjemba Muganga, G. (2018). Training, employee engagement and employee performance: Evidence from Uganda's health sector. *Cogent Business & Management*, 5(1), 1470891.
- Sender, S. W. (1997). Systematic agreement: A theory of organizational alignment. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 8(1), 23–40.
- Senge, P. M. (2006). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art & Practice of The Learning Organization* (Revised&Updated edition). Doubleday.
- Setyawaty, A., Kartini, D., & Sulaeman, M. K. Joelyati (2017). Employee performance affected by training and development, self-efficacy and organization culture through members of employees of organization members on ground handling services company in the hub airport java island. *South East Asia Journal of Contemporary Business, Economics, and Law*, 13(2), 78–86.
- Sheehan, M. (2014). Human resource management and performance: Evidence from small and medium-sized firms. *International Small Business Journal*, 32(5), 545–570.
- Shi, J. (n.d.). *The Development of Strategic Human Resource Management in the Chinese Financial Services Sector: Understanding the Roles of External Economic Factors and the State*. 282.
- Shippmann, J. S., Ash, R. A., Batjtsta, M., Carr, L., Eyde, L. D., Hesketh, B., Kehoe, J., Pearlman, K., Prien, E. P., & Sanchez, J. I. (2000). The practice of competency modeling. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(3), 703–740.
- Shipton, H., West, M. A., Dawson, J., Birdi, K., & Patterson, M. (2006). HRM as a predictor of innovation. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 16(1), 3–27.
- Shivakumar, K. (2012). The case study method in training and management education. *The IUP Journal of Soft Skills*, 6(2), 55–64.

- Short, D. (2010). Foreword: Reflections on virtual HRD from a scholar-practitioner. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 12(6), 619–622.
- Simpson, J. A. (1989). *The Oxford english dictionary* (Vol. 15). Oxford University Press, USA.
- Sims, R. R. (2006). *Human Resource Development Today and Tomorrow*. IAP.
- Singh, H. K., Kennedy, G. A., & Stupans, I. (2020). Competencies and training of health professionals engaged in health coaching: A systematic review. *Chronic Illness*, 1742395319899466.
- Sisson, K., & Storey, J. (2000). *Realities of human resource management: Managing the employment relationship*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Sloman, M. (1999). *A handbook for training strategy*. Gower Publishing, Ltd.
- Slotte, V., Tynjälä, P., & Hytönen, T. (2004). How do HRD practitioners describe learning at work? *Human Resource Development International*, 7(4), 481–499.
- Smith, A. (2006). *Engagement or irrelevance? HRD and the world of policy and practice*. Sage Publications Sage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Smith, A., & Hayton, G. (1999). What drives enterprise training? Evidence from Australia. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 251–272.
- Snell, S., Bohlander, G. W., & Morris, S. (2015). *Managing human resources*. Nelson Education.
- Somasundaram, U. V., & Egan, T. M. (2004). Training and Development: An Examination of Definitions and Dependent Variables. *Online Submission*.
- Sosik, J. J., Kahai, S. S., & Piovoso, M. J. (2009). Silver bullet or voodoo statistics? A primer for using the partial least squares data analytic technique in group and organization research. *Group & Organization Management*, 34(1), 5–36.

- Stalk, G., Evans, P., & Shulman, L. E. (1992). Competing on capabilities: The new rules of corporate strategy. *Harvard Business Review*, 70(2), 57–69.
- Stanisavljevic, J., & Djuric, D. (2013). The application of programmed instruction in fulfilling the physiology course requirements. *Journal of Biological Education*, 47(1), 29–38.
- Stead, V., & Lee, M. (1996). Intercultural perspectives on HRD. *Human Resource Development. Perspectives, Strategies and Practice*, London: Pitman.
- Stewart, J. (1991). *Managing change through training and development*. Kogan Page London.
- Stewart, J. (1999). *Employee development practice*. Financial Times Management.
- Stewart, J., & McGoldrick, J. (1996). *Human resource development: Perspectives, strategies and practice*. Pitman.
- Stewart, J., McGoldrick, J., & Watson, S. (2001). *Understanding human resource development: A research-based approach*. Psychology Press.
- Stewart, J., & Sambrook, S. (2012). The historical development of human resource development in the United Kingdom. *Human Resource Development Review*, 11(4), 443–462.
- Stone, B. B. (1997). A system's approach to professional development. *Journal of Extension*, 35(2), 102–122.
- Stone, M. (1974). Cross-validatory choice and assessment of statistical predictions. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological)*, 36(2), 111–133.
- Stone, R. (2002) *Human Resource Management. 4th Edition*, Wiley Art Department, Milton, Australia. - References—Scientific Research Publishing. (n.d.). Retrieved 17 April 2020, from [https://www.scirp.org/\(S\(czeh2tfqyw2orz553k1w0r45\)\)/reference/ReferencesPapers.aspx?ReferenceID=1687108](https://www.scirp.org/(S(czeh2tfqyw2orz553k1w0r45))/reference/ReferencesPapers.aspx?ReferenceID=1687108)

- Storey, J. (1992). *Developments in the management of human resources: An analytical review*. Blackwell.
- Storey, S., & Sisson, K. (1993). *Managing Work and Organisations*. Buckingham: Open.
- Stufflebeam, D. L. (2003). The CIPP model for evaluation. In *International handbook of educational evaluation* (pp. 31–62). Springer.
- Stufflebeam, D. L., Madaus, G. F., & Kellaghan, T. (2006). *Evaluation models: Viewpoints on educational and human services evaluation* (Vol. 49). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Stufflebeam, D. L., & Shinkfield, A. J. (2007). *Evaluation Theory, Models, and Applications*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.
- Subramaniam, M., & Youndt, M. A. (2005). The influence of intellectual capital on the types of innovative capabilities. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(3), 450–463.
- Sultana, A., Irum, S., Ahmed, K., & Mehmood, N. (2012). Impact of training on employee performance: A study of telecommunication sector in Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(6), 646–661.
- Sun, L.-Y., Aryee, S., & Law, K. S. (2007). High-performance human resource practices, citizenship behavior, and organizational performance: A relational perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(3), 558–577.
- Sung, S. Y., & Choi, J. N. (2018). Effects of training and development on employee outcomes and firm innovative performance: Moderating roles of voluntary participation and evaluation. *Human Resource Management*, 57(6), 1339–1353.
- Swanson, R. (2007). *Analysis for improving performance: Tools for diagnosing organizations and documenting workplace expertise*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Swanson, R. A. (2001). Human resource development and its underlying theory. *Human Resource Development International*, 4(3), 299–312.

- Swanson, R. A., Holton, E., & Holton, E. F. (2001). *Foundations of human resource development*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Swanson, R. A., & Torraco, R. J. (1995). The history of technical training. *The ASTD Technical and Skills Training Handbook*, 1–47.
- Swart, J., Mann, C., Brown, S., & Price, A. (2012). *Human resource development*. Routledge.
- Tahir, N., Yousafzai, I. K., Jan, S., & Hashim, M. (2014). The Impact of Training and Development on Employees Performance and Productivity A case study of United Bank Limited Peshawar City, KPK, Pakistan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 4(4), 86.
- Tang, G., Wei, L.-Q., Snape, E., & Ng, Y. C. (2015). How effective human resource management promotes corporate entrepreneurship: Evidence from China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(12), 1586–1601.
- Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (1990). Firm Capabilities, Resources and the Concept of Strategy (working paper). *Berkeley: Center for Research in Management, University of California*.
- Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (1997). Dynamic capabilities and strategic management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 18(7), 509–533.
- Tenenhaus, M., Vinzi, V. E., Chatelin, Y.-M., & Lauro, C. (2005). PLS path modeling. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis*, 48(1), 159–205.
- Tharenou, P., Saks, A. M., & Moore, C. (2007). A review and critique of research on training and organizational-level outcomes. *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(3), 251–273.
- Thi, P. A. N. (2018). *Les compétences en gestion des ressources humaines des managers: Le cas du secteur hôtelier de Genève* [PhD Thesis]. Université Paris-Saclay.

- Thiagarajan, S. (2005). *Thiagi's interactive lectures: Power up your training with interactive games and exercises*. American Society for Training and Development.
- Torraco, R. J. (2016). Early history of the fields of practice of training and development and organization development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(4), 439–453.
- Torrington, D., Hall, L., & Taylor, S. (2008). *The nature of human resource management*, Harlow. Pearson Education Limited.
- Tracey, W. R. (1974). Designing training and development. *New York NY: AMCOM*.
- Truelove, S. (1995). *Handbook of training and development*. Blackwell.
- Truss, C., Gratton, L., Hope-Hailey, V., McGovern, P., & Stiles, P. (1997). Soft and Hard Models of Human Resource Management: A Reappraisal. *Journal of Management Studies*, 34(1), 53–73. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6486.00042>
- Truss, C., Mankin, D., & Kelliher, C. (2012). *Strategic Human Resource Management*. OUP Oxford.
- Tsang, E. W. (2002). Acquiring knowledge by foreign partners from international joint ventures in a transition economy: Learning-by-doing and learning myopia. *Strategic Management Journal*, 23(9), 835–854.
- Tshukudu, T. T., & Nel, D. (2015). *Strategies for evaluating training and development initiatives in a public sector setting*.
- Tyler, K. (2008). 15 ways to train on the job. *HR Magazine*, 53(9), 105–108.
- Ugbohmeh, U. O., Osagie, G. N., & Egwu, U. E. (2016). Impact of training and development on employee performance in selected banks in Edo North Senatorial District, Nigeria. *Indian Journal of Commerce & Management Studies*, 7(3), 48–55.
- Ugheoke, S. O., Isa, M., Faizal, M., Noor, W. M., & Shakizah, W. (2015). Antecedents of strategic human resource management practices on intangible firm performance: Analytical investigation of SMEs. *Asian Social Science*, 11(13), 33–44.

- Ulrich, D. (1991). Using human resources for competitive advantage. *Making Organizations Competitive*, 129–155.
- Van Daalen, D., & Odendaal, A. (2003). Organisational change and stress management. *SP Robbins, A. Odendaal & G. Roodt. Organisational Behaviour. Global and Southern African Perspectives: South Africa. Cape Town: Pearson Education.*
- Van Noord, R., & Peterson, J. (2010). *Practical approaches for incorporating online training into staff development initiatives*. OCLC Online Computer Library Center.
- Varun Grover, T. H. D. (2001). General perspectives on knowledge management: Fostering a research agenda. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1), 5–21.
- Velada, R., Caetano, A., Michel, J. W., Lyons, B. D., & Kavanagh, M. J. (2007). The effects of training design, individual characteristics and work environment on transfer of training. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 11(4), 282–294.
- Vemić, J. (2007). Employee training and development and the learning organization. *Facta Universitatis-Series: Economics and Organization*, 4(2), 209–216.
- Verburg, R., Ortt, J. R., & Dicke, W. M. (2006). *Managing technology and innovation: An introduction*. Routledge.
- Vestal, W. C. (2005). Benchmarking Best Practices in Integrating Knowledge Management and Organizational Learning. *The 2005 Annual Meeting*.
- Vincent, A., & Seymour, J. (1994). Mentoring among female executives. *Women in Management Review*.
- Walsh, P. (2009). Global trends in higher education, adult and distance learning. *Oslo: International Council for Open and Distance Education*.
- Walton, J. (1999). *Strategic human resource development*. Prentice Hall.
- Wang, Y. (2005). *Strategic employee training and development in Chinese luxury hotels*.

- Wang, Y. (2008). *An investigation of training and development practices in three selected Chinese destinations* [PhD Thesis]. Leeds Metropolitan University.
- Warr, P., Bird, M., & Rackham, N. (1970). *Evaluation of management training: A practical framework, with cases, for evaluating training needs and results*. Gower Press.
- Watkins, K. E., & Marsick, V. J. (1993). *Sculpting the learning organization: Lessons in the art and science of systemic change*. ERIC.
- Webster-Wright, A. (2009). Reframing professional development through understanding authentic professional learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(2), 702–739.
- Weerakoon, R. K. (2016). Human resource management in sports: A critical review of its importance and pertaining issues. *Physical Culture and Sport. Studies and Research*, 69(1), 15–21.
- Wei, L.-Q., Liu, J., & Herndon, N. C. (2011). SHRM and product innovation: Testing the moderating effects of organizational culture and structure in Chinese firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(01), 19–33.
- Weinberger*, L. A. (1998). Commonly held theories of human resource development. *Human Resource Development International*, 1(1), 75–93.
- Welbourne, T. M., & Schlachter, S. (2014). Engaged in what. *Virginia: The Incentive Research Foundation*.
- Wellins, R., & Concelman, J. (2005). Creating a culture for engagement. *Workforce Performance Solutions*, 4(1), 1–4.
- Werner, J. M., & DeSimone, R. L. (2011). *Human resource development*. Cengage Learning.
- Wernerfelt, B. (1984). A resource-based view of the firm. *Strategic Management Journal*, 5(2), 171–180.

- West, M., Farr, J., West, M. A., & Farr, J. L. (1990). Innovation at work, Innovation creativity at work. *Psychological and Organizational Strategies*, 3–13.
- Wexley, K. N., & Latham, G. P. (1991). *Developing and training human resources in organizations*. Harper Collins Publishers.
- Wiig, K. M. (1994). *Knowledge Management Foundations: Thinking about Thinking-how People and Organizations Represent, Create, and Use Knowledge*. Schema Press, Limited.
- Wilkinson, A., Bacon, N., Redman, T., & Snell, S. (2010). *The SAGE Handbook of Human Resource Management*. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857021496>
- Williams, W. (2003). *One-size-fits-all competency lists? Retrieved on October 12, 2005*.
- Wilson, F. M. (2014). *Organizational Behaviour and Work: A critical introduction [4th edition]*. Oxford University Press. <http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/89835/>
- Wilson, J. P. (2005). *Human resource development: Learning & training for individuals & organizations*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Wilson, K. A., Bedwell, W. L., Lazzara, E. H., Salas, E., Burke, C. S., Estock, J. L., Orvis, K. L., & Conkey, C. (2009). Relationships between game attributes and learning outcomes: Review and research proposals. *Simulation & Gaming*, 40(2), 217–266.
- Wilton, N. (2016). *An introduction to human resource management*. Sage.
- Wiseman, R. M. (2001). *Rewarding excellence*. Academy of Management Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510.
- Wisher, V. (1994). Competencies: The precious seeds of growth. *Personnel Management*, 26(7), 36–39.
- Wold, H. (1985). In S. Kotz & NL Johnson. *Encyclopedia of Statistical Sciences. Partial Least Squares*, 6, 581–591.

- Wood, S. (1996). High Commitment Management and Payment Systems. *Journal of Management Studies*, 33(1), 53–77. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1996.tb00798.x>
- Woodruffe, C. (1993). What is meant by a competency? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*.
- Wright, P. C., & Geroy, G. D. (2001). Changing the mindset: The training myth and the need for world-class performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(4), 586–600.
- Wright, P. M., Dunford, B. B., & Snell, S. A. (2001). Human resources and the resource based view of the firm. *Journal of Management*, 27(6), 701–721.
- Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2005). The relationship between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 409–446.
- Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. (1992). Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management. *Journal of Management*, 18(2), 295–320.
- Wright, P. M., McMahan, G. C., & McWilliams, A. (1994). Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: A resource-based perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(2), 301–326.
- Yates, J. K. (2010). Engineering knowledge versus skills. *Leadership and Management in Engineering*, 10(3), 135–136.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). Applied social research methods series. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, 5(1).
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (Vol. 5). sage.
- Yong, A. G., & Pearce, S. (2013). A beginner's guide to factor analysis: Focusing on exploratory factor analysis. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 9(2), 79–94.

- Yoo, P. J. (1999). *Korean human resource development (HRD) practitioners' perceptions of expertise level and importance of workplace learning and performance (WLP) competencies* [PhD Thesis]. Pennsylvania State University.
- Yorks, L. (2005). *Strategic human resource development*. South-Western, Thompson.
- Youndt, M. A., Snell, S. A., Dean Jr, J. W., & Lepak, D. P. (1996). Human resource management, manufacturing strategy, and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 836–866.
- Yu, C., Yu, T.-F., & Yu, C.-C. (2013). Knowledge sharing, organizational climate, and innovative behavior: A cross-level analysis of effects. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 41(1), 143–156.
- Zait, A. (2006). Lonely thoughts on the meaning of education. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 19(6), 780–782.
- Zanko, M., Badham, R., Couchman, P., & Schubert, M. (2008). Innovation and HRM: Absences and politics. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(4), 562–581.
- Zemke, R. (1995). Accelerated learning. *Training*, 32(10), 93–98.
- Zerzan, J. T., Hess, R., Schur, E., Phillips, R. S., & Rigotti, N. (2009). Making the most of mentors: A guide for mentees. *Academic Medicine*, 84(1), 140–144.
- Zhang, D., Zhao, J. L., Zhou, L., & Nunamaker Jr, J. F. (2004). Can e-learning replace classroom learning? *Communications of the ACM*, 47(5), 75–79.
- Zhao, X., Lynch Jr, J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2), 197–206.
- Zwell, M. (2000). *Creating a culture of competence*. Wiley.

Appendices



Appendix 01

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Djalili Liabes University - Sidi Bel Abbas
Faculty of Economics, Commercial and Management Sciences

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire seeks to collect data on the topic:

TRAINING AS A STRATEGIC CHOICE FOR COMPETENCIES DEVELOPMENT IN ENTERPRISES –CASE STUDY ON SELECTED SMEs IN SIDI BEL ABBES PROVINCE, ALGERIA -

Dear participant:

I am currently studying for a Ph.D. degree in Human Resource Management at the University of Djalili liabes Sidi bel abbes, Algeria.

I am undertaking a research project entitled "training as a strategic choice for competencies development in enterprises - a case study of selected SMEs in Sidi bel abbes province, Algeria", supervised by Pr. yahiaoui slimane.

Through this research, the researcher is trying to explore training strategy and its effect on competencies development and attempting to assess the indirect effect of training strategy dimensions on competencies development through employee engagement in selected SMEs in Sidi bel abbes province, Algeria.

Your response is truly important to the success of this study. I would like to assure you that your response will be processed as 'Strictly Confidential'. Your response will be used for academic purposes only. So please try to answer all questions included, however, if you are unsure about a response, or think it would be misleading, please leave the specific question unanswered.

I would be pleased to present you with the outcome of this study when completed if you require. Should you have any queries at all, please do not hesitate to contact me (details below).

Please tick the appropriate box or write in the space provided.

I count on your cooperation. Thanks.

Best regards,

RAFFAR ABDELKADER EL AMIR

E-mail : raffaramir85@yahoo.com

Second Part:

Please tick the appropriate box or write in the space provided:

The independent variable: Training Strategy

| No | Items | S/A | A | N/S | D | S/D |
|---|--|-----|---|-----|---|-----|
| First: current practices of training | | | | | | |
| 1- Training need assessment (TNA) | | | | | | |
| 01 | The enterprise determines the shortcomings in the efficiency of employees and develops the necessary training programs | | | | | |
| 02 | The enterprise determines the training needs of employees at all levels | | | | | |
| 03 | The enterprise encourages the self-evaluation of employees to know the strengths, weaknesses and obstacles they face during their work | | | | | |
| 04 | The enterprise determines the times of the training courses in line with the nature of employee's work | | | | | |
| 05 | The enterprise proposes many training courses, and the employees choose from them what covers their needs | | | | | |
| 06 | The enterprise identifies the training needs through the observation of the direct supervisor | | | | | |
| 07 | The enterprise determines the training needs by comparing the current capabilities of the employees with the new work requirements | | | | | |
| 08 | The method used to determine the training needs according to personal relationships | | | | | |
| 09 | The method used to determine the training needs according to the work needs | | | | | |
| First: current practices of training | | | | | | |
| 2-Training design (TD) | | | | | | |
| 10 | Design training programs in accordance with the needs of employees | | | | | |
| 11 | The enterprise explains the goal to be achieved and how to achieve it when designing training programs | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 12 | The enterprise makes the necessary adjustments to the training courses before and during the course | | | | | |
| 13 | The training program is designed based on a scientific methodology in terms of defining objectives, content and methods used | | | | | |
| 14 | The enterprise determines the human, spatial and time requirements necessary to complete the training program | | | | | |
| 15 | There is a constant repetition in the content of the training courses conducted by the enterprise | | | | | |
| 16 | Training courses are provided according to the needs of the worker | | | | | |
| 17 | Qualified trainers are used based on the type of training program | | | | | |
| First: current practices of training | | | | | | |
| 3-Training delivery (TDL) | | | | | | |
| 18 | The enterprise is committed to implementing the training programs as planned to meet the training needs of the employees | | | | | |
| 19 | Employees in various departments are subject to an integrated training program that covers their needs | | | | | |
| 20 | When implementing training programs, the enterprise provides the specialized components for integration to achieve the needs of the trainees | | | | | |
| 21 | The method of training is chosen based on the objective of the training program | | | | | |
| 22 | The method of training helps in collecting the content of the training program and contributes to improving skills | | | | | |
| 23 | The qualified trainers with the appropriate competencies are selected to implement the training programs | | | | | |
| 24 | The content of the training courses is presented according to the style of lectures and seminars | | | | | |
| First: current practices of training | | | | | | |

| 4-Training assessment (TA) | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 25 | The enterprise uses multiple standards and criteria that help in evaluating training programs and determining the level of results accurately | | | | |
| 26 | The enterprise uses various tools to determine the efficiency of the training program and its ability to achieve the objectives | | | | |
| 27 | The enterprise takes the results of evaluating the training program and the suggestions of employees in the development of subsequent training programs | | | | |
| 28 | Training programs helped reduce turnover and employee absenteeism in enterprise | | | | |
| 29 | The method of comparing the performance of the trainee before and after training is used to observe all changes in skills and knowledges | | | | |
| 30 | The results of the training courses are evaluated through their reflection on the performance of the trainees | | | | |
| 31 | The trainee is evaluated upon completion of the training process | | | | |
| Second: the commitment of senior management | | | | | |
| 01 | The enterprise always works to provide employees with knowledge and develop their skills and abilities in a positive and constructive manner | | | | |
| 02 | The enterprise takes the strategic decisions affecting the long-term with regard to the development of the performance of employees | | | | |
| 03 | The enterprise analyzes the internal environment in terms of the efficiency of the workforce | | | | |
| 04 | The enterprise has the ability to prepare and formulate the training strategy and the training programs it includes in a way that contributes to integration with the strategy of the enterprise as a whole. | | | | |
| 05 | The enterprise has full conviction to adopt positive ideas for training strategies | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 06 | Implementation of training strategies is among the senior management priorities | | | | | |
| Third: training effectiveness | | | | | | |
| 01 | I was able to meet the objectives of the training. | | | | | |
| 02 | The training significantly added to my store of knowledge . | | | | | |
| 03 | After undergoing training, employees can introduce new ways of performing in their work | | | | | |
| 04 | The morale of the employees in the enterprise rises after completing the training | | | | | |
| 05 | Training improves long-term performance | | | | | |
| Fourth: the adoption of modern technologies | | | | | | |
| 01 | The enterprise analyzes and studies the external environment in order to develop technology to keep pace with rapid environmental changes | | | | | |
| 02 | The enterprise use of modern technology as a basis for the diversity of training programs | | | | | |
| 03 | The enterprise is keen to train employees to apply modern technologies | | | | | |
| 04 | The enterprise works on a strategy of adopting modern technology that is appropriate with the conditions of the external and internal environment | | | | | |
| 05 | The enterprise uses electronic methods in training delivery | | | | | |

The dependent variable: competencies development.

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 01 | My enterprise identifies the knowledge and skills I need to do my best job | | | | | |
| 02 | My enterprise is interested in increasing and developing my skills and efficiency since my appointment to the position | | | | | |
| 03 | My enterprise helps me diversify and develop my skills and competencies constantly, which makes me unique | | | | | |
| 04 | My enterprise helps me to prepare enough to take responsibility | | | | | |
| 05 | My enterprise helps me to solve problems and bear the pressures of work | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 06 | My enterprise helps me to raise my skills in using modern technology in my tasks | | | | | | |
| 07 | My enterprise helps me to improve my behavior and develop it better | | | | | | |
| 08 | My enterprise develops my abilities to plan, prioritize and implement them on time | | | | | | |
| 09 | My enterprise develops my decision-making capabilities in my work environment | | | | | | |
| 10 | My enterprise develops my ability to adapt to new and critical situations in my work | | | | | | |
| 11 | My enterprise pushes me to act firmly and honestly | | | | | | |
| 12 | My enterprise pushes me to work with others in one team and help them solve their problems | | | | | | |
| 13 | My enterprise pushes me to accept more responsibilities and challenges always | | | | | | |

The mediator variable: employee engagement.

| | | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 01 | I know very well what is expected of me at work | | | | | | |
| 02 | My supervisor expresses confidence in my ability to do my job | | | | | | |
| 03 | I feel the desire and vitality in my work environment | | | | | | |
| 04 | I have great independence in doing my job without direct supervision | | | | | | |
| 05 | I feel free and inspired to give my best at work | | | | | | |
| 06 | I feel dedicated and serious about doing my job at a high level | | | | | | |
| 07 | I involve my supervisor in many daily decisions | | | | | | |
| 08 | My supervisor gives me a chance to express my opinions at work | | | | | | |
| 09 | My supervisor thinks I can handle the tough tasks in my job | | | | | | |

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم
جامعة الجبلاي ليايس سيدي بلعباس
كلية العلوم الإقتصادية والتجارية وعلوم التسيير



الأخ الكريم / الأخت الكريمة
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

الموضوع: إستبيان

نضع بين أيديكم هذه الإستبانة بعنوان:

(التكوين كإختيار إستراتيجي لتنمية الكفاءات في المؤسسات - دراسة حالة على عينة من المؤسسات الصغيرة و المتوسطة بولاية سيدي بلعباس -)

Training as a strategic choice for competencies development in enterprises –case study on selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbes province, Algeria-

يهدف هذا الإستبيان إلى التعرف على أثر تطبيق إستراتيجية التكوين بأبعادها (مراحل العملية التكوينية - مدى إلتزام الإدارة العليا - فعالية التكوين - مستوى تبني التكنولوجيات الحديثة) على تنمية الكفاءات في عينة من المؤسسات الصغيرة و المتوسطة بولاية سيدي بلعباس مع دراسة الأثر الوسيط لإشراك العاملين، للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في تسيير الموارد البشرية، حتى يحقق البحث أهدافه أرجو من سيادتكم قراءة هذه الإستبانة المرفقة بتمعن و رؤية و من ثم الإجابة على كافة بنودها بدقة و موضوعية لما له من تأثير على نتائج الدراسة بوضع علامة (✓) أمام الخيار الذي ترونه مناسباً ، كما يؤكد لكم الباحث أن كافة المعلومات التي تدلون بها سوف تكون سرية و لن تستخدم إلا لغرض البحث العلمي فقط شاكرين حسن تعاملكم معنا ...

الباحث: رفار عبد القادر الأمير

raffaramir85@yahoo.com

الجزء الأول : المعلومات العامة

الرجاء وضع علامة أمام العبارة (✓) التي تناسب خياركم :

1. الجنس :

ذكر أنثى

2. العمر :

أقل من 30 سنة 31 سنة إلى 45 سنة

46 سنة إلى 55 سنة 55 سنة فأكثر

3. المؤهل العلمي :

مستوى ثانوي فأقل بكالوريا

شهادة ليسانس شهادة الماستر شهادة الدكتوراه

4. المنصب المشغول :

مدير رئيس قسم رئيس مصلحة

رئيس فرقة موظف

5. سنوات الخبرة في العمل :

أقل من 05 سنوات 6 سنوات إلى 10 سنوات

11 سنة إلى 15 سنة 16 سنة فأكثر

6. عدد الدورات التكوينية :

دورة واحدة أكثر من دورة واحدة

الجزء الثاني : أسئلة الإستهانة

تم إستخدام مقياس ليكارت الخماسي من أوافق بشدة و تحمل (5) درجات إلى لا أوافق بشدة و تحمل درجة واحدة (1) ،
الرجاء إختيار إجابة واحدة لكل فقرة من الفقرات بوضع إشارة (X) أمام الإختيار المناسب .

المتغير المستقل : إستراتيجية التكوين

| الرقم | الفقرة | أوافق بشدة | أوافق | محايد | لا أوافق بشدة | لا أوافق بشدة |
|--|---|------------|-------|-------|---------------|---------------|
| 1/ مراحل العملية التكوينية | | | | | | |
| أولاً: تحديد الإحتياجات التكوينية (ما يحتاجه العامل من تكوين) | | | | | | |
| 1 | تقوم إدارة المؤسسة بتحديد النقص في كفاءة العمال | | | | | |
| 2 | تقوم إدارة المؤسسة بتحديد ما يحتاجه جميع العمال من تكوين | | | | | |
| 3 | تشجع إدارة المؤسسة التقييم الذاتي للعمال لمعرفة نقاط الضعف و المعوقات التي تواجههم أثناء عملهم | | | | | |
| 4 | تحدد المؤسسة أوقات الدورات التكوينية بما يتلائم مع طبيعة عمل العاملين | | | | | |
| 5 | يختار العاملون نوع الدورات التكوينية حسب ما يغطي إحتياجاتهم | | | | | |
| 6 | يتم تحديد الإحتياجات التكوينية (ما يحتاجه العامل من تكوين) من خلال ملاحظات المسؤول المباشر | | | | | |
| 7 | يتم تحديد الإحتياجات التكوينية (ما يحتاجه العامل من تكوين) من خلال المقارنة بين القدرات الحالية للعاملين و متطلبات العمل الجديدة | | | | | |
| 8 | الطريقة المتبعة في تحديد الإحتياجات التكوينية حسب العلاقات الشخصية في العمل | | | | | |
| 9 | الأسلوب المتبع في تحديد الإحتياجات التكوينية حسب ما يحتاجه العامل فعلا | | | | | |
| 1/ مراحل العملية التكوينية | | | | | | |
| ثانياً : تصميم البرامج التكوينية | | | | | | |
| 10 | تصميم البرامج التكوينية يتفق مع ما يحتاجه العاملين من تكوين | | | | | |
| 11 | توضح إدارة المؤسسة الأهداف المراد تحقيقها عند تصميم البرامج التكوينية | | | | | |
| 12 | تقوم إدارة المؤسسة بالتعديلات اللازمة على الدورات التكوينية قبل بداية الدورة و أثناء إنعقادها عند الضرورة | | | | | |
| 13 | يصمم البرنامج التكويني بالإعتماد على الأساليب المتوفرة في العمل | | | | | |
| 14 | تحدد الإدارة المتطلبات البشرية و المكانية و الزمنية اللازمة لإنجاز البرنامج التكويني | | | | | |
| 15 | هناك تكرار مستمر في محتوى الدورات التكوينية التي تقوم بها إدارة المؤسسة | | | | | |
| 16 | يتم تقديم الدورات التكوينية وفقاً لإحتياجات العمل | | | | | |
| 17 | يتم الإستعانة بمدربين مؤهلين في تصميم البرنامج التكويني | | | | | |
| 1/ مراحل العملية التكوينية | | | | | | |
| ثالثاً: تنفيذ البرامج التكوينية | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|----|
| | | | | | تلتزم إدارة المؤسسة بتنفيذ البرامج التكوينية كما هي مخطط لها لتلبية ما يحتاجه العاملين | 18 |
| | | | | | يخضع العاملون لبرنامج تكويني متكامل يغطي إحتياجاتهم | 19 |
| | | | | | عند تنفيذ البرامج التكوينية توفر إدارة المؤسسة المكونين المختصين من أجل ذلك | 20 |
| | | | | | يتم إختيار أسلوب التكوين وفق الهدف من البرنامج التكويني | 21 |
| | | | | | يساعد أسلوب و مكان التكوين في تحقيق أهداف البرنامج التكويني | 22 |
| | | | | | يتم إختيار المكونين الأكفاء من ذوي المؤهلات المناسبة لتنفيذ البرامج التكوينية | 23 |
| | | | | | يتم تقديم محتوى الدورات التكوينية وفقا لأسلوب الندوات و المحاضرات | 24 |
| 1/ مراحل العملية التكوينية | | | | | | |
| رابعا: تقييم البرامج التكوينية | | | | | | |
| | | | | | تستخدم إدارة المؤسسة معايير متعددة تساعد في تقييم البرامج التكوينية و تحديد مستوى النتائج بدقة | 25 |
| | | | | | تستخدم إدارة المؤسسة أدوات مختلفة لتحديد كفاءة البرنامج التكويني و قدرته على تحقيق الأهداف | 26 |
| | | | | | تأخذ إدارة المؤسسة بنتائج تقييم البرنامج التكويني في وضع البرامج التكوينية اللاحقة | 27 |
| | | | | | تأخذ إدارة المؤسسة بمقترحات العاملين في وضع البرامج التكوينية اللاحقة | 28 |
| | | | | | يستخدم أسلوب مقارنة أداء المتكون قبل التكوين و بعد التكوين لملاحظة تطور المهارات و المعارف | 29 |
| | | | | | يتم تقييم نتائج الدورات التكوينية من خلال إنعكاسها على كفاءة المتكونين | 30 |
| | | | | | يتم تقييم المتكون بمجرد الإنتهاء من العملية التكوينية مباشرة | 31 |
| 2 / مدى إلتزام الإدارة العليا | | | | | | |
| | | | | | تعمل إدارة المؤسسة دائما على تزويد العاملين بالمعرفة و تطوير مهاراتهم و قدراتهم بشكل إيجابي و بناء | 01 |
| | | | | | تتخذ إدارة المؤسسة القرارات الإستراتيجية المؤثرة على المدى البعيد فيما يتعلق بتطوير و تنمية أداء العاملين | 02 |
| | | | | | تقوم إدارة المؤسسة بتحليل و دراسة إمكانيات المؤسسة من حيث كفاءة القوى العاملة | 03 |
| | | | | | لدى إدارة المؤسسة القدرة على إعداد و صياغة إستراتيجية التكوين و ما تتضمنه من برامج تكوينية بشكل يساهم في التكامل مع إستراتيجية المؤسسة ككل | 04 |
| | | | | | لدى المؤسسة القناعة التامة بتبني أفكار إيجابية لإستراتيجيات التكوين | 05 |
| | | | | | يعد تطبيق إستراتيجيات التكوين من ضمن أولويات الإدارة العليا | 06 |
| 3 / فعالية التكوين | | | | | | |
| | | | | | تمكنت من تحقيق أهداف التكوين. | 01 |
| | | | | | أضاف التكوين بشكل كبير إلى مخزني من المعرفة. | 02 |
| | | | | | يستطيع العاملون بعد خضوعهم للتكوين بإدخال طرق أداء جديدة في عملهم | 03 |
| | | | | | ترتفع الروح المعنوية للعاملين في المؤسسة بعد انتهائهم من التكوين | 04 |
| | | | | | يؤدي التكوين إلى تحسين أداء المتكونين على المدى البعيد | 05 |

| 4 / تبني التكنولوجيا الحديثة في التكوين | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|---|
| | | | | | 01 تعمل إدارة المؤسسة على تحليل و دراسة البيئة الخارجية من أجل تطوير التكنولوجيا لمواكبة التغيرات البيئية السريعة |
| | | | | | 02 تعمل إدارة المؤسسة على إستخدام التكنولوجيا الحديثة كأساس في تنوع البرامج التكوينية |
| | | | | | 03 تخرص إدارة المؤسسة على تكوين العاملين على تطبيق التكنولوجيات الحديثة |
| | | | | | 04 تعمل إدارة المؤسسة على إستراتيجية تبني التكنولوجيا الحديثة الملائمة مع ظروف البيئة الخارجية و الداخلية |
| | | | | | 05 تعتمد إدارة المؤسسة على التكوين عن بعد (التكوين الإلكتروني) |

المتغير التابع: تنمية الكفاءات

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | 01 تحدد مؤسستي المعارف و المهارات التي أحتاجها لإنجاز عملي في أحسن وجه |
| | | | | | 02 تحتم مؤسستي بزيادة و تنمية مهاراتي و كفاءتي منذ تعييني في المنصب |
| | | | | | 03 تساعدني مؤسستي بتنوع و تطوير مهاراتي و كفاءتي بإستمرار ما يجعلني متميزا |
| | | | | | 04 تساعدني مؤسستي على الإستعداد الكافي لتحمل المسؤولية |
| | | | | | 05 تساعدني مؤسستي على حل المشاكل و تحمل ضغوط العمل |
| | | | | | 06 تساعدني مؤسستي على رفع مهاراتي في إستخدام التكنولوجيات الحديثة في مهامي |
| | | | | | 07 تساعدني مؤسستي على تحسين سلوكي و تطويره بشكل أفضل |
| | | | | | 08 تطور مؤسستي قدراتي على التخطيط و تحديد الأولويات و تنفيذها في الوقت |
| | | | | | 09 تطور مؤسستي قدراتي على إتخاذ القرارات في محيط عملي |
| | | | | | 10 تطور مؤسستي قدراتي على التكيف مع الحالات و الأوضاع الجديدة في عملي |
| | | | | | 11 تدفعني مؤسستي إلى التصرف بحزم و صدق |
| | | | | | 12 تدفعني مؤسستي إلى العمل مع الآخرين ضمن فريق واحد و مساعدتهم في حل مشاكلهم |
| | | | | | 13 تدفعني مؤسستي إلى قبول المزيد من المسؤوليات و التحديات دائما |

المتغير الوسيط: إشراك العاملين

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|---|
| | | | | | 01 أعلم جيدا ماهو متوقع مني في العمل |
| | | | | | 02 يعبر مشرفي عن ثقته في قدرتي في أداء عملي |
| | | | | | 03 أشعر بالرغبة و الحيوية في محيط عملي |
| | | | | | 04 لدي إستقلالية كبيرة في أداء عملي دون إشراف مباشر |
| | | | | | 05 أشعر بالحرية و الإلهام لتقديم أفضل ما لدي في العمل |
| | | | | | 06 أشعر بالتفاني و الجدية في أداء عملي على مستوى عالي |
| | | | | | 07 أشارك مشرفي في العديد من القرارات اليومية |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|---|----|
| | | | | | يمنحني مشرفي فرصة للتعبير عن آرائي في العمل | 08 |
| | | | | | يعتقد مشرفي أنه بإمكانني التعامل مع المهام الصعبة في عملي | 09 |



APPENDIX 02

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Sidi Bel Abbès, December 21, 2021

Dear Colleague,

We are pleased to invite you to assist in the success of our proposed PhD study titled:

"Training as a strategic choice for competencies development in enterprises – a case study of selected SMEs in Sidi Bel Abbès province, Algeria"

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of training strategy with its dimensions on competencies development through employee engagement. We are sure that you are aware of the need for an effective Training strategy in today's highly changing and complicated workplace environment of modern SMEs.

You are invited to kindly participate in a one-to-one interview with the researcher to answer the followings questions. The interview will take place on:

| enterprise | AZZOUZ | CHIALI | KHANTEUR | FROM LAIT | FAMAG | MED IJK |
|------------|--------|--------|----------|--------------|-------|---------|
| Date | | | | | | |
| Time | | | | | | |

While emphasizing it is not necessary to state your name or signature, we would like to assure you that the information you give will be presented as data for research purposes only and will be kept strictly confidential. The researcher will be happy to answer any of your inquiries related to this study.

Please accept our sincere appreciation and thanks for your kind assistance in this endeavour Sincerely yours,

RAFFAR Abdelkader El Amir
Tel: +213661822299
E-MAIL: raffaramir85@yahoo.com

Background information

About yourself

1. Your Name :

2. Your position in the Enterprise:

About your Enterprise

1. Name of your Enterprise :

1. what is the degree to which the training plan is compatible with the overall strategy of your enterprise, as well as the level of commitment shown by the top management to the training operations?

2. what are the techniques for assessing training programs, that influence in terms of the development of human competences, that are followed in your enterprise?

3. Do the training programs implement in a scientifically sound manner in accordance with training requirements?

4. what are the technical tools and techniques that are utilized in training, such as electronic and remote learning, and their influence on the development of competencies and the refinement of skills among personnel in your enterprise?

5. what is the impact of both training strategy and employees' engagement on the development of human competencies in your enterprise?

6. Thank you for your kind cooperation in completing this interview. If You have any additional comments, please feel free to indicate them

Thank you

APPENDIX 03

DATA COLLECTION SCHEDULE

| Date | Subject | remarks |
|-------------------|--|--|
| 17 September 2021 | Questionnaire final review | As per the direction the supervisor |
| 27 September 2021 | Questionnaire testing | With a group of 13 experts and academicians |
| 16 October 2021 | After integration the comments received for the pilot program, the final questionnaire was distributed | 06 SMEs Sent to HR and training directors |
| 15 November 2021 | Questionnaire collected | Starting the analysis process immediately |
| 21 December 2021 | Face to face interviews | Conducting face to face interviews with 06 training directors and HR specialists |
| January 2022 | Data analysis process | Complete the data classifications and analyse the findings. |

APPENDIX 04

ASSESSMENT OF NORMALITY

| Variable | Min | Max | Skew | c.r. | Kurtosis | c.r. |
|----------|-------|-------|--------|--------|----------|--------|
| EE03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.816 | -5.065 | .296 | .917 |
| EE04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.842 | -5.227 | .032 | .100 |
| EE05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.911 | -5.653 | .203 | .629 |
| EE06 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.929 | -5.767 | .366 | 1.136 |
| EE07 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.765 | -4.747 | -.063 | -.194 |
| EE08 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.929 | -5.764 | .183 | .566 |
| TDL01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.819 | -5.081 | .010 | .030 |
| TDL02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.612 | -3.795 | -.510 | -1.583 |
| DTL03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.980 | -6.081 | .365 | 1.134 |
| TDL04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.973 | -6.036 | .560 | 1.736 |
| TDL05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.735 | -4.557 | -.145 | -.450 |
| TDL06 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.928 | -5.759 | .165 | .512 |
| CD08 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.970 | -6.016 | .509 | 1.579 |
| CD06 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.790 | -4.902 | -.184 | -.569 |
| CD05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.765 | -4.746 | .044 | .135 |
| CD04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.853 | -5.294 | .436 | 1.352 |
| CD03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.714 | -4.430 | -.228 | -.707 |
| CD02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.779 | -4.834 | .011 | .036 |
| CD13 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.016 | -6.304 | .235 | .729 |
| CD12 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.018 | -6.320 | .380 | 1.180 |
| CD11 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.767 | -4.757 | -.103 | -.320 |
| CD10 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.969 | -6.012 | .467 | 1.448 |
| CD09 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.851 | -5.278 | .256 | .794 |
| CD07 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.876 | -5.433 | .266 | .824 |
| TA01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.871 | -5.402 | .008 | .024 |
| TA02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.730 | -4.528 | -.132 | -.410 |
| TA03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.655 | -4.067 | -.347 | -1.077 |
| TA04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.772 | -4.790 | .087 | .270 |
| TA05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.602 | -3.738 | -.421 | -1.307 |
| TA06 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.648 | -4.019 | -.083 | -.256 |
| TA07 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.553 | -3.433 | -.689 | -2.136 |
| TD01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.879 | -5.456 | .103 | .321 |
| TD03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.706 | -4.383 | -.308 | -.955 |
| TD04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.773 | -4.793 | -.226 | -.702 |
| TD05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.761 | -4.722 | -.301 | -.934 |
| TD07 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.768 | -4.762 | -.253 | -.785 |
| TD08 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.943 | -5.852 | .261 | .809 |

| | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-------|-------|--------|--------|----------|---------|
| TNA01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.993 | -6.160 | -.029 | -.090 |
| TNA02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.012 | -6.282 | .545 | 1.692 |
| TNA03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.825 | -5.118 | -.134 | -.414 |
| TNA04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.703 | -4.363 | -.369 | -1.145 |
| TNA05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.404 | -2.508 | -.897 | -2.784 |
| TNA06 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.746 | -4.631 | -.270 | -.836 |
| TNA07 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.817 | -5.067 | -.152 | -.471 |
| TNA09 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.668 | -4.142 | -.442 | -1.371 |
| CSM06 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.601 | -3.727 | -.529 | -1.641 |
| CSM05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.819 | -5.081 | .099 | .307 |
| CSM04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.629 | -3.901 | -.254 | -.789 |
| CSM03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.841 | -5.215 | .321 | .997 |
| CSM02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.779 | -4.834 | -.001 | -.002 |
| CSM01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.642 | -3.984 | -.316 | -.980 |
| TE05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.108 | -6.877 | .811 | 2.515 |
| TE04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.976 | -6.054 | .133 | .411 |
| TE03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.017 | -6.311 | .319 | .990 |
| TE02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.136 | -7.048 | 1.017 | 3.154 |
| TE01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -1.265 | -7.848 | 1.113 | 3.453 |
| AMT05 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.415 | -2.578 | -.852 | -2.645 |
| AMT04 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.706 | -4.381 | -.474 | -1.472 |
| AMT03 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.804 | -4.986 | -.142 | -.440 |
| AMT02 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.812 | -5.040 | .153 | .475 |
| AMT01 | 1.000 | 5.000 | -.934 | -5.795 | .156 | .484 |
| Multivariate | | | | | 1221.699 | 105.899 |

APPENDIX 05

The Cross -Loading Output Using Smart PLS



Smart
Next Generation Path Modeling

- Final Results
- Path Coefficients
- Indirect Effects
- Total Effects
- Outer Loadings
- Outer Weights
- Latent Variable
- Residuals**
- Quality Criteria
 - R Square
 - f Square
 - Construct Reliability and Validity
 - Discriminant Validity
 - Collinearity Statistics (VIF)
 - Model_Fit
 - Model Selection Criteria
- Interim Results
 - Stop Criterion Changes
- Base Data
 - Setting
 - Inner Model
 - Outer Model
 - Indicator Data (Original)

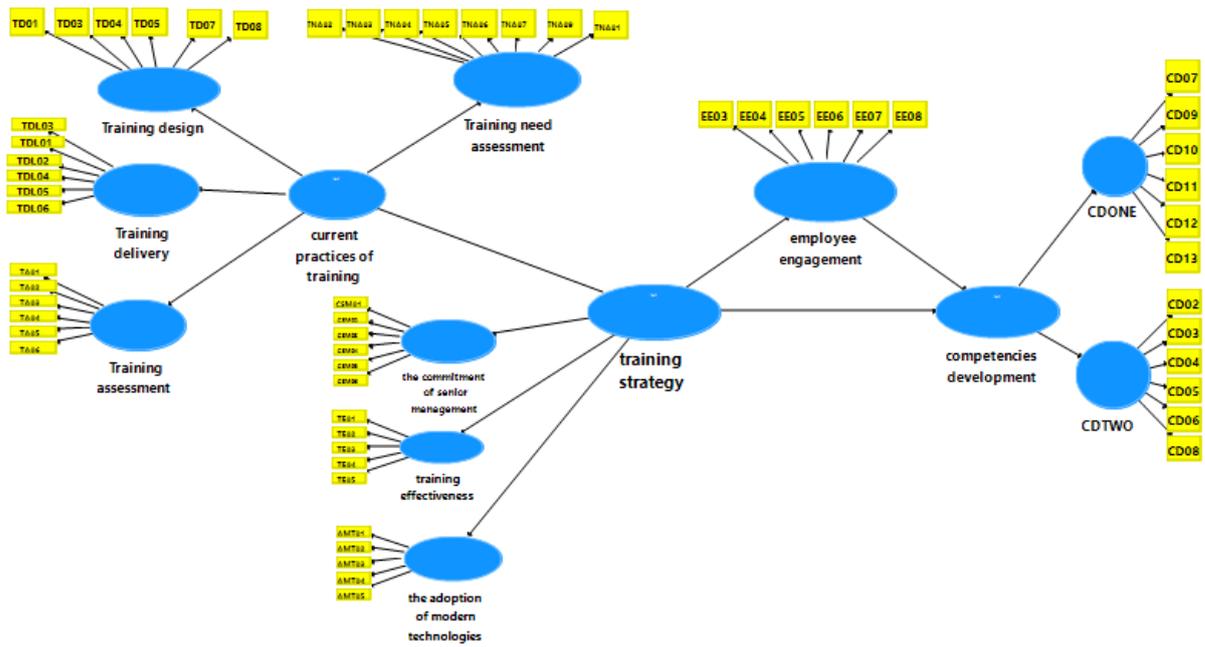
Discriminant Validity

Fornell-Larcker Criterion **Cross Loadings** Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

| | CDONE | CDTWO | Training assessment | Training delivery | Training design | Training need assessment | competencies development | current prac |
|--------------|-------|-------|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| AMT01 | 0.429 | 0.391 | 0.509 | 0.358 | 0.361 | 0.553 | 0.466 | |
| AMT02 | 0.512 | 0.481 | 0.517 | 0.454 | 0.433 | 0.611 | 0.542 | |
| AMT02 | 0.512 | 0.481 | 0.517 | 0.454 | 0.433 | 0.611 | 0.542 | |
| AMT03 | 0.409 | 0.334 | 0.488 | 0.422 | 0.516 | 0.546 | 0.413 | |
| AMT04 | 0.461 | 0.362 | 0.454 | 0.382 | 0.360 | 0.490 | 0.466 | |
| CD04 | 0.591 | 1.000 | 0.427 | 0.374 | 0.443 | 0.507 | 0.766 | |
| CD04 | 0.591 | 1.000 | 0.427 | 0.374 | 0.443 | 0.507 | 0.766 | |
| CD07 | 0.810 | 0.530 | 0.378 | 0.329 | 0.445 | 0.486 | 0.819 | |
| CD07 | 0.810 | 0.530 | 0.378 | 0.329 | 0.445 | 0.486 | 0.819 | |
| CD09 | 0.768 | 0.455 | 0.304 | 0.397 | 0.428 | 0.422 | 0.755 | |
| CD09 | 0.768 | 0.455 | 0.304 | 0.397 | 0.428 | 0.422 | 0.755 | |
| CD10 | 0.735 | 0.447 | 0.269 | 0.349 | 0.378 | 0.424 | 0.736 | |
| CD10 | 0.735 | 0.447 | 0.269 | 0.349 | 0.378 | 0.424 | 0.736 | |
| CD11 | 0.785 | 0.413 | 0.357 | 0.283 | 0.314 | 0.454 | 0.739 | |
| CD11 | 0.785 | 0.413 | 0.357 | 0.283 | 0.314 | 0.454 | 0.739 | |

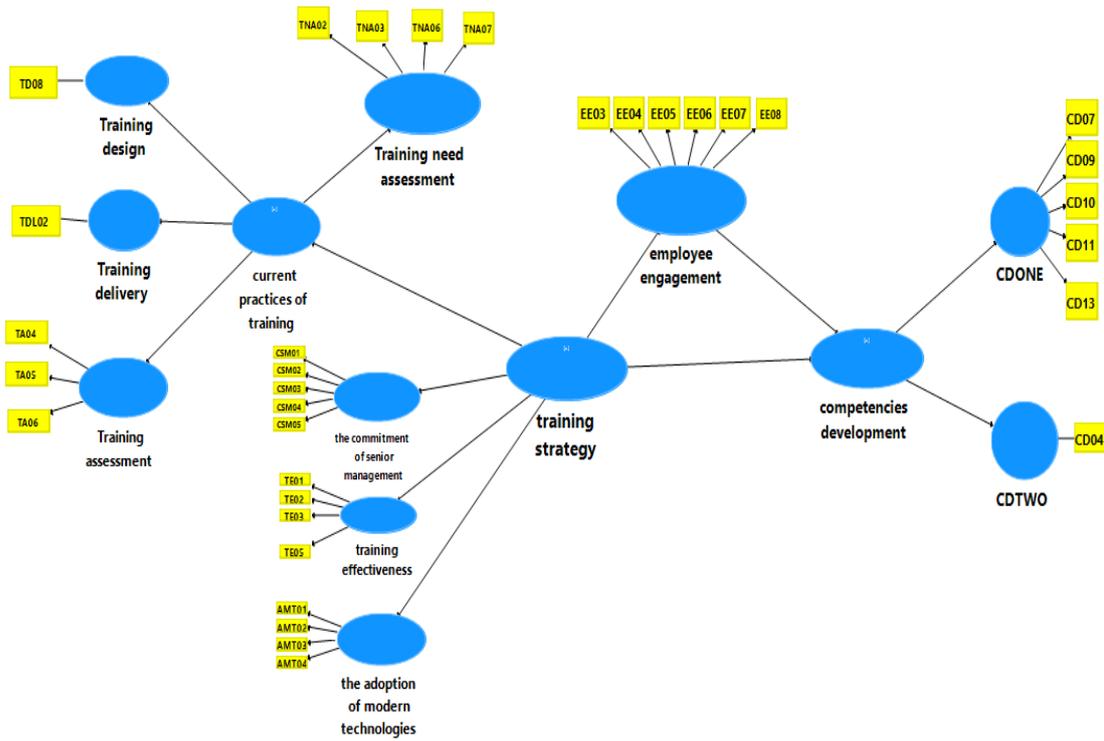
APPENDIX 06

BASIC MODEL WITH PLS PATH MODELING



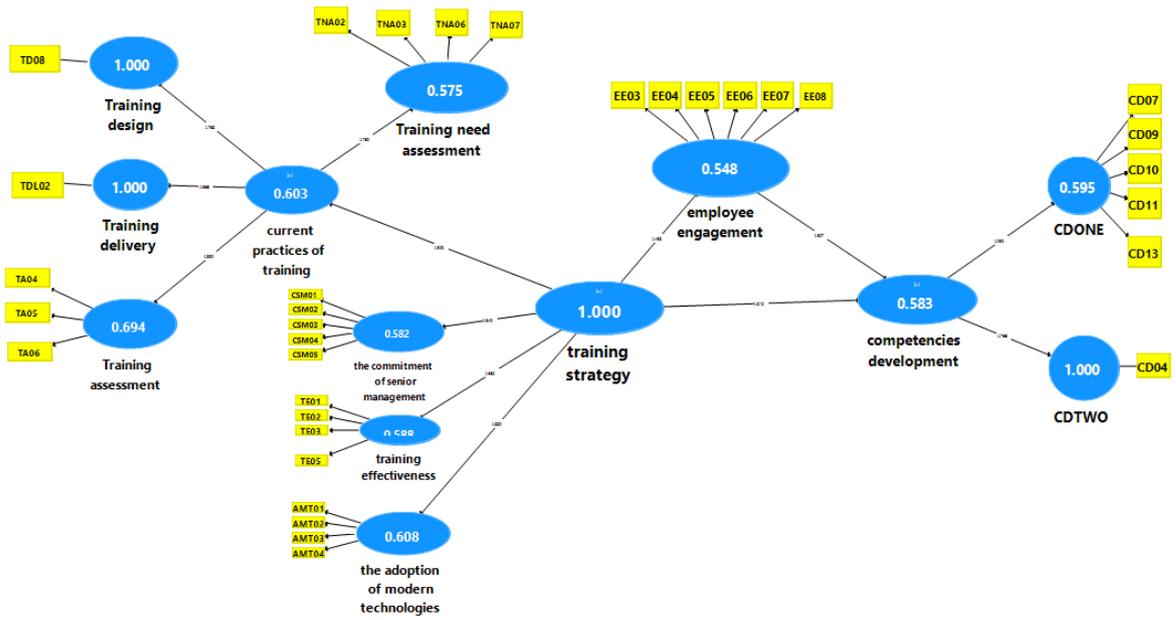
APPENDIX 07

MODEL AFTER CORRECTING ERRORS



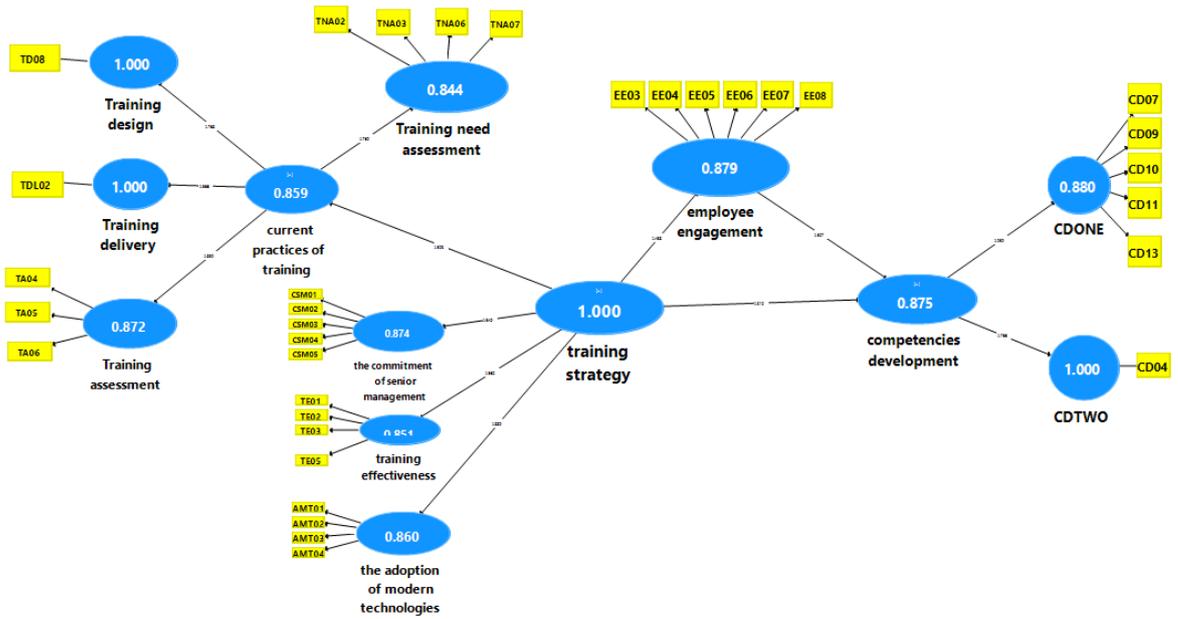
APPENDIX 08

AVE VALUES (SMART PLS OUTPUT 2022)



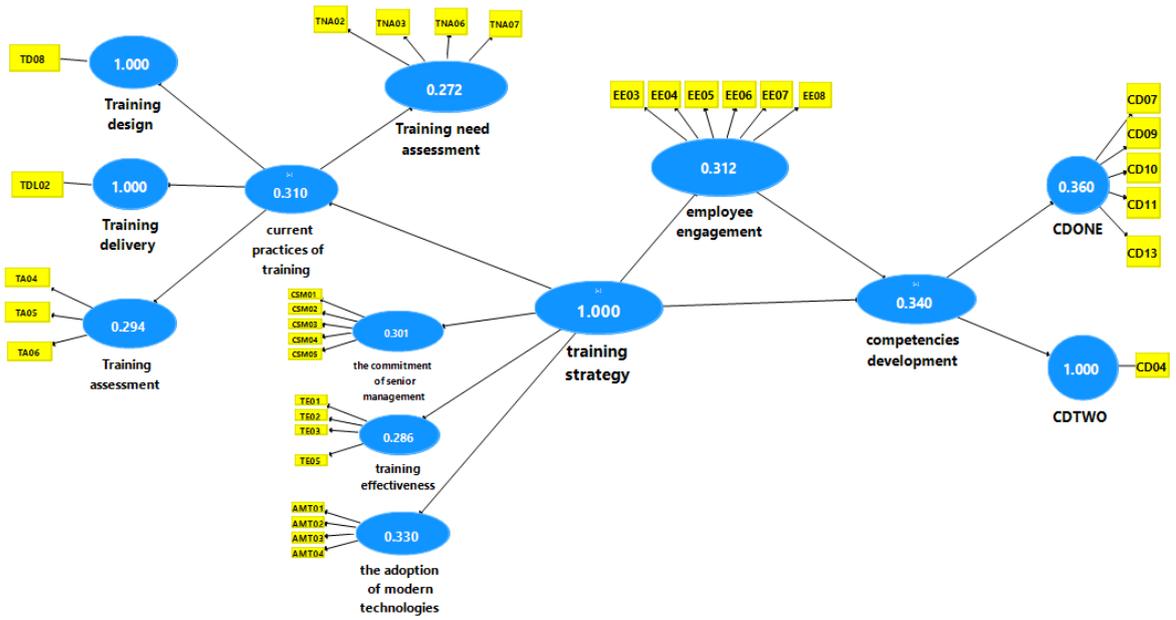
APPENDIX 09

CR VALUES (SMART PLS OUTPUT 2022)



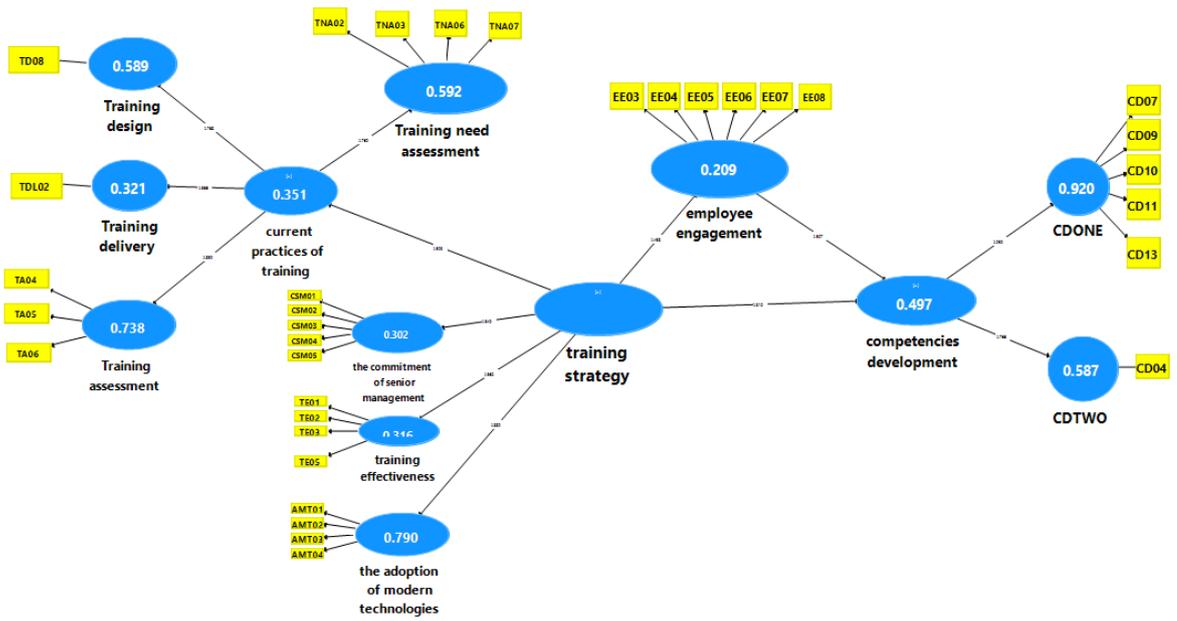
APPENDIX 10

Q2 VALUES (SMART PLS OUTPUT 2022)



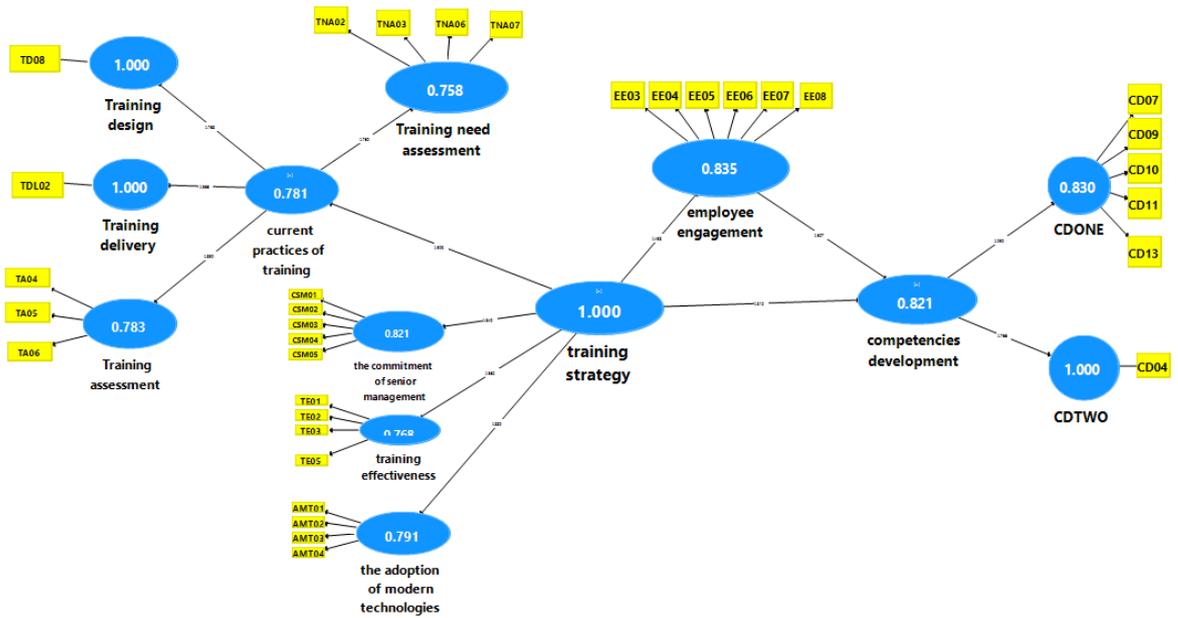
APPENDIX 11

R2 VALUES (SMART PLS OUTPUT 2022)



APPENDIX 12

A. CRONBACH VALUES (SMART PLS OUTPUT 2022)



APPENDIX 13

PATH COEFFICIENT (SMART PLS OUTPUT 2022)

