UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES AND POST TRAINING PERFORMANCE OF EMPLOYEES OF COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHT AND ADMINISTRATIVE JUSTICE

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UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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Dissertation submitted to the Department of Human Resources Management, School Of Business, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for award of Master of Business Administration Degree in Human Resource Management
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Name: Eric Egyin Duker

Signature……………………………. Date …………………………

Supervisor’s Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor: Aborampah Amoah-Mensah PhD

Signature: …………………………..Date: …………………………
ABSTRACT

This study is aimed to explore the training and development processes and post training performance of employees in public organisations. The Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice was used as a case study. In order to test two contrasting theories on training, the study set out to investigate the relationship between training/development processes and post training performance of CHRAJ. The sample consists of one hundred and seventeen employees of CHRAJ in the Greater Accra region. A cross-sectional survey design was adopted for the study. Principal component analysis and OLS regression models were used in data analysis.

Three key findings were reported. Firstly, CHRAJ has embraced the concept of staff training and development but her employees have not achieved maximum benefits from these training activities. Secondly, training need assessment is the most essential training process but the least efficient process in CHRAJ. Thirdly, aside training related issues, employee specific variables such as age and experience play major role in ensuring higher post training performance.

It is recommended that organisers of training programmes should find creative ways to receive input from the targeted trainees and incorporate the inputs into the training need assessment reports. Secondly, aside the practice of receiving written feedback from trainees after every training session CHRAJ should learn from these feedbacks. Finally, organisations should understand it is the quality of the training processes that leads to higher post training performance.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would have suffered a stillbirth without the special support and initiatives from my supervisor Amoah Mensah-Abrampah, PhD. Thank you for your unflinching support and encouragement.

My sincere thanks to Mr. Holy Kportorgbi, my mentor and friend, for his timely counsel. To Mr. Wallace and Frank D. Tetteh both of CHRAJ I say thank you for proof reading the work.

I also acknowledge the authors whose names appear in the references and from whose work I have made certain quotations.

DEDICATION

To my dependable wife, Mrs. Henritta Egyin Duker and my dear mother, Mary Buckman.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

In the midst of intense global competition, organisations seek to achieve competitive advantage through maintaining capable human capital. According to Rothwell and Benkowski (2002), the need to maintain capable human capital is met through skill differentiation and effective training and development. Schramm (2006) maintained that any attempt to arm employees for the sophisticated demands of the twenty-first century should be linked with constant training and development packages. Similar concerns were shared by Oforegbunam and Okorafor (2010). According to the authors, training is crucial to ensure that employees become more effective and efficient on their current job portfolio while development packages are needed to prepare and equip employees for future challenges in the workplace.

While all commentators underscore the need for rigorous employee training and development programmes, there has been varied opinion on the best approach to training and developing employees. Ozoya (2009) posits that the recommended training and development approach is shaped by the theoretical inclination of policy makers. The author argued that the approach of the adherents of behaviourists would differ from that of proponents of the cognitive theorists.

According to Alberto & Troutman (2003), behaviourists’ believe that outcome of training efforts depends solely on the input. Once training processes (input) are effective, the training efforts will lead to improved post-training
performance. This contrasts inclination of the cognitivists’ theory position as expoused by Hill (1963). The cognitivists’ theory underscores motivation as a trainee-specific factor that influence the outcome of training processes. Hil (1963) dispels the behaviourists’ argument that trainees will respond in same manner to a specified training stimuli.

The contrasting theoretical inclination makes studies on organisational training and development an interesting area. In Ghana, there has been a public discourse regarding the performance of state institutions. The judicial service and the Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) have been put on the spotlight. In response to criticisms of non-performance officials of these institutions largely blame the situation capacity development and staff training deficiency. Ferguson-Laing (2009) carried out a study on the status of training and development needs of the Judicial service. While this study expose some lapses in the Judicial service, no such studies was done on CHRAJ.

**Statement of the Problem**

Several studies have underscored the importance of training and development in organisations. For instance Adeniji (2002); Colombo and Stance (2008); Grip and Saverman (2010) provided empirical evidence that training and development activities correlate positively with both organisational and individual employees performance. In Ghana, Yawson’s (2009), Anane-Appiah (2011) and Sarkodie (2011) are but a few that studied on the issue.
All these studies concentrated on impact assessment of the training and development policies in organisations. These studies are premised on the assumption that there is a positive association between training and organisational/individual performance. To this end, the studies concluded that once training programmes are available, employee performance would be improved.

Few studies have challenged this traditional assumption. For instance, Okereke and Igboke (2011) found that the link between training and post training performance is largely determined by the efficiency of the training processes as well as other employee specific variables. Similar findings were reported by Ameeq and Hanif (2013) and Malaulu and Ogboabor (2013). The findings of these researchers are shaping the approach to training and development activities in their respective countries. This new dimension to the issues of training and development has not received much attention in Ghana.

From the review three gaps have been identified. These gaps are largely met by this study. Firstly, there is dearth of comprehensive study assess the quality of training processes. Secondly, trainees assessment of pre training activities has not been empirically proven. Thirdly, most of the studies on training do not have specific variables for measuring post training performance. This study has well-defined areas of assessing employees’ performance. Similarly, the methodology of this study affords trainees the opportunity to perform self-assessment on the effectiveness and efficiency of the training processes.
Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to investigate the relationship between quality of training processes and post-training performance of employees. The specific objectives are to:

1. Evaluate training processes of the CHRAJ
2. Examine the relationship between quality of training process and employee performance
3. Analyse the relationship between quality of training planning and design and employee performance
4. Examine the association between quality of training implementation & control and employee performance

Hypothesis

H1: Quality of training needs assessment significantly influences employee performance
H1a: Quality of training needs assessment significantly influences (error reduction, independence, punctuality and competence.)
H2: Quality of training planning and design significantly influences employee performance
H2a: Quality of training planning and design significantly influences (error reduction, independence, punctuality and competence.)
H3: Quality of implementation and control significantly influences employee performance
H3a: Quality of implementation and control significantly impacts (error reduction, independence, punctuality and competence.)

**Research questions**

From the research objectives, the following research questions are developed:

1. How effective are training processes at CHRAJ
2. What is the relationship between training needs and assessment and employee performance?
3. What is the relationship between planning and design and employee performance?
4. What is the association between implementation & control and employee performance?

**Significance of the Study**

The uncertain business environment requires organisations to make extra efforts at retaining the best of their human resources. Over the years, studies have clearly shown that one of the major strategies of retaining the finest of employees is to provide employees with updated skills through training and development. Consequently, CHRAJ could not be left behind in this important endeavour. This study provides relevant notes and evidence for CHRAJ to effectively manage the training and development practices of their human resource management.
Furthermore, findings from this study would enable the management of CHRAJ to introduce modern schemes for training and development, to be able to meet the challenges of change in the future. Also, the findings from the study would assist CHRAJ to help develop and maintain a quality work life, which would provide opportunities for employee job satisfaction and self-actualisation.

Finally, findings from this study would add to existing knowledge on the effect of training and development on the performance of employee in public institutions and serve as reference material for policy makers and researchers. It would also draw the attention of top management to the need for well-defined and more effective training and development schemes for employees.

Scope of the Study

The study included views of one hundred and fifty (150) “qualified” employees of CHRAJ in the Greater Accra Region. For the purposes of the study, “qualified” employees is defined as persons in employment of CHRAJ for more than a year and have participated in at least a training programme. The sampled respondents comprises Registrar, investigators, administrators and bailiffs. In line with literature, training and development activity has been categorised into three interrelated processes. These are training need assessment, training planning & design and implementation & control. All identified training activities have been classified under one of the three broad processes.
Limitations of the Study

The first limitation relates to the scope of the study. The study concentrated on staff of CHRAJ in the Greater Accra Region to the detriment of remaining nine regions. The assumption that Greater Accra Region reflects what pertains in Greater Accra region holds true for all other regions may not hold in reality.

For simplicity in measurement, the study rigidly classified training activities into three categories. In reality, certain activities relates to more than one category. Similarly, certain special training activities may not belong to the three identified training processes. The researcher uses personal discretion in classifying such activities.

Another inherent limitation is the attempt to perform quantitative assessment of training activities and relate them to employee post-training performance. Unless the respondents are capable of forming a mental picture about the quality of all training activities they have participated in, this assessment effort may not reflect reality.

Organisation of the Study

The study is organised into five chapters. Chapter one focuses on the background to the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study,
hypotheses, research questions, and the significance of the study. Chapter two reviews theoretical and empirical literature. Chapter three consists of the methodology for the study including study organisation, study design, and target population, sampling procedure, data collection, measurement of variables, and data analysis. Chapter four comprises the results and discussions which is the core aspect of the study. Chapter five would be the concluding chapter of the study, and focuses on summary of main findings, conclusions and recommendations for stakeholders.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter encompasses two main sections; the theoretical review and the empirical review. The theoretical review section contains review of definitions of training and development. Other theoretical issues include the training and development process, training need and evaluation of training and development methods. The empirical review section contains review of empirical studies on training and development and employees performance.

Definition of training and development

Cole (2002) defines training as a learning activity directed towards the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills for the purpose of an occupation or task. Cole’s definition suggests that every training programme is tailored towards achieving a specific purpose. The purpose may be to equip the employees to perform more effectively or efficiently on their current job or to prepare them for higher responsibilities. Cole (2002) thus makes no distinction between training and development. Cole’s (2002) concept of training and development is contrary to Jones, George and Hill’s (2000) argument. Jones, George and Hill (2000) posited that training primarily focuses on teaching organisational members how to perform their current jobs and helping them acquire the knowledge and skills they need to be effective performers. Development on the other focuses on
building the knowledge and skills of organisational members so that they will be prepared to take on new responsibilities and challenges.

From the arguments of Cole (2002); and Jones, George and Hill (2000) it is clear that both training and development aim at equipping the participants with new skills and knowledge. Secondly, both organisational training and development programmes are intended to impart skills that have direct relevance to the participants’ area of operation. These basic agreements between the two schools of thoughts make the need to distinguish training from development a mere academic argument. Whether training or development, skills are imparted and these skills are expected to sharpen the employees’ capacity to contribute meaningfully to their organisation. For the purposes of this understanding, this study makes no distinction between training and development.

**Theoretical Framework for organisational training**

Organisational training policy and practice is anchored on either the behaviourists theory or cognitivists’ theory. The implications of each of the theories on expected training benefits are briefly discussed next.

According to Alberto and Troutman (2003), the behaviourists’, believe that the application of appropriate stimuli will produce the needed response by the trainees. This theory assumes that the outcome of training efforts depends solely on the input. Once training activities are effective, the training efforts will lead to improved post-training performance. The behaviourists’ theory discounts mental activity on the part of trainees.
The behaviourists’ assume that all employees who undergo a specified training programme will produce same response. What is most needful, according to the behaviourists theory, is well thought out, carefully planned and skillfully implemented training package. Empirical studies who reported positive association between the effectiveness of the training processes and post-training performance largely subscribed to this theory. Adeniji (2002); Colombo and Stance (2008); Grip and Saverman (2010), Yawson’s (2009), Anane-Appiah (2011) and Sarkodie (2011) are but few studies that subscribed to behaviourists’ theoretical argument.

The cognitivists’ theory prescribes an alternative argument. Hill (1963) dispels the argument that trainees will respond in same manner to a specified training stimuli. The cognitivists’ theory underscores motivation as a trainee-specific factor that influences the outcome of training processes. Okereke and Igboke (2011); Ameeq and Hanif (2013) and Malaulu and Ogboabor (2013) lend empirical support to this view.

**Training and development process**

Traditionally, training in an organisation involves systematic approach. The training and development process includes the establishment of a training policy, training needs identification, training programs planning and design and implementation. After the implementation, there should be thorough evaluation and assessment of training activity(Cuming, 1968; Armstrong, 1995; Kenny & Reid, 1995).
Kenney et al. (1992) makes a point that organisations should have different policies for training depending on the class or level of employment or level of employees to be trained. They pointed out that training policies are necessary because it provide guidelines for those responsible for planning and implementing training. Training policies also ensure that a company’s training resources are allocated to pre-determined requirements. According to Armstrong (1996), training policies are expressions of the training philosophy of an organisation. Armstrong (1996) again advocated that a training philosophy is imperative to indicate the degree of importance the organisation attaches to training. Notwithstanding the essence and the benefits of training, policies can prove to be a difficult task for directors especially if they are doing so for the first time, and if they do not have the advice of a training officer with previous experience at the level.

The second step in managing training is to determine training needs and set objectives for these needs. According to Cole (2002), if an organisation has to justify its training expenditure, it must surely do so on the basis of organisational need. Organisations adopting a systematic approach to training and development will usually set about defining their need for training in accordance with a well organised procedure. Such a procedure will entail looking at training needs from a number of different perspectives. From the cognitivists’ viewpoint, the target participants’ need and goal is most the paramount.

The next process is the planning and designing of the training package. Kaufman (1974) submitted that after a thorough training need analysis, the policy
makers should design training activities that are fully aligned with the needs and goals of the targeted participants. At this stage, the planner must provide an appropriate mix of programmes that serve both the organisational and individual needs. With the good training design, the training activities can be implemented. As implementation progresses, there should be a comprehensive mechanism to monitor progress, evaluate the success of the programme.

All training and development programmes should be evaluated to see if set objectives have been achieved. Rae (1997) defines evaluation as the total value of the training system, training courses or programme in social, as well as financial terms. The term evaluation should also be used to monitor training and development programmes or the total function of training (Meyer, Mabaso & Lancaster, 2003). Evaluation will provide an indication of whether training has added value to the business (Goldstein and Ford, 2002). Even though there might be barriers to evaluate training such as lack of skills amongst those who are responsible for evaluating training. All definitions provided by Rae (1997), cited by Meyer et al. (2003); Opperman and Meyer (2008), focus on monetary value that can be derived from training programmes that are provided.

However, Scollaert, Schollaert and Bright (2000) note that for professional growth of the organisation and individual, evaluation requires active involvement of everyone in evaluation efforts. Scollaert et al. (2000) further explained that evaluations are done for three reasons, namely contractual obligations, achievement of objectives and professional development. Furthermore, the purpose of evaluation should facilitate management thinking
regarding the training programme, including its goals and how it will meet the goals (Opperman & Meyer, 2008).

According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), evaluation is the process of appraising something carefully to determine its value. Most companies and higher educational institutions have shown their support for staff training and development. However, few can demonstrate the value of investments that they have made (Thuckwray, 1997; Sels, 2002; Goldstein & Ford, 2002). One of the reasons could be because they do not evaluate the impact that training has on business results (Aragon-Sanchez, Barba-Aragon & Sanz-Valle, 2003). Large investments in training (input) do not necessarily mean that learning is achieved (Sels, 2002).

Goldstein and Ford (2002) identify some barriers that might affect the evaluation of training, namely top management, lack of emphasis on training evaluations, lack of skills amongst those responsible to evaluate training programmes, lack of organisational criteria to set training goals, failure to understand what should be evaluated, lack of planning and a perception that training evaluation is expensive and risky (Wickramsinghe, 2006; Lien, Hung & McLean, 2007). Thackwray (1997) states that training investment is a waste if learning is not evaluated as a result of inadequate information and if the purpose for evaluation is not made clear.

Despite these barriers, evaluation cannot be avoided. Evaluating training and development activities will give an indication that training that was provided was beneficial to the organisation and had lead to performance improvement of
those who attended the training (Meyer et al., 2003). External training providers do not conduct follow-ups and monitoring to assess if training has contributed to improved job performance, therefore, organisations are encouraged to evaluate training programmes (Wickramasinghe, 2006). Evaluation is viewed differently in higher educational institutions because not all development is related to teaching and learning of their subject matter. Therefore, evaluating academic staff once they have attended development programmes may not be possible (Thackwray, 1997).

There are several methods for evaluating training. Beardwell and Holden (2001) cited some of these methods as follows: questionnaires (feedback forms)-this is a common way of eliciting trainee responses to courses and programs; tests or examinations-these are common on formal courses, especially those that result in certification for instance a diploma in word processing skills. End-of-course tests can also be employed after non-certificate short courses to check the progress of trainees. Projects are initially seen as learning methods but they can also provide valuable information to instructor about the participants’ understanding of subject matter. Structured exercises and case studies also provide opportunities to apply learned skills and techniques under the observation of tutors and evaluators. Interviews of trainees after the course or instruction period are another technique for gathering information directly from the learners.

From the theoretical perspective, training and development is summarised as follows:
Factors that influence success of training activities

Goldstein and Ford (2002) suggested that success of organisation’s training activities is dependent on the effectiveness of the pre-implementation processes. According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), the fate of training and development activities is determined prior to the real implementation stage. This means that the formulation of the training policy, training need assessment and training design are the most crucial processes that drive the extent of success of training.

Wickramasinghe (2006) provided a further insight on the factors that determine the extent of success of training and development programmes. According to Wickramasinghe, three factors, namely aspiration match, motivation and post training and development empowerment are most crucial. According to Wickramasinghe (2006) training and development programmes would yield less result if the target groups do not believe the content of the training programme contribute meaningfully to the achievement of their personal aspirations. The result is even worse if the training programmes conflict with the employees’ aspiration.
Opperman and Meyer (2008) suggested that although the organisations have motive for all training and development activities, the employees also have their motivation for participation in the training programmes. In most cases, the training activities take place even when the motivations of the trainees are not met. When situations as this arise, participation in training programmes become compulsive in nature. The participants thus adopt a lazier faire approach to the entire training programme. Training and development programmes under this situation achieve less result.

Finally, post-training and development empowerment is another factor that influences training. Sels (2002) suggested that the entire training and development efforts are meaningless unless it is linked with a comprehensive effort to empower the trainees to bring on board the skills the acquired. In several instances, the participants are not given the opportunity to fuse what they have learnt during training. The training activities thus become a mere theoretical exercise. Commentators allude to a situation of “a new-wine in an old bottle” when the systems at the work place do not make room for initiative and creativity.

From the discussion, it is obvious that the factors that usually account for the success of training activities are largely driven by the participants. It is in this light that current studies seek to discuss issues of training from the “demand” perspective.

Employee performance
In the organisational context, performance is usually defined as the extent to which an organisational member contributes to achieving the goals of the organisation. Employees are a primary source of competitive advantage in service-oriented organizations (Luthans and Stajkovic, 1999; Pfeffer, 1994). In addition, a commitment performance approach views employees as resources or assets, and values their voice. Employee performance plays an important role for organisational performance. Employee performance is originally what an employee does or does not do. Performance of employees could include: quantity of output, quality of output, timeliness of output, presence at work, cooperativeness (Güngör, 2011).

According to Deadrick and Gardner's (1997) employee performance could be defined as the record of outcomes achieved, for each job function, during a specified period of time. If viewed in this way, performance is represented as a distribution of outcomes achieved, and performance could be measured by using a variety of parameters which describe an employee's pattern of performance over time. On the other hand, Darden and Babin (1994) said employee’s performance is a rating system used in many corporations to decide the abilities and output of an employee. Good employee performance has been linked with increased consumer perception of service quality, while poor employee performance has been linked with increased customer complaints and brand switching. To conclude, employee performance could be simply understood as the related activities expected of a worker and how well those activities were executed. Then, many business personnel directors assess the employee performance of each staff member on an
annual or quarterly basis in order to help employees identify suggested areas for improvement.

Performance measurement can be defined as the process of quantifying the efficiency and effectiveness of action. In the same way performance measures or indicators are metrics used to quantify the efficiency and or effectiveness of an action. These definitions by Neely, Gregory, & Platts (1995,) suggest performance measurement as the upper construct which is carried out with the help of performance metrics. Examples of individual measures could be manufacturing lead-time, customer satisfaction or invoice processing time. These individual measures have several different naming and categorisations depending on the author. They can be metrics, result indicators, key performance indicators (Kerzner, 2011), result indicators, performance indicators, key result indicators, key performance indicators (Parmenter, 2010) and so on.

**Effect of training on performance**

In the real world, organisational growth and development is affected by a number of factors. In light with the present research during the development of organisations, employee training plays a vital role in improving performance as well as increasing productivity. This in turn leads to placing organisations in the better positions to face competition and stay at the top. This therefore implies an existence of a significant difference between the organisations that train their employees and organisations that do not. Existing literature presents evidence of an existence of obvious effects of training and development on employee
performance. Some studies have proceeded by looking at performance in terms of employee performance in particular (Purcell, Kinnie & Hutchinson 2003; Harrison 2000) while others have extended to a general outlook of organisational performance (Guest 1997; Swart et al. 2005). In one way or another, the two are related in the sense that employee performance is a function of organisational performance since employee performance influences general organisational performance.

In relation to the above, Wright & Geroy (2001) note that employee competencies change through effective training programs. It therefore not only improves the overall performance of the employees to effectively perform their current jobs but also enhances the knowledge, skills an attitude of the workers necessary for the future job, thus contributing to superior organisational performance.

Earlier research on training and employee performance has discovered interesting findings regarding this relationship. Training has been proved to generate performance improvement, related benefits for the employee as well as for the organisation by positively influencing employee performance through the development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behavior (Appiah 2010; Harrison 2000; Guest 1997). Moreover, other Studies for example by Swart et al. (2005) elaborate on training as a means of dealing with skill deficits and performance gaps as a way of improving employee performance.

According to Swart et al., (2005), bridging the performance gap refers to implementing a relevant training intervention for the sake of developing particular
skills and abilities of the employees and enhancing employee performance. He further elaborate the concept by stating that training facilitates organisation to recognise that its workers are not performing well and thus their knowledge, skills and attitudes needs to be molded according to the firm needs. It is always so that employees possess a certain amount of knowledge related to different jobs.

However, it is important to note that this is not enough and employees need to constantly adapt to new requirements of job performance. In other words, organisations need to have continuous policies of training and retaining of employees and thus not to wait for occurrences of skill and performance gaps. According to Wright & Geroy (2001), employee competencies change through effective training programs. It does not only improves the overall performance of the employees to effectively perform the current job but also enhance the knowledge, skills and attitude of the workers necessary for the future job, thus contributing to superior organisational performance. Through training the employee competencies are developed and enable them to implement the job related work efficiently, and achieve firm objectives in a competitive manner. Further still, dissatisfaction complaints, absenteeism and turnover can be greatly reduced when employees are so well trained that can experience the direct satisfaction associated with the sense of achievement and knowledge that they are developing their inherent capabilities (Pigors & Myers 1989)

Most of the benefits derived from training are easily attained when training is planned thus goes through the processes. This means that the organisation, trainers and trainees are prepared for the training well in advance.
According to Kenney & Reid (1986) planned training is the deliberate intervention aimed at achieving the learning necessary for improved job performance, identify and define training needs, define the learning required in terms of what skills and knowledge have to be learnt and what attitudes need to be changed, define the objectives of the training, plan training programs to meet the needs and objectives by using right combination for training techniques and locations, decide who provides the training, evaluate training, and amend and extend training as necessary.

**Empirical studies on training and development**

This section review empirical studies on training and development practices among different organisations. The key empirical studies are classified into two categories. The first category comprises the studies that concluded that the positive association between training activities and post-training performance is absolute and is not significantly influenced by other variables. Studies in this category include Adeniji (2002); Colombo and Stanca (2008); Grip and Saverman (2010), Yawson’s (2009), Anane-Appiah (2011) and Sarkodie (2011). The second category posited that other factors, especially, employees’ perception mediate the relationship. Studies in this category are Yawson (2011), Okereke and Igboke (2011). Others are Ameeq and Hanif (2013), Malaulu and Ogboabor (2013).

Adenji (2002) sought to explain how human resources development programme in two libraries in Nigeria can be used to solve the problem of manpower
deficiency in the schools. The study adopts the quantitative survey method. The study population was ninety-two (92) staffs of the selected schools.

The study found a positive relationship between manpower development and employees’ performance. Although Adenji (2002) analysed data on the perception of employees’ regarding human resource development programmes, the study did not comment on its’ effect on the established relationship. In the concluding sections of Adenji’s study, the author recommended that the surest way to strengthen the relationship is improvement in the human development processes.

Colombo and Stanca’s (2008) investigated the effects of training on labor productivity using a unique nationally representative panel of Italian firms for the period 2002 to 2005. The finding was that training has a positive and significant effect on productivity. Using a variety of panel estimation techniques, the study shows that failing to account for endogeneity leads to substantially underestimating the relationship.

Another study worth mentioning is Appiah (2011). The study evaluates the training and development practices of the Ghana Police Service. The study adopted the survey method and the purposive sampling technique was adopted for this study. A sample of 200 staff comprising twenty five unit heads and one hundred and seventy five (175) junior officers of the targeted Population (250) responded to administered questionnaire. The study sought to understand the objectives of training and development activities and to assess the extent to which these objectives are achieved.
The study reported that training programmes and activities are centralised. The target trainees do not make inputs into the programmes. The study also revealed that on-the-job training and workshops are the two major modes of training available to personnel. Majority of the participants admitted that monetary benefits are major form of motivation for participating in the training programmes. Indeed the expression of the participants suggested that the training activities do not readily meet the sophistications at the field. The study also reveals that post-training evaluation and review are almost non-existent.

Appiah’s (2011) studies have few limitations. In the first place, the study fails to explain the factors that influence the choice of participants for training programmes. Secondly the study did not adequately cover factors that drive employees desire to participate in training and development programmes. Thirdly, the study failed to evaluate the extent to which training and development activities affect the post-training performance of the participants. Finally, the measurement method did not provide sufficient ground for concluding the effectiveness of training and development activities. Indeed, the quantitative survey method adopted by Appiah (2011) did not reflect in the conclusions. The study, however provides basis for future studies.

The second category of studies for review include Yawson (2011), Okereke and Igboke (2011). Others are Ameeq and Hanif (2013), Malaulu and Ogboabor. It is worth noting that all these studies underscored the importance of trainees’ perception in ensuring that training efforts leads to enhance post training performance.
Malaulu and Ogboabor (2013) investigated the effects of training and manpower development on employees’ productivity and organizational performance in Nigeria, using First Bank of Nigeria Plc as a case study. The study applied structured questionnaires to a sample size of 75 drawn by simple random sampling. The data generated was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The findings of the study show that majority (70%) of the respondents agreed that training and manpower development has enhanced their efficiency and job productivity. Secondly the study found that the positive association is largely driven by employees’ positive perception regarding training and development.

These findings were consistent with findings of Okereke and Igboke (2011); and Ameeq and Hanif (2013). For instance Okereke and Igboke (2011) investigated civil servants in Nigeria’s perception about training and development. They found out that employees’ that have positive perception of training are more likely to improve their post-training performance than those that have negative perception. Ameeq and Hanif (2013) also found a similar result but also indicated factors that drive employees to take training and development activities serious.

Conceptual framework
From both the theoretical and empirical perspectives, two schools of thoughts have been identified. The first school of thought follows the prescription of the behaviorists’ theory. The proponents argue that once the training processes are effective, the training efforts will lead to improved post-training performance. This holdings were expressed in empirical studies of Adeniji (2002); Colombo and Stance (2008); Grip and Saverman (2010), Yawson’s (2009), Anane-Appiah (2011) and Sarkodie (2011).

The second school of thought follows the principles espoused in the cognitivists’ theory. They argue that training processes could be effective but may not lead to improved post-training performance. They cited employees perception as the mediating factor that ensure a positive association between training activities and post-training erformance. Okereke and Igboke (2011); Ameeq and Hanif (2013) and Malaulu and Ogboabor (2013) lend empirical support to this view. Based on the two theories, the following conceptual framework has been developed

Training and Development Processes
Figure 2: Conceptual framework

Source: Authors construct

The main thrust is to ascertain quality of the training activities and relate them to employee post-training performance. The Table 1 provides operational definition the variables.

Table 1: Operational definition of variables
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Training need assessment activity | • Level of trainee inclusion in training need assessment activities  
• Extent to which trainees are given feedback on TNA activities  
• Level of management’s commitment to TNA processes |
| Training planning and design Activities | • Level of preparedness exhibited by organisers of training programmes  
• Level of preparedness exhibited by trainees at training programmes  
• Level of availability and adequacy of training facilities  
• Adequacy of plans to avoid major changes during training sessions |
| Implementation and control Activities | • Trainees assessment of facilitators' exhibited knowledge  
• Appropriateness of presentation methods  
• Appropriateness of training environment  
• Opportunity to assess the effectiveness of the training programme |

With this framework, the two theories will be tested. In the analysis, the relationship between training and employees’ post-training performance is tested.
The criteria for measuring each of the variables; training activities, employees post training performance are detailed in chapter three.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methods and approaches used to conduct the research. Key areas are research design, sampling procedure, target population. Other areas are data collection instrument, data analysis procedure.

Study design

This research sought to have a snapshot view of employees’ as far as issues of organisational training are concern. A cross-sectional survey design is most appropriate for the study. The cross-sectional survey design was used because the study takes a snap shot view of the target population and reports things the way they are at a given point in time. Also, cross-sectional survey was used because it specifies the nature of a given phenomena at a given point in time and the researcher does not manipulate variables, and data are collected under natural settings to answer the research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2000).

Furthermore, cross-sectional survey is a research strategy where one collects data from all or part of a population to assess the relative incidence, distribution and interrelations of naturally occurring variables (Judd & Kidder, 1991). Cross sectional studies are comparatively quicker and cheaper as there is no follow up and fewer resources are required to run the study. However, it has a
problem with differentiating cause and effect from simple association and do not
usually provide an explanation for their findings (Mann, 2003).

Study organisation

National and sub-national human rights commissions have been
established in a number of countries for the promotion and protection of their
citizens' human rights, and most commissions are public bodies but with some
degree of independence from the state. Pursuant to the provisions of the 1992
constitution, parliament enacted the Commission on Human Rights and
Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) on 6th July 1993. According to the CHRAJ Act
(Act 456), the Commission shall consist of a Commissioner for Human Rights
and Administrative Justice who is the Chair of the Commission and two Deputy
Commissioners for Human Rights and Administrative Justice. The Commission
has four departments, each headed by a director; Legal/Investigations, Public
Education, Anti-Corruption, Administration and Finance. Units including registry,
public relations, monitoring and evaluation, research, audit, accounts, human
resources and ICT fall under these departments.

In pursuance of the provisions of Act 456, the Commission has branches
in all the ten regional capitals and in 100 out of the 138 district capitals of the
country. Lawyers head the regional offices whilst university graduates trained to
handle minor complaints man the district branches. The district offices mostly
undertake public education and thus, reach out to a wider section of the
population at the local and community level. CHRAJ’s current staff strength is 770 (CHRAJ, 2010).

The Ghana Commission represents a model of national institution that has fused in different institutional mandates into one-office operating as a human rights institution, ombudsman, and an anti-corruption agency. Under Act 456, the CHRAJ is empowered to investigate complaints of violations of fundamental rights and freedoms, injustice, corruption, abuse of power, and unfair treatment of any person by a public officer in the exercise of their official duties. The commission’s mandate also includes educating the public on issues of human rights and related issues.

For effective delivery of their mandate, CHRAJ requires highly knowledgeable workforce. Aside the workforce should be capable of dealing with persons with diverse socio-cultural background and educational levels. In recognition of the challenge, the commission engages in several training and developing activities. It is expected that these training and development activities equip the workforce for the challenge. The study thus seeks to evaluate among other things how these training activities reflect in the job performance of the workforce.

**Population of the study**

The target population comprises all employees of CHRAJ in the Greater Accra region. The Greater Accra region is selected for the study because all its district offices are located on the same premises with the regional head office.
Unlike all the other regions, the districts in greater Accra region have the full complement of the relevant departments needed for the study. The target population has eight district offices and a regional office. The total workforce of the region is about 184 (CHRAJ, 2013). This study requires input of only employees who participated in at least a CHRAJ-sponsored training programme. Using this criteria, the effective population is reduced to one hundred and fifty (150) employees.

**Census Method**

The study uses census technique. This technique is applicable if there are compelling reasons to include all members of the effective target population for the study (Leedy and Ormond, 2010). The census technique, according to Leedy and Ormond (2010), is suitable when the target entity is so small that sampling would not produce a representative result. All the 150 employees are thus qualified to be included in the study sample. The effective target population comprises 8 district directors, 8 investigators and 134 junior employees.

**Data collection method**

Primary data is used for the study. The choice of primary data over secondary data is informed by two basic reasons. Primary data is much able to capture the phenomenon to be studied at its “original form” (Zigmund, 1997). Data collection method is the survey method, and questionnaires are used as a tool for data collection. Questionnaires are chosen over interview schedule because of
the following reasons. Firstly, the data required for the study necessitate that the respondent refers to documents and project files. This requires time and as such the respondent should be allowed ample time to respond to the questionnaires. Secondly, in using interview schedule, the presence of the researcher is required. The mere presence of the researcher could impair the objectivity of the responses (Leedy and Ormond 2010).

The questionnaire is structured into three sections (Appendix 1). The first section collects background information about the respondents. Relevant background information solicited includes respondents’ sex, age, education and staff details. Other background information includes work experience and staff’s level of participation in training/development activities.

The second section deals with the employees’ assessment of the training processes. The training processes were classified into three categories. These are training need assessment; training planning and design; and implementation and control. Four indicators were used to assess the quality of the training need assessment process. Five indicators each were used for the remaining two processes. A five point likert scale is used, thus the maximum score for each indicator is 5 while the minimum score is 1.

The last section of the questionnaire gives the respondent an opportunity to perform self-assessment on their post training performance. Four performance indicators were adopted. The maximum total performance score is thus 20 and the minimum is 4.
A pre-test of the questionnaires were done using the central regional office of CHRAJ in Cape Coast. The pre-test entity is suitable for the study because it represents all the qualities of the main target population. The officers were asked to respond to the preliminary questionnaires and proffer recommendation for possible revision. The various recommendation are incorporated into the final questionnaire.

**Measurement of Variables**

One feature that differentiates quantitative study from a qualitative one is that the former attempts to precisely measure the phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2009). Measurement is, thus, keen for this study. Critical variables measured are effectiveness of the training and development process and the post-training performance of the employees.

The study adopted a five-point likert scale in measuring the issues. Each of these indicators was scored on a scale of one (1) to five (5). A score of one (1) represents the lowest score while a score of five (5) represents the highest score.

**Data Preparation and analysis**

The data should be analysed in a way that ensures the objectives are achieved. The first procedure thus involves screening and cleaning of the questionnaires. This procedure is aimed at ensuring internal validity of the data collected and probable elimination of ill-answered questionnaires. Next is the
coding of the data to enable further processing. The data is thus ready for the actual processing, after the coding.

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (version 16.0) is used for the analysis. The template is developed and particulars of each questionnaire are duly inputted. Three major analysis tools are adopted. Frequency distribution tables and charts were used to explain descriptive results. The factor analysis model (a data reduction technique) using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to determine the main components or factors that explained the training process. Regression analysis (OLS) was adopted for establishing and testing relationships.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the study. The results are examined in line with the three main specific objectives as well as the conceptual framework underpinning the study. Issues discussed include socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, training and development processes, and influence of training and development on employee performance.

Socio-demographic variables

As a champion of human right, the commission is expected to show leadership all aspect of its activities including staffing gender balance, fairness in staff promotion systems and a good blend of ageing workforce. Table 2 presents the gender mix of the respondents.
Table 2: Sex of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA between groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviation from linearity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

In most studies, female representation has been on the lower side. This stems from the fact that in most gender-neutral formal organisations, male staff have been in the majority. In Table 2 although majority of the respondents are males, female representation is almost at parity. Observably, males are dominant but statistically, there is no significant difference in the gender orientation of respondents. The *p*-value of 0.000 for test of difference between the two groups means that is no significant differences between the respondents with respect to their gender.

The finding of this study, with respect to gender representation, contradicts that of Appiah (2011) on the police service of Ghana. Appiah’s study showed vast dominance of males. It is important to put in perspective that the job description of the police service is arguably masculine in nature. This cannot be said of CHRAJ. Except for the position of bailiffs, all other positions can be described as gender-neutral. The results in Table 1 are thus not unusual.
It is imperative to establish the strength of the seemingly balance gender in CHRAJ’s staff. The tendency to achieve high level of balance at the lower levels but a weak representation in the middle and top level management is real in most organisations. In such situations, the fair representation of the gender groups does not necessarily mean equal empowerment.

To check this phenomenon, Table 2 differentiates the staff categories between males and females. The four broad staff categories in CHRAJ are the registrars, administrators, investigators and bailiffs. Except for the bailiffs, each of the categories has three ranks. The “principal” rank represents highest rank, followed by the “senior” rank. The lowest rank are the ranks that comes with no title qualifications (for example, registrar). The bailiff positions are the lowliest ranks. Notwithstanding, the bailiff 2 position is higher than the bailiff 1 position.

Figure 3 presents the staff statistics for the categories of the Commission.

![Staff categories](source: Fieldwork (2014))
Thirty one out of the 117 respondents fall within the principal rank category. This represents 26% of the entire study population. Only 7 out of the 31 were principal investigators. There were 11 principal registrars and 13 principal administrators. The composition of the principal rank category is explained by the fact that the investigative machinery is most likely manned by legal professionals. Of the 31 principals, 17 (representing 55%) are females while the remaining 14 (representing 45) are males. This finding contrast the higher male representation found in Table 2. This finding is an indication that females are well represented and well placed to deliver the mandate of the Commission.

Following the principal rank category is the senior ranks. In this category are the senior investigators, senior administrators and the senior registrars. From Figure 3, the senior staff category also represent 26% of the entire study respondents. This is at par with the principal staff categories. It is thus suggestive that the commission has sufficient number of current staff to groomed to the principal ranks. There are 16 males and 14 females in this category. The proportion of males to females in this category follows the general gender representation in Table 2. The lower level of staff have equal gender representations.

Another observation from Figure 3 relates to the composition of the baillifs. All the twelve baillifs captured by the study are males. It is extremely gender bias in favour of the males. It should be placed in context that the job description of a baillif is masculine in nature. Indeed female baillifs may
ordinarily find this job very challenging. Judging from the gender neutral perspective, females represent 53% of the study population as against 47% males.

It is important to appreciate the age dynamics of the study sample. This is because, studies have established relationship between age of staff and training and development. Table 3 presents the statistics for the age variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex of respondent</th>
<th>Mean Age</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Mean no. of years in employment</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36.50</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>4.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>43.03</td>
<td>1.508</td>
<td>14.89</td>
<td>5.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>39.91</td>
<td>0.951</td>
<td>13.25</td>
<td>5.277</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

From Table 3, the minimum age of the sampled respondents is 27, the maximum age is 55 and the average age is 40 years. The standard deviation, which shows the extent to which the mean age represents the average age of the sample, is below unity. It implies that majority of the respondents are in their early 40s or late 30s. Considering that in Ghana the maximum youth age is pegged at 35, the workforce of CHRAJ is best described as “ageing workforce”. Although the average age of both sexes are above the 35 years youth benchmark, male respondents are almost in their mid 40s.
It is important for management to consider the ageing dynamics of the commission so as to avoid eminent replacement of experienced but aged workforce with less experience ones. Aside the ageing dynamics, Table 3 provides that employees have rich work experience. The average number of years as presented in Table 3 is 13 years, with female groups recording a point above the average. It is important to place in context that CHRAJ was established two decades ago. The work experience statistics in Table 3 thus means that most of the employees have been with the institution since inception while others have grown with the institution for more than 10 years. It implies many of the employees can serve as an institutional memory.

While admiring the age dynamics and the rich experience of the employees, it is necessary to appreciate the challenges it pose to culture change. The tendency to resist change is said to be higher among aged employees than younger workforce. Similarly it may be more challenging to change negative corporate culture among employees who consider themselves as “institutional memory” than among new and vibrant workforce. It is recommended that CHRAJ adopt measures that would blend experience with youthfulness.

**General overview of training activities in CHRAJ**

During data collection, few qualitative information regarding training were noted. Firstly, the employees do not find any difference between training and development. Infact, staff agree with Jones, George and Hill (2000) assertion that differentiating between training and development is a mere non consequential
academic exercise. Secondly, employees identified two broad categories of training; specific skill development training and general routine trainings. The specific skill development trainings are non-routine and usually held for specific category of staff. Table 4 provides a quantitative dimension regarding frequency of training activities.

**Table 4: Frequency of training activities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bi-annually</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annually</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Majority of respondents posited that they participate in training activities at least once a year. A sizeable number posited that they participated twice a year. Minority (5.1%) indicated they participate in quarterly training programmes. The divergence in opinion regarding frequency of training can be attributed to difference in training schedules among the varied categories of staff. The statistics as presented in Table 4 is an indication that the commission does believes in staff training. The effectiveness and the effect of the training activities are discussed later in this report.
Descriptive analysis of Effectiveness of Training Processes

The first objective of the study was to examine the effectiveness of training processes of CHRAJ. This is first done using descriptive statistics and then with PCA results.

The first area of assessment is the training need assessment (TNA) process. On a likert scale of 1 to 5, the respondents scored these four thematic areas. The maximum score for TNA is 20 and the minimum is 4. Table 5 provides details and consolidated scores for the process.

Table 5: Effectiveness of training need assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of staff involvement in training need assessment activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent to which trainees inputs are incorporated into need assessment reports</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent to which trainees are given feedback on TNA activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of management’s commitment to TNA processes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall score for TNA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>1.677</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork(2014)
TNAs are considered as the foundation of every training programme. It is said that the success or otherwise of a training activity depends on the effectiveness of the TNA. As discussed in chapter two, the results of TNA informs the planning, design, implementation and control processes. It is thus worrying to discover that for each of the four thematic score points, at least a respondent scores the minimum score of 1. In sharp contrast, only one of the thematic areas recorded at least a respondent scoring the maximum point of 5. Even before discussing the average scores, it is important to note that all the respondents agree that there is more room for improvement regarding TNA activities.

From the cognitivist theoretical perspective, the entire TNA is premised on staff involvement. Ironically, this is the worst performing area for CHRAJ. The mean score (out of 5) is 1.21. Appiah (2011) found similar results for the Ghana Police Service. It can be deduced from Table 4 that “order from above, obey before you complain” culture of the police service is applicable to CHRAJ. Indeed this culture means organisers of training programmes could merely observe and formulate training programmes that should be accepted by the trainees. With the low level of staff involvement in TNAs, it is less surprising to find that the respondents perceive that inputs made during so-called TNA sessions are not incorporated into TNA reports. It is an indicative that employees perceive interactions regarding their training needs as non consequential exercises.

The respondents scored 2.50 and 2.51 respectively for level of feedback on TNAs and management’s show of commitment to TNA processes. Relative to
the scores for the previous two indicators, these scores are commendable. Of course it is an average performance. Care must however be taken in interpreting these scores. It could be that management tries to use subtle communication tools to convince employees that their inputs are well noted and management is committed towards ensuring effective TNA. Management should however take a cue from the results in Table 5 that employees are aware their inputs are not largely considered in drawing up final need assessment reports. Finally, it is important to reiterate that an overall score of 7.93 out of 25 is far below expectation. The implications of the low scores on employees’ post training performance is discussed later in this report.

The second training process evaluated is the training planning and design (TPD) process. This process is serves as an intermediary between TNA and implementation and control. Unlike TNA assessment, the effectiveness or otherwise of TPD process only manifest during the implementation stage. Five areas have been identified as indicators. These are level of preparedness exhibited by organisers, level of trainees preparedness and availability of resources for the training. Other indicators are trainees’ assessment of the suitability of the design and tendency for major interruptions during trainings. On a likert scale of 1 to 5, the respondents scored these five thematic areas. The maximum score for TPD is thus 25 and the minimum is 5. Table 6 provides details and consolidated scores for the process.
### Table 6: Training planning and design process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of preparedness exhibited by organisers of training programmes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of preparedness exhibited by trainees at training programmes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of availability and adequacy of training facilities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainees assessment of suitability of training designs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of plans to avoid major changes during training sessions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall score for TPD</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18.16</td>
<td>4.815</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork(2014)

Unlike the results of TNA, the results on TPD in Table 6 provides a better results. At least one respondent scored the maximum score of 5 for all the five indicators. The means score for all the indicators is above 3 (out of 5). The lowest average score of 3.22 in Table 6 is far above the maximum score of 2.51 recorded in Table 5. A notable result from Table 6 is the high score (4.03 out of 5) for the
fifth indicator. It is indicative that most of the respondents agree interruptions and major changes in training activities do not occur regularly. It could either be that the organisers achieve much precision in their training plans or that the operations of the Commission occur in a relatively stable environment.

Results in Table 6 indicates that respondents have varied opinion regarding the level of preparedness exhibited by the organisers of training programmes. The standard deviation of 3.8 implies that the mean score is driven by few extreme high scores. A similar result was found for the trainees assessment of level of resource availability.

On the overall scale, the respondents perceive that the TPDs are 72.64% effective. This is far above the 39.65% feat recorded for TNA. While it is possible to downplay the assessment of TPD by trainees, it is important to note that their perception drive their commitment to the training programme.

The third training process evaluated is training implementation and control (IC). It is the action stage of the entire training process. From the trainees perspective, effectiveness of this process is assessed using five indices. These are level of knowledge exhibited by the facilitators, level of knowledge transfer, and appropriateness of presentation methods. Other indicators are appropriateness of training environment and availability of opportunity for trainees to assess the effectiveness of the training programme. A five point likert scale is used for the analysis. The maximum score for IC is thus 25 and the minimum is 5. Table 7 provides details and consolidated scores for the process.
Table 7: Training implementation and control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trainees assessment of facilitators' level of knowledge exhibited</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent to which trainees understood concepts imparted at trainings</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness of presentation methods</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness of training environment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to assess the effectiveness of the training programme</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall score for IC</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>3.435</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

The results from Table 7 indicates good results for training implementation and control stage. At least one respondent scored the maximum points for each of the five indicators. The standard deviation for all, except one indicator is below unity. This is an indicator that the mean score represents the true average score the group. Trainees are 71.4% convinced that the implementation and control stage meets their expectation.

Trainees largely agree that they are given the opportunity to assess the effectiveness of training programmes. Qualitative information from the trainees
points to the practice where trainees are given questionnaires to fill after every training programmes. These questionnaires are meant to receive feedback and to inform future training programmes. While commending this practice, it is important to carry further investigation to assess if these feedback inform subsequent trainings.

Another sensitive area is the trainees assessment of facilitators’ level of knowledge. The facilitator should not only be knowledgeable but be seen as such. The trainees’ rating of facilitators’ knowledge is directly proportional to the level of confidence they have in the training message. While commending the 66.2% (3.31) recorded by the respondents, it is worth mentioning that more need to be done to improve this rating. Another area that needs improvement is the training methods used during training programmes.

In summary, the descriptive statistics suggests majority (83%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that training need assessment is effective. A sizeable number (28%) strongly believed the training planning and design stage is entirely ineffective. Similarly, Little over fifth of respondents while (21%) have absolute no confidence in the implementation and control stage.
Figure 4: Effectiveness of training processes

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This findings confirm the general perception that management of CHRAJ adopts a “take-or leave” policy in matters involving training. The entire training package is plan, designed, packaged and communicated to staff. To the extent that aspirations and motivation of staff are not aligned to management’s training philosophy, employees will pass a vote of no confidence in the training packages.

PCA of Training processes

After the assessment of respondents’ reactions to individual variables on the training and development process using basic descriptive statistics, further analysis was undertaken to examine the measurement factor structure of the
process. This analysis was carried out using Factor Analysis (FA), specifically, Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Prior to employing PCA, suitability of the data for the proposed analysis was checked using the two most statistical recommended measures, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The KMO value of 0.84 was deemed significant for a good factor analysis. A Bartlett’s test of sphericity (130.43) was found to be significant at p = 0.000, which further reinforced the suitability of the data for PCA (Table 3). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), and Pallant (2005) suggest a minimum KMO index of 0.60 for a good factor analysis.

Fourteen (14) variables were subsequently subjected to PCA, using the varimax rotation and three components based on eigenvalues above one (1) were extracted. All the underlying variables loaded up to the recommended thresholds of 0.50 and above (Bryne, 2010). Given that the Cronbach alpha values were ≥0.70, it suggests that the variables reliably measure their underlying factors. The three components (training needs and assessment, training planning and design and implementation and control) extracted explained about 65.4% of the total variance in the training and development process of CHRAJ. The three- pronged training steps established reinforce Armstrong (1995) Kenny and Reid (1995) argument that an affective training process must begin with identification of training needs, which is employee skills gaps, and end with thorough evaluation and assessment of training activities.
Table 8: PCA of the Training processes of CHRAJ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Eigen value</th>
<th>% of variance explained</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Training need assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extent to which trainees’ inputs are incorporated into needs assessment report</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level of involvement in training needs assessment activities</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Training planning and design</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adequacy of plans to avoid major changes during training sessions</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level of availability and adequacy of training facilities</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 (Cont’d)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Eigen value</th>
<th>% of variance explained</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trainees assessment of suitability of training designs</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of preparedness exhibited by organizers</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III Implementation and control</td>
<td>Extent to which trainees understand concepts</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of appropriateness of training environment</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainees assessment of facilitators level of knowledge exhibited</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance explained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*KMO = 0.84; Bartletts Test of Sphericity (X²) = 130.43; P = 0.000

*All items were measured by a five-point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

Source: Fieldwork, 2014
The first, but indispensable step in every training process is needs assessment, labelled as ‘Factor I’. It consisted of such issues as extent to which trainees’ inputs are incorporated into needs assessment report and level of involvement in training needs assessment activities. With an eigenvalue of 5.16, ‘needs assessment’ accounted for 36.4% of the total variance explained in training process. Training needs assessment helps employers in identifying the kind of knowledge, skills and abilities that their employees lack, hence forming the bases for the setting training objectives. In another dimension, the emergence of needs assessment as the first factor is consistent with Cole (2002) assertion that identification of trainees needs helps put training in the right perspective towards meeting participants’ expectations. This is especially central for employees of CHRAJ where every portfolio have some special requirements needed to achieve organisational goals.

The next process in the planning process is the planning and designing of the training package. In conducting an effective training for employees, it is important to translate the needs identified into specific targets and activities and view them in the light of the resources needed to undertake the training (Kaufman, 1974). Therefore, Factor two, which measured training planning and design addressed issues such as adequacy of plans to avoid major changes during training sessions, level of availability and adequacy of training facilities among others. The factor explained 14.7% of the total variance in the training process.

Finally, it is imperative that training and development programmes be evaluated to see if set objectives have been achieved (Rae, 1997). In that regard,
implementation and control was the last factor revealed by the PCA analysis. It explained 14.3% of the total variance of the training process. According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), training evaluation must take into consideration a careful appraisal of the extent to which trainees understands training concepts, the training environment and the delivery of trainers.

Post training performance

Performance is one variable that has been measured using a wide range of indicators: productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, quality and profitability. However, for this study four key performance indicators (KPI) were adopted in attempt to identify respondents post training performance as shown on Table 6. The results on Table 6 show that about 44% of the respondents generally agreed that training and development leads to improvement in employee performance. Accordingly, respondents’ were of the belief that training helps to reduce the rate of error at workplace (63%).
Mistakes in the production process are mostly attributed to skills deficiencies. Therefore, training is seen as a tool for correcting such shortfalls as Harrison (2000) posits that training and development is one surest way for correcting errors in employee performance. In related observation, respondents indicated that training enhances their independence (57%). This observation supports Wright and Geroy (2001) finding that employee independence is ensured through effective training programs.

Nevertheless, the respondents remained neutral that training helps trainees to be punctual (63%). Punctuality to work denotes more of an attitudinal or value-based behaviour as opined by the behaviourist theory. If this opinion is anything to go by, it can argued that training (which may be perceived as a reward) is not the best means to correcting lateness to work, rather punishment.

Figure 5: Post training performance assessment

![Graph showing post training performance assessment](chart.png)
Training processes and post training performance

Having described the status of the training processes independently, it is now ripe to discuss the effect of the processes on employee’s performance. The relationship study is at two levels; association relationship and the causal relationship. The association relationship is established using the correlation matrices in Table 9, while subsequent regression tables will establish the causal relationships. In all cases the test of relationship are compared with a benchmark alpha of 0.05. In other words, the tests are carried within a 95% confidence level.

Table 9: Correlation between training processes and employee performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training processes</th>
<th>Employee performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training need assessment</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training planning and design</td>
<td>.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.021)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation and control</td>
<td>.534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.002)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*the statistics in parenthesis are the p-values*

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

All the three training processes recorded positive and significant positive association with employee performance. Training need assessment however shows the strongest association with performance. Assuming the association
results reflect in their respective causal relationships, training need assessment is then the most influential process. Considering the strength of the correlation matrices and the p values, it is important to state that the quality of the training processes determines the level of post training performance of staff. Correlation results only show association between variables. The results do not tell whether there is a causal relationship between the variables. To advance the argument further, this study runs a regression. It is of importance to note that even if quality of training processes affect employees’ performance, they may not be the only determinant. There are other determinants of firm performance. In light of this fact, employees’ age, and work experience are used alongside tax planning savings to establish the causal relationship.

Before proceeding with the regression models, there is the need to test for multicollinearity among the regressors. This test is necessary so as to avoid the situation of using independent variables that have high correlations between each other. If some of the regressors are highly correlated, they cannot all be included in the model at the same time. For the purpose of this study, the benchmark correlation matrix is 0.50. Correlation matrix of 0.50 and above is considered as high and are indicative of the presence of multicollinearity. Table 10 presents the correlation matrix for all the variables to be used in the regression analysis.
Table 10: Test of Multicollinearity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TNA</th>
<th>TPD</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>EXPERIENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TNA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPD</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCE</td>
<td>-.172</td>
<td>.471</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

It is evident from Table 10 that all the five explanatory variables recorded correlation matrixes below the 0.50 benchmark. This is suggestive that risk of distortion in regression results due to multicollinearity is not applicable. This implies the explanatory variables can simultaneously be used in a regression model.

Having tested the suitability of the explanatory variables, I can proceed with the regression analysis. As explained in chapter three, OLS regression model is adopted. The five explanatory variables are as presented in Table 10. The dependent variable is the post training performance of staff. Table 11 presents the results of relationships as well as the model summary.
Table 11: OLS Regression with employee performance as dependent variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized</th>
<th>Standardized</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coefficients</td>
<td>Coefficients</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant)</td>
<td>2.158</td>
<td>1.579</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TNA</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.566</td>
<td>1.860</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPD</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.391</td>
<td>1.720</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.152</td>
<td>.995</td>
<td>.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-.129</td>
<td>.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience with CHRAJ</td>
<td>-.101</td>
<td>-.271</td>
<td>-1.932</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHRAJ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>.534</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>.285</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R square</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std Error of the estimate</td>
<td>1.704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fieldwork(2014)

Before delving into merits of relationships presented in Table 11, it is pertinent to discuss the model summary. The R square for the model is 0.285. this means that the explanatory variables explain only 28.5% of the changes in the dependent variable. In other words, 71.5% of the changes in employees’ post training performance could not be explained by effectiveness of training processes
and employee specific variables. While admitting the model could not be adequately be relied on for the purposes of prediction, it is adequate for the purposes of testing and establishing relationships. Again, performance is a dynamic variable, thus an R square of 28.5% for a model that seeks to explain it is relatively a strong model.

From Table 11, all except one variables are significant (sig<0.05). This implies that except for age, all the dependent variables have significant influence on employees’ post training performance. The degree of influence however varies among the variables. The standardised beta shows that the level of influence in descending order is training need assessment, planning and design, implementation and control, work experience and age. This finding largely confirms the correlation results in Table 9. To reap the benefits of training, CHRAJ must put in place a robust system of assessing training need of staff. The results of the assessment should be the prime basis for planning and designing the training package. Similarly, the organisation must adopt trainee oriented implementation and control models.

Two of the explanatory variables, age and work experience, show inverse relationship with employees’ performance. It can be explained that older employees relatively slower in adopting new skills imparted during training sessions. This phenomenon tendency could reflect in relatively lower rate of increase in their post training performance. It is however, difficult to explain why experience workers tend to have lower post training performance. It can be speculated that experience workers could be complecent during training sessions.
Complecency could cause the experience workers not to acquire and apply new and efficient means of executing tasks. Similarly, tendency to question new ways of executing task and resistance to change could be higher among experience workers than new and young workforce.

From table 11, the relationship between employee post training performance and the explanatory variables could be expressed mathematically as follows:

$$\text{Perf} = C + 0.566\text{TNA} + 0.391\text{TPD} + 0.152\text{IC} - 0.17\text{AGE} - 0.271\text{EXP} + e$$

This relationship can be related to the three hypotheses stated in Chapter 1.. The hypotheses are restated as follows:

H1: Quality of training needs assessment significantly influences employee performance

H1a: Quality of training needs assessment significantly influences (error reduction, independence, punctuality and competence.)

H2: Quality of training planning and design significantly influences employee performance

H2a: Quality of training planning and design significantly influences (error reduction, independence, punctuality and competence.)

H3: Quality of implementation and control significantly influences employee performance

Taken independently, all the three dependent variables (quality of training processes) are positively related to post training performance. The existence of
some level of multicolinearity (although not significant) suggests that quality of one training process may have some little influence on other processes.

In conclusion, it is the efficiency and effectiveness of the training processes that lead to higher post training performance. The most important factor that influence employees post training performance is the training need assessment process.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides summary of results of the relationship between training processes and employees’ post training performance. The implications of the findings are also outlined in the conclusions. The final sections comprise recommendations to relevant stakeholders on the issue and direction for further studies.

Summary of findings

The first study objective was to evaluate effectiveness of training processes CHRAJ. The study reveals that the organisation embraces the concept that training and development is a panacea for enhanced employee performance. Employees however, painted a picture that training processes are not effective. For instance, the findings indicate that the training need assessment process is not given sufficient attention. Similar conclusions were arrived for the other two processes.

The second study objective was to assess the relationship between effectiveness of training need assessment and employee performance. From both correlation and regression view points, effective training need relates into high
employee performance. In other words, when a firm has a robust system for assessing the training need of their employees, their performance is enhanced.

The third study objective was to analyse the relationship between quality of training planning and design and employee performance. The results indicate a positive relationship. The findings reveals that the strenght of the relationship is enhanced when management take steps to avoid major interuptions in training programmes.

The fourth objective was to examine the association between quality of training implementation & control (I&C) and employee performance. Similar to the other training proesses, effective I&C is positively associated with firm performance. Finding however reveal that effective I&C will not lead to higher performance if the other processes are not effective.

Other key findings are are that respondents believe they achieve 66.5% improvement in their performance after participating in training and development activities. Some employees however believe the training models they participate in does not help build positive work attitude. The results indicate that mere availability of training programsdoes not guarantee increase higher employee performance. The efficiency of the training processes is very critical in harnessing the benefit of training efforts.

In summary, relationship findings suggest that efficiency of training processes serves as a bridge between training efforts and post training performance of staff. The findings expose the deficiency is traditional school of thought that training activities lead to higher employee performance. Without an
effective and efficient training process, training benefits would be hard to achieve. The study also found that post training performance of CHRAJ can improve if steps are taken to improve the efficiency of their training need assessment systems.

Conclusions

Although CHRAJ has embraced the concept of staff training and development, her employees have not achieved maximum benefits from these training activities. One major area that needs to improve is the training need assessment process. Staff inputs are not properly harnessed and as a consequence, staff commitment towards training activities falls below expectation. The study shows that training need assessment is the most essential but least prioritised process at CHRAJ. The organisation could achieve more from training if it can convince staff to play active role in determining training packages.

CHRAJ has performed well in the the three training processes. Staff of the institution largely confirm needs assessmentment, training planning and design; and implementation and control processes meet their expectation. While commending the practice of soliciting trainee feedback after training sessions, there is however a popular suggestions that the organisation is not taking advantage of this exercise to improve subsequent training activities. The study also reveal that facilitators should not only be knowlegeable but must appear prepared.

The study also concludes that training significantly influences employee performance. This implies that to achieve good performance in CHRAJ, employee
training must be made the hallmark. More specifically, training needs assessment, planning and design and implementation and control all impact employee performance positively.

**Recommendations**

Based on the conclusions, the following recommendations are made:

1. The human resource management of CHRAJ should ensure that in a bid to train the employees of the organisation the three main training process encompassing needs assessment, planning and design and implementation and control be given serious cognisance.

2. The study has also shown that training influences employee performance (reduction of errors, independence, punctuality, and competencies), hence strong efforts should be made at leveraging these benefits. Accordingly, to ensure continuous improvement in productivity, it is recommended that training and development should be regularly organised for staff of CHRAJ.

3. Aside skill development training packages, CHRAJ must also prioritise attitude development training packages. This will ensure a good blend of technical competence and productive work attitude.
Directions for further research

The findings of this study triggers the need for further studies in the following areas:

1. A study to ascertain other factors that influence post training performance of employees.

2. A multi institutional study to determine the relationship between training processes and employee post training performance can be conducted so as to allow comparisons of the results.

3. Employees background characteristics including sex, marital status, level of education among others are believed to impact employee performance but was not considered in this study. Therefore, future studies should incorporate these factors in investing whether variation exists in employee performance.
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APPENDIX A: Introductory Letter

UNIVERSITY OF CAPECOAST
CAPE COAST, GHANA
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

The bearer of this letter, Mr Eric Egyin Duker, is an MBA (Human Resource Management) student of the School of Business. He is writing his dissertation on topic “Training and development processes and post training performance of employees of Commission on Human Rights and Administrative justice”.

We would be grateful if you could assist him with the filling of the questionnaires and any other information that he may need to complete his work.

We appreciate your co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

Signed

F.O Boachie-Mensah

HEAD
APPENDIX B: Questionnaires

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STAFF OF CHRAJ

This questionnaire aims at soliciting information for a research work being undertaken to establish the relationship between training and development activities of staff of CHRAJ. This is done in partial fulfillment of the requirement for Master of Business Administration. Your opinion is of most importance to the study and any information provided by you will be treated as confidential and for academic purpose only.

Thank you for your valuable time and input.

SECTION A: Background of Respondent

1. Sex  Female  [  ]  Male  [  ]

2. Age  ........................................

3. Education  SHS/O level [  ]  HND/A level [  ]  Degree [  ]  Masters [  ]  PhD [  ]

4. Category of Staff  ........................................................

5. Year of employment  ................................................

6. Position  ...........................

7. How frequently have you been selected for a training/development programme

   Monthly [  ]  Quarterly [  ]  Bi-annually [  ]  Annually [  ]
SECTION B: QUALITY OF TRAINING/DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

1= strongly disagree  2= disagree  3= indifferent  4= Agree  5= strongly agree.

Please rank from 1 to 5 the quality of training and development activities that you have participated in the organisation.

SECTION C: EFFECT OF THE TRAINING ON YOUR PERFORMANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training need assessment</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of trainee involvement in training need assessment activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent to which trainees inputs are incorporated into need assessment reports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent to which trainees are given feedback on TNA activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of management’s commitment to TNA processes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>Training planning and design</strong></td>
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<td>Level of preparedness exhibited by organisers of training programmes</td>
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<td>Level of preparedness exhibited by trainees at training programmes</td>
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<td>Level of availability and adequacy of training facilities</td>
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<td>Trainees assessment of suitability of training designs</td>
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<td>Adequacy of plans to avoid major changes during training session</td>
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### Implementation and control

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<tr>
<td>Trainees assessment of facilitators’ level of knowledge exhibited</td>
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<td>Extent to which trainees understood concepts imparted at trainings</td>
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<td>Appropriateness of presentation methods</td>
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<td>Appropriateness of training environment</td>
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<td>Opportunity to assess the effectiveness of the training programme</td>
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### Please rank from 1 to 5 the effect of training on performance of your job

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of improvement</th>
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<td>Training helps reduce the rate of error at workplace</td>
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<td>Training helps to enhance independence and employee initiative</td>
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<td>Training helps to build positive attitude and punctuality</td>
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<td>Training helps to enhance professional competence of trainees</td>
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Thank you