International Scholars Journals

Global Journal of Business Management ISSN 6731-4538 Vol. 6 (1), pp. 001-010, January, 2012. Available online at www.internationalscholarsjournals.org © International Scholars Journals

Full Length Research Paper

Justification for skills transfer and validating a specific developed measuring instrument

Naong Matsidiso Nehemia

School of Teacher Education, Faculty of Management Sciences, Central University of Technology, Free State, Private Bag X20539, Bloemfontein 9300, South African. E-mail: mnaong@cut.ac.za. Tel: (051) 507 3324.

Accepted 24 December, 2011

The dire skills shortage exacerbated by the "brain-drain" experienced in South Africa brought the debate around the importance of training across industries at the centre stage. South Africa as one of the strong emerging economies is arguably not performing as well as it should. Investment in human capital in the form of skills transfer has never been as critical as it is today. It is a known fact that the quality of an organisation is to a large degree, determined by the quality of people it employs. The aim of this paper is in two-fold, firstly, reporting on the reliability and validity of a developed measuring instrument used in this study based on Kirkpatrick's evaluation of training framework. Secondly, reflecting on the views expressed by (N = 118) purposively sampled employees regarding the impact of skills transfer on their performance.

Key words: Skills transfer, employee motivation, reliability, validity, performance, factor analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Griesel (2004:109) states that the growth of the South African economy is being hindered because of inadequately skilled workers, which has a negative influence on productivity. From this assertion, it is evident that there is a direct relationship between skills transfer and individual performance.

The assertion "get real and train people to achieve" (Van and Black, 2002:2) is indicative of not only the enormous opportunities associated with imparting skills to any organisation's bottom-line, but also the challenges faced by the captains of industry in alleviating an alarming skills shortage in their companies and country. Needless to say, illiteracy does not promote productivity (Cronje et al., 2006:225).

Just like any other developing economy, the biggest challenge facing South Africa in the new millennium is that of rebuilding the economy. This process can only be successful if companies raise performance and productivity standards through skill enhancement and development (Grobler et al., 2002:340) . They further state that many studies have reduced the factors for sustainable productivity increases to three aspects, namely; education and training, economic restructuring, better management practices. Seeing to it that a country's workforce will have the necessary mix and level of knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes is the responsibility of two complementary systems, namely; training and development (Grobler et al., 2002). Grobler et al. (2002) maintained that if South Africa wants to succeed in the new environment, it will have to start by building its competency base. This can be done on four levels:

- National competencies, with the external driver being the national economic strategy;
- Organisational competencies with a subcategory of "core and strategic", driven by the corporate strategy;
- Occupational competencies with a subcategory of "vocational and managerial", driven by individual career management;
- Individual generic competencies driven by personal motivation and ability.

The underlying rationalise for the pursuance of this research study was premised on the firm contention that without a well-trained and motivated workforce, organisations cannot be successful (Cronje et al., 2006: 222).

Business organisations can see an increased performance from their workforce when people are put through an effective training programme. The findings of this study are mainly two-fold, firstly, reports on the validity and reliability processes of a developed measuring instrument, with secondly, reflect on the impact of training on employee performance.

Data obtained in research should be displayed in such a way that a convincing argument could be made to support the conclusions reached in the study (Monette et al., 2005:439). Similarly, Holloway (2005:273) maintains that the results and discussion of the results should be presented as an integrated whole. Such integration allowed the researcher to place the findings in the context of early and current literature that either confirmed or challenged the findings of the research.

Data set used for the construction of the reliable and valid measuring instrument is informed by the original work of Kirkpatrick's (1976) "framework for the evaluation of training programme", which consisted of four dimensions namely; (i) reaction, (ii) behaviour, (iii) learning, and (iv) results. The factor structure of all the effectiveness of training questionnaire items was conducted. It is significant to note that the variables falling into the four dimensions as originally identified by Kirkpatrick (1976) constitute a good scale.

Because the results in most cases closely resemble the preconceived constructs, although there are a few that do not fall into components as the one would have initially anticipated. The reliability results are also satisfactory as the overall scale construct as well as all individual dimensions all have Cronbach Alpha Coefficient values greater than 0.6.

The results also revealed a steeper positive slope with performance for individual employees who received training than for those employees who did not. Proof of the existence of the significant relationships between the constructs of motivation and job satisfaction and effectiveness of training, the consequence of increased individual performance.

THE VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF SKILLS TRANSFER

Nearly all employees receive some form of training during their careers. This is confirmed by the remark that organisations are spending billions of rands every year to train their employees and they must be expecting something in return (Fuller and Farrington, 1999:1). Indeed, individuals rely on training to improve their current skills and to learn new skills (Mathieu et al., 2001:828), with the hope of improving their output. Training represents an expensive investment organisations make in their human resources and, therefore, it is important that organisations evaluate the effectiveness of their training efforts (London et al., 2009; Cascio, 2010).

Similarly, Schoof (2006) argues that "leaders must supply people with skills training, education and improvement methods needed to make decisions and solve problems - in real time." Supported by Erasmus et al. (2007:4) is the idea that employees are trained in enterprises because it benefits both the individual and the enterprise. The individual benefits from training in the following important ways; the individual is empowered to make better decisions and solve problems more effectively, motive-tional variables of recognition, achievement, growth and responsibility are internalised and operationalised, staff are able to handle stress, tension and conflict more effectively, and job satisfaction is increased and knowledge, communication skills and attitudes are improved.

The enterprise on the other hand benefits from training in the following important ways; the job knowledge and skills of employees at all levels are improved, improved profitability and/or better service will follow, the morale of the workforce is improved, the corporate image is enhanced, relationships between superiors and subordinates are improved, it contributes to organisational development, it contributes to increased productivity and quality of work, it helps to keep costs down, it improves labour/management relations, it improves the organisational climate, employees are helped to adjust to change, and a positive climate for growth and communication is created.

Despite these positives, not all managers share the same perspective regarding investing in employee skills development. Fuller and Farrington (1999: 2) report that when the question "why do organisations send their employees to training?" was posed, a group of highly respected, well-known managers offered the following interesting insights:

> "I send people to training because I want them to be able to perform better. I need them to increase their ability to do their jobs. We just need a better training department, because our training doesn't seem to be achieving results."
>
> "Confidentially, I'd like to do away with training inside the organisation. I have yet to see a single training programme pay off. It's a huge expense that I would do away with if I thought that I could get away with it."
>
> "Well, I guess we send folks to training because we don't know what else to do. If they're not performing, it's got to be because they don't have the skills. Right?"
>
> "We have a long history in investing in our employees. I think it's really a symbol that we think people are important. It shows that we care."
>
> "Don't get me started. Training is a big dark rat hole that we keep pumping money into. It's

become an entitlement programme that we can't possibly kill. If we have to cut expenses, it's the first place I go."

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND THE AIM OF THE STUDY

Several recent training effectiveness studies have been conducted within the general framework of the valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). Hendricks (2008); Hellriegel et al. (2008:282) and Noe (1986) submitted that trainees will be more motivated to perform well in training if they perceive that (1) high effort will lead to high performance in training, (2) high performance in training will lead to high job performance, and (3) high job performance is instrumental in obtaining desired outcomes and avoiding undesirable outcomes. It also follows that trainees will be motivated to do well if they perceive that performance in training will help them obtain outcomes not directly tied to their current positions, such as career development opportunities (Mathieu et al., 2001: 829).

In the current study, we adopted an instrumentality approach that examined the impact of training in terms of trainees' perceptions that undergoing job-specific training would lead to better job performance and, consequently, to valued outcomes. This approach is particularly useful because it permits the integration of both individual (motivation) and situational variables (organisational climate) as they relate to trainees' perception of various valence-instrumentality-expectancy components.

Previous research has found support for the influence of several individual variables on valence-instrumentality-expectancy cognitions. For example, Lawler and Suttle (1973) obtained significant correlations between individual role perceptions and ability measures and various valence-instrumentality-expectancy components and composites. James et al. (1977) found support for the influence of several dimensions of psychological climate on instrumentality and valence ratings and, to a lesser degree, expectancy ratings. In a simulated organisational study, Jorgenson et al. (1973) found a significant correlation between manipulated effort-outcome probabilities and the subjects' instrumentality ratings. Pritchard et al. (1976) manipulated behaviour-reward contingencies in a series of field experiments.

Their findings illustrated significant effects for the manipulations on instrumentality and valence ratings, but not on expectancy ratings. In short, many investigations have obtained significant correlations between individual and situational variables and valence – instrumentality - expectancy cognitions in a variety of settings.

To this end, the purpose in this study was to explore the impact of skills transfer on lower level employee performance of a telecommunications company in the two provinces of South Africa. It was hoped thus to enhance the performance of this company in increasing for example, employee motivation and job satisfaction, as well as perceptions of organisational climate as a consequence of this training transfer.

METHODOLOGY

Research design, sampling and data collection

The quantitative research design approach followed is both descriptive and exploratory in nature. The survey instrument in the form of a semi-structured questionnaire comprising of 24 closed-ended items, and one open-ended question was administered to (N = 118) lower level employees of a telecommunication company in the Free State (N = 78) and Northern Cape (N = 40) Provinces of South Africa, using purposive sampling technique to collect data. The questionnaire was divided into two sections: Section A: demographic information; Section B: factual items and attitudinal and perception items on the four dimensions as originally identified by Kirkpatrick's (1976) framework for training transfer. Most respondents (38.9%) were between 25 - 35 years of age, while (32.3%) were between 36 - 43 years of age, the smallest number (28.8%) was between 45 - 55 years of age of the group, 46.7% had one year but less than five years' service and 53.3% were female. Fifty-four of the respondents were white, twenty nine coloureds and the rest where black Africans.

Adapting the measuring instrument

The effectiveness of training questionnaire

The Effectiveness of Training Questionnaire (ETQ) was a self-developed 24 item, ten-point Likert-type self- evaluation scale (the lowest anchor signifying definitely not = 1 and the highest definitely = 10) for the purpose of identifying the impact of training transfer on lower level workers of a telecommunications company. Items aimed to address essential criterions of skills' transfer contained in Kirkpatrick's (1976) widely accepted four-level approach/framework for training transfer. The approach includes (1) trainees' reactions to a training programme and its content, (2) learning, or trainees' acquisition of knowledge or skills, (3) behaviour, or changes in the extent to which trainees can execute desired training-related behaviours, and (4) results, or the extent to which trainees' job behaviours change, thereby resulting in increased organisational effectiveness. These dimensions were used as important measures to determine the impact training might have had on the performance of employees. Fifty items were initially developed in English and piloted with lower level employees of the same company located in the Thabo- Mofutsanyane district (that is Bethlehem, Harrismith areas) of the Free State Province. The results of the pilot study led to the selection, revision and translation of the final 24-items, the process chiefly attending to concerns about question overlap and reading comprehension difficulty, and some culturally sensitive issues. The scales used in this study had originally been developed in English, but were translated into Afrikaans and Sesotho. The final questionnaire consists of four dimensions, each with six sub-dimensions, giving a total of 24 questions, as indicated by Kirkpatrick's training model.

Statistical analysis

In a number of research studies, factor analysis is frequently used to assess whether instruments measure substantive constructs (Gill and Johnson, 2002); Cortina, 1993; Drasgrow and Miller, 1982). The empirical objective of this study was to determine whether independent factor can be identified and therefore, factor analysis

Table 1. Cronbach Coefficient Alpha (Overall Scale)

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
0.969	24

as a statistical technique was employed. Secondly, the reliability of each factor was determined by means of an item analysis (Cronbachs Alpha).

The correlation matrix of the size variables was analysed with principal components and principal factor analysis. Pohlmann (2004: 16) states that a PCA solution has common, unique, and error variance mixed into the components, whereas, by using a factor analysis solution, the researcher attempts to eliminate unique and error variance from factors. SMCs were used as prior communality estimates for the principal factor analysis. A clearly interpretable two-factor solution was indicated by the Kaiser-Guttman rule, a Screen Test, and a parallel analysis. In this study, five-factors were rotated to the varimax criterion, and a coefficient cutoff of |.5| and |.4| was used to interpret the rotated solution.

The principal component analysis (PCA) was done with the aim of identifying a minimal set of factors that accounted for a major portion of the total variance of the original items. The SPSS software program was used for this purpose. The latent root criterion of Hair et al. (2008), Rudestam and Newton (2001) and Hair et al. (1995) which specifies that all factors with eigenvalues of 1.00 or greater should be retained was used. Initial factor extraction was done according to PCA, and the intercorrelation matrix was rotated according to the varimax method.

RESULTS

The number of participants in both provinces namely, Free State and Northern Cape was evenly balanced (99 and 91 respectively) and there was no significant difference between their mean scores on the Effectiveness of Training Scale, seeming to confirm some homogeneity across the age group in respect of their responses to the items on the questionnaire. The difference between the mean scores of the males and the females was significant (4.51 and 4.22 respectively). This result may have been influenced by the uneven sample distribution since the males constituted 61% of the sample, suggesting that more males may have been willing and/or able to stay after work to participate in the study, perhaps thereby contributing to some bias in the data.

An item correlation of more than 0.4 was assumed to measure what most items were presumed to measure. All 24 items obtained an item correlation of more than 0.4, with many above 0.5. This result, in combination with the coefficient alpha value of 0.969 (Table 1), seemed to establish the reliability of the Effectiveness of Training Questionnaire. However, the participants' strong tendency to select the highest point, presumably as the desirable score, was notable. Mampane and Bouwer (2006: 450) indicated that the tendency towards high self-evaluation scores was also observed in some other studies (Du Plessis et al., 2001).

Tables 1 and 2 shows the results of the factor analysis of the Effectiveness of Training Questionnaire for one factor. Most variables loaded fairly well on two factors, which were accepted as Results and Reaction, because the four identified criteria initially used to develop the items for the Effectiveness of Training were all characteristics of skills transfer. The small number of items per criterion might explain the failure of the items to load on more than one factor in the case of mainly Learning and Behaviour factors. The three variables (that is B8, 9, 11) for Behaviour and (that is L9-L11) for Learning though with high loadings (<0.5) remain unrelated to their respective central factors.

The analysis initially ran a test on the Kaiser Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test Statistic as well as Bartlett's test of sphericity. The initial test is a measure of sample adequacy and basically checks if the correlation matrix is factorizable. This value should be above 0.6 in order for the analysis to continue. The later test checks that the correlation matrix is significantly different from an Identity matrix and should result in a p-value less than 0.05. The results of the two tests are outlined below.

It is evident from Table 3 that both the KMO finding of 0.876 > 0.6 and Bartletts p value, which equals 0.000 < 0.05 (significance level), are clearly satisfactory a significant indication to proceed further with the measuring instrument. The eigen value analysis is shown in Table 4. An eigenvalue measures the amount of variance explained by a factor. Principal eigen values will always be a decreasing series of values that sum to the number of variables (Pohlmann, 2004:17). Without loss of generality, the variables are assumed to be standardised with the means of 0 and variances of 1.

Accordingly, the sum of the variances for those standardized measures is 24.0. An eigenvalue divided by the number of variables gives the proportion of variance in all the measures explained by a component. The first eigen value (14.251) in Table 4 divided by 24.0 indicates that 59.4% of variance in the 24 variables is explained by Component 1. The second component explains another 8.5% of variance. The third component explains another 6.4% of variance, fourth component explains 5.8% of variance, and fifth component explains 4.89% of variance. Cumulatively, the first five components account for 85.09% of the variance. Components 6 - 24 explain the remaining 14.91% of variance and, as there eigenvalues are less than one, they are not taken into account in the rotated component final solution.

Dimensionality: Number of components or factors to interpret

Pohlmann (2004: 17) maintains that researchers may also use eigenvalues for determining the number of factors to interpret. The Kaiser-Guttman, eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule suggests a five-factor solution. Figure 1 shows a plot of the eigenvalues. A visual

Table 2. Inter item statistics (overall scale) item-total statistics.

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Rn1	186.76	1398.784	0.777	0.967
Rn2	186.35	1424.153	0.665	0.969
Rn3	186.43	1425.570	0.718	0.968
Rn4	186.08	1454.714	0.565	0.969
Rn5	186.63	1402.878	0.757	0.968
Rn6	186.18	1413.268	0.826	0.967
L7	186.45	1425.373	0.717	0.968
L8	186.45	1424.413	0.755	0.968
L9	186.18	1434.548	0.714	0.968
L10	186.06	1447.456	0.681	0.968
L11	185.88	1421.866	0.810	0.967
L12	186.22	1422.173	0.760	0.968
B13	186.65	1427.873	0.752	0.968
B14	186.12	1441.946	0.762	0.968
B15	186.20	1440.401	0.766	0.968
B16	186.18	1424.228	0.773	0.968
B17	186.14	1429.121	0.750	0.968
B18	186.18	1417.748	0.808	0.967
Rs19	186.53	1416.214	0.703	0.968
Rs20	186.67	1403.107	0.796	0.967
Rs21	187.37	1403.678	0.723	0.968
Rs22	187.02	1400.020	0.729	0.968
Rs23	186.76	1414.384	0.796	0.967
Rs24	186.71	1407.732	0.775	0.967

Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's test.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.		0.876
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1513.973
	df	276
	Sig.	0.000

inspection of Figure 1, called a Scree Test (Cattell, 1996), also suggests a five-factor solution. The break in the trend line commencing at the fifth eigenvalue indicates that the major portion of variance is explained by the first five factors.

Interpretation of dimensions: Rotation

The next step in the analysis is to interpret the factor structure by rotating the factors to a simple structure (Pohlmann, 2004: 18; Hair et al., 2008; Rudestam and Newton, 2001). The pattern coefficients for the principal component solution are presented in Tables 5 and 6, titled Rotated Component Matrix.

All variables loaded very well on the principal factor called Results. A similar loading for the principal factor called Reaction was achieved, with the exception of only one variable that has dual loadings. Fifty percent of the third component, namely *Learning*, has large coefficients on three of its six variables (that is L7; L8 and L12), with the other three variables, (that is L9-L11) loading highly under a completely new component accepted as "the impact training has had on the working relationships within a team". The fourth component, namely Behaviour, though dually loaded (into a new component), has large coefficients on all six variables, dual loadings are on variables B13-B15.

A new fifth component called, "the impact training has had on the working relationships within a team", consisting of reasonable large coefficients, was created due to dual loading of behaviour and learning components

Table 5. Total variance explained.

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	14.251	59.379	59.379	14.251	59.379	59.379	5.362	22.343	22.343
2	2.050	8.543	67.921	2.050	8.543	67.921	4.257	17.736	40.079
3	1.545	6.438	74.359	1.545	6.438	74.359	3.793	15.806	55.885
4	1.400	5.835	80.194	1.400	5.835	80.194	3.524	14.681	70.566
5	1.176	4.899	85.093	1.176	4.899	85.093	3.486	14.527	85.093
6	0.626	2.608	87.701						
7	0.573	2.386	90.087						
8	0.402	1.673	91.760						
9	0.375	1.564	93.324						
10	0.341	1.420	94.744						
11	0.215	0.897	95.641						
12	0.174	0.727	96.368						
13	0.152	0.634	97.002						
14	0.141	0.589	97.592						
15	0.108	0.448	98.040						
16	0.100	0.417	98.457						
17	0.093	0.387	98.843						
18	0.064	0.268	99.112						
19	0.052	0.218	99.330						
20	0.46	0.191	99.520						
21	0.037	0.155	99.675						
22	0.030	0.125	99.800						
23	0.028	0.115	99.915						
24	0.020	0.085	100.000						

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

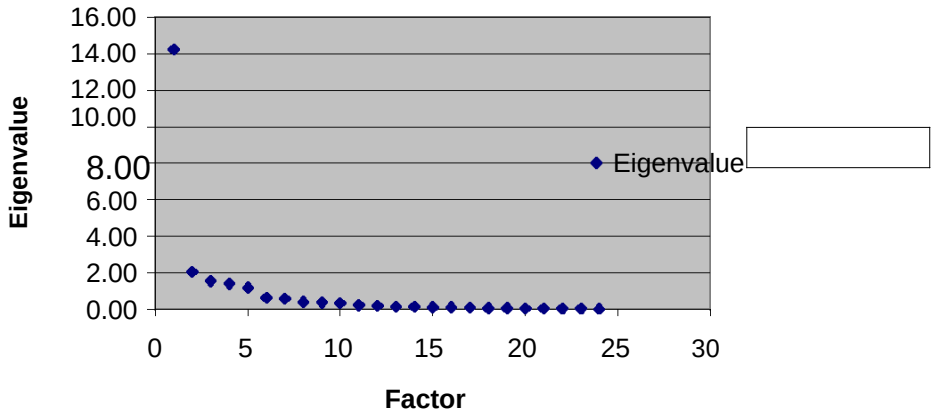

Figure 1. Principal component eigenvalue plot for the 24 variables.

(Table 5).

However, loadings for the two problematic components provide a very interesting picture when values are reduced to |.4| as depicted in Table 6. All the variables of Learning, with the exception of L9, were satisfactorily loaded into this component. However, 50% of this

Table 5. Rotated component matrix.

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Rs22	0.848				
Rs21	0.840				
Rs24	0.808				
Rs20	0.799				
Rs19	0.784				
Rs23	0.730				
Rn2		0.841			
Rn3		0.778			
Rn4		0.757			
Rn1		0.701			
Rn5		0.695			
L8			0.819		
L7			0.809		
L12			0.786		
Rn6		0.551	0.559		
B16				0.776	
B18				0.754	
B17				0.713	
B14				0.639	0.556
L11					0.731
L10					0.712
B15				0.612	0.669
B13				0.511	0.645
L9					0.545

Table 6. Rotated component matrix.

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Rn1	0.452	0.701			
Rn2		0.841			
Rn3		0.778			
Rn4		0.757			
Rn5		0.695	0.487		
Rn6		0.551	0.559		
L7			0.809		
L8			0.819		
L9					0.545
L10			0.445		0.712
L11			0.419		0.731
L12			0.786		
B13				0.511	0.645
B14				0.639	0.556
B15				0.612	0.669
B16				0.776	
B17				0.713	
B18	0.468			0.754	
Rs19	0.784				
Rs20	0.799				
Rs21	0.840				
Rs22	0.848				
Rs23	0.730				0.450
Rs24	0.808				

component's variables (that is L9; L10 and L11) with a large coefficients, loaded outside this component and into the fifth (new) component. Behaviour, however, though doubling (that is B13; B14; and B15) had large coefficients on all six variables. No change for the remaining components 1 and 2, namely Results and Reaction, characterized by large coefficients on all their variables.

The use of the varimax rotated solution was preferred by the researcher because it provides the simplest interpretation of the structure (Pohlmann, 2004: 18). Further, Pohlmann (2004) states that there is no rule for determining an interpretation cut-off, and analysts commonly use values between |.3| and |.6| for the factor coefficients.

For this research study, with a sample size of (n=118), the researcher chose to use a coefficient of both |.5| (for Table 5) and |.4| (for Table 6) to interpret the varimax solution, the reason for this being to achieve a rotated structure that was simple to interpret.

The first six variables measure Component 1 called "Reaction" (Rn1 - Rn6), the second six variables measure Component 2 called "Learning" (L7 - L12), the third six variables measure Component 3 called "Behaviour" (B13 - B18), and the fourth six variables measure Component 4 called "Results" (Rs19 - Rs24). This structure leads to an interpretation consistent with that obtained from the inspection of the correlation table (Table 1).

In addition to the validity testing, the study also runs reliability testing which is outlined below using the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha tests. Initially the study investigates the overall scale reliability by looking at the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha for all Items combined. As the results below indicate, the Coefficient value equals 0.969 which is far greater than 0.6 which indicates overall scale reliability (Table 2).

The study now investigates the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha for the Reaction dimension. The results below indicate the Coefficient value equals 0.930, which is far greater than 0.6 which indicates scale reliability within this dimension (Tables 7 and 8).

The study turns to studying the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha for the Learning dimension. The results below indicate that the Coefficient value equals 0.930, which is far greater than 0.6, indicating scale reliability within this dimension (Tables 9 and 10).

The study now analyzes the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha for the Behaviour dimension. The results below indicate the Coefficient value equals 0.949 which is far greater than 0.6, indicating scale reliability within this dimension (Tables 11 and 12).

Finally, the study investigates the Cronbach Coefficient

Table 7. Inter item statistics (reaction dimension).

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Rn1	40.98	90.460	0.812	0.916
Rn2	40.57	91.690	0.828	0.913
Rn3	40.65	94.753	0.830	0.914
Rn4	40.29	101.652	0.690	0.930
Rn5	40.84	89.775	0.834	0.913
Rn6	40.39	97.243	0.794	0.918

Table 8. Cronbach coefficient alpha (reaction dimension).

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
0.930	6

Table 9. Inter item statistics (learning dimension).

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
L7	41.86	74.081	0.803	0.916
L8	41.86	73.721	0.859	0.909
L9	41.59	79.567	0.699	0.929
L10	41.47	80.294	0.748	0.923
L11	41.29	75.852	0.833	0.912
L12	41.63	74.038	0.835	0.912

Table 10. Cronbach coefficient alpha (learning dimension).

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
0.930	6

Table 11. Inter item statistics (behaviour dimension).

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
B13	41.84	75.015	0.802	0.944
B14	41.31	77.220	0.869	0.937
B15	41.39	76.683	0.879	0.936
B16	41.37	73.118	0.861	0.937
B17	41.33	75.627	0.789	0.946
B18	41.37	72.398	0.876	0.935

Table 12. Cronbach coefficient alpha (behaviour dimension).

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
0.949	6

Table 13. Inter item statistics (results dimension).

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
Rs19	38.12	117.266	0.785	0.953
Rs20	38.25	113.834	0.886	0.942
Rs21	38.96	110.718	0.866	0.944
Rs22	38.61	108.683	0.892	0.941
Rs23	38.35	119.393	0.838	0.947
Rs24	38.29	114.492	0.879	0.942

Table 14. Cronbach coefficient alpha (results dimension).

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
0.954	6

Alpha for the results dimension. The results below indicate that the Coefficient value equals 0.954, which is far greater than 0.6, indicating scale reliability within this dimension (Tables 13 and 14).

In the final analysis, the variables falling into these four components closely resemble the preconceived constructs in most cases although there are a few that do not fall into components as the researcher would have initially expected. The reliability results are also satisfac-tory as the overall scale construct, as well as all individual dimensions, all have Cronbach Coefficient Alpha values greater than 0.6.

EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF TRAINING

If learning that has taken place during training is not transferred to the job situation, the training programme has been ineffective (Swanepoel et al., 2008:457). A total of 63% of the female respondents, as opposed to the meagre 28% of males, expressed satisfaction with the fact that they are at least put through some form of training by their company. However, their views regarding its impact on their performance, varied from one generation to the other, as well as its frequency. For example, the new starters (26%) with work experience of between one to five years were grateful that the training they had received made it possible for them to understand the intricacies of their work. Surprisingly, those employees with a longer working period (between 10-20 years) at their company took a dim view of the impact of training on their performance. Conversely, a mixture of young (that is 33%) and old (29%) employees with higher qualifications (that is post- school) and less working experience (that is less than 10 years), are happier with the frequent training opportunities they receive. This is in congruence with the contention of this research study, which states that skills transfer will exhibit a steeper positive slope with performance for individual employees who received such training than for those employees who did not.

From these findings, it is evident that the level of education played a significant role, not only in terms of concerted effort and willingness by respondents to understand the significance of going through training, but also in terms of determining the future prospects for promotions. It is clear that younger and better educated respondents put a high premium on the value of having to undergo work-related training, because it enhances one's chances for future promotions. As for the older generation, with most of them arguably having very little or no ambition for prospects of promotion, regards training as a waste of their valuable time and energy.

Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate the opinion of trainees concerning the impact of training received on their performance, while at the same time validating the measuring instrument used. One would expect training to have a positive effect on the way people do their work. So, from the organisational perspectives, one can see that it is imperative to ask these questions at the workplace: (i) are people performing better as a result of the training? (ii) were employees/learners able to apply what they learnt to their normal work? (iii) did the training prepare adequately for (a return to) work? (Reay, 1995: 49).

Notably, the findings of this study revealed not only their understanding of issues raised in the measuring instrument, as they relate to their work situation, but also the views on the impact of training on their performance. There is a myriad of documented evidence where the effectiveness of training is under the spotlight, where questions are raised as to whether investment in human

capital is a wise decision or not. On the other hand, there is a vast amount of documented evidence to the contrary concerning skills transfer and effectiveness of training. What need to be noted, however, in the entire debate, are the comments and recommendations of Fuller and Farrington (1999:4) in their call for a different approach. If training is not always the answer, what is? How will one know when training is the right answer? What one needs is a different approach. Rather than being focused on providing training, the organisation needs to be focused on improving performance.

The shift from a focus on training to a focus on performance improvement is a significant transition for an organisation. Both the employees and the managers are in the habit of asking for training, not for better performance. There is a training department that knows how to implement training, but where is the performance department? Who in the organisation has experience in solving performance problems? What process is used? What tools are available? An organisation cannot simply decide that from now on they will be "performance-focused". They won't be. The transition is a significant organisational change that requires planning and effort in order to be successful.

REFERENCES

Cascio WF (2010). Managing Human Resources. Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profits (8th Edition). Boston: McGraw-Hill International Edition.

Cortina JM (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. J. Appl. Psy., 78: 98-104.

Cronje GJ, de J, Du Toit GS, de K, Marais A, Motlatla MDC (2006). Introduction *to Business* Management (6th ed). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Drasgrwo F, Miller HE (1982). Psychiatric and substantive issues in scale construction and validation. J. Appl. Psy*.,* 67: 268-279.

Du Plessis AB, Bouwer AC, Grimbeek RJ (2001). A diagnostic instrument for determining the academic self -concept of Tsonga-speaking learners in Grade Seven. South Afr. J. Educ., 21:54-64.

Fuller J, Farrington J (1999). From Training to Performance Improvement. Navigating the Transition. San Francisco: Josse-Bass Pfeiffer.

Gill J, Johnson P (2002). Research Methods for Managers (3rd Edition). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Hair JF, Jr., Anderson RE, Tatham RL, Black WC (1995). Multivariate data analysis with readings (4th ed). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hair JF, Jr., Wolfinbarger MF, Ortinau DJ, Bush RP (2008). Essentials of Marketing Research. Inte. Edit. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Hellriegel D, Jackson SE, Slocum J, Staude G, Amos T, Klopper HB, Louw L, Oosthuizen T (2008). *Management* third South African edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Hendricks M (2008). The satisfaction of HIV/AIDS councellors in the Ethekwini Metropolitan area with regard to their councellor training. Unpublished Master of Arts in Social Science dissertation: University of South Africa.

Holloway I (2005). Qualitative research in health care. Individual contributors. England: Open University Press.

James LR, Hartman A, Stebbins MW, Jones AP (1977). Relationships between psychological climate and a VIE model for work motivation. Pers. Psy*.,* 30: 542-552.

Jorgenson DO, Dunnette MD, Pritchard RD (1973). Effects of the manipulation of a performance-reward contingency on behaviour in a simulated work setting. J. Appl. Psy*.,* 57: 271-280

Kirkpatrick DL (1976). Evaluation of training. In Craig, R.l. (Ed). Training and development handbook (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lawler EE, Suttle JL (1973). Expectancy theory and job behaviour. Org. Beh. Hum. Perf., 9: 482-503.

London L, Kalula S, Xaba B (2009). A survey of trainee specialists experiences at the University of Cape Town (CUT): Impacts of race and gender.Online http://www.biomedcentral.com/1472-6920/9/26

Monette DR, Sullivan TJ, DeJong CR (2005). Applied social research: a tool for the human services. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole-Thomson Learning 6th edition.

Noe RA (1986). Trainees' attributes and attitudes. Neglected influences on training effectiveness. Acad. Manage*.* Rev., 11: 736-749.

Pritchard RD, DeLeo PJ, Von Bergen CW (1976). A field experimental test of expectancy-valence incentive motivation techniques. Organisa. Beha. and Hum. Perf., 15: 355-406.

Pritchar DG (1995). The Competent Trainer's Toolkit Series. Evaluating Training. New Jersey: Nichols Publishing.

Rudestam KE, Newton RR (2001). Surviving your dissertation. A Comprehensive Guide to Content and Process (2nd Edition). London: Sage Publications, Inc. Inte. Edu. Prof. Pub.

Schoof U (2006). Stimulating Youth Entrepreneurship: Barriers and incentives to enterprise start-ups by young people. Series on Youth and Entrepreneurship. SEED Working Paper No. 76. International Labour Office. Geneva. Online. http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/2006/106B09_94_engl.pdf-

Swanepoel B, Erasmus B, Schenk H (2008). South African Human Resource Management. Theory & Practice (4th Edition). Cape Town: Juta & Co Ltd.

Van Hoek G, Black T (2002). Get real and train people to achieve. Companies should beware of the 'rain-dance' approach. Sunday Times Business Times, p. 2.

Vroom VH (1964). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.