CHAPTER – I
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

‘A manager develops people. How well or how poorly subordinates develop themselves in their work depends on the way a manager manages. A manager: Directs people or misdirects them; Brings out what is in them or stifles them; Strengthens their integrity or corrupts them; Trains them to stand upright and strong or deforms them. Every manager does these things knowingly or not. A manager may do them well, or may do them wretchedly, but always does them’.

—Peter F. Drucker

1.1 Introduction

In the world of training and development, impact measuring program is a frequent discussion topic. Everyone seems to be searching for the perfect measurement system to increase organizational capabilities, performance and link them with the business strategy. Human resource practitioners, organization development consultants, training managers, and senior managers realize that any training and development activities should eventually show a positive return and improve the bottom line. Hence, the training and development has an important role in the human resource management.

It is generally agreed that human beings began amassing knowledge at the beginning of the stone-age. As they invented tools, weapons, clothing, shelter and language, the need for training became an essential ingredient in the march of civilization.

However, our ancestors stumbled upon or invented the various facets of civilization, which are very little significance, they transmitted the knowledge and skills acquired by them from generation to generation. This
was done through various methods. Through these methods, the development process called training came into operation. Before industrial revolution the methods of training in agriculture, trade and business, crafts were not very formal. The techniques were learnt from father to son gradually through practice. The experienced persons were highly recognized in these fields.

**1.2 Historical growth of training and development**

The twentieth century saw dramatic changes within the world of work, and the twenty-first appears to have continued the theme of change. Organizations have evolved in terms of purpose, size, structure, management philosophy and relationships with the outside world. Technological advances have revolutionized all work methods, and for many organizations the operational horizon has moved from a small geographical area to literally the world; for government, 'being competitive' is now a global (as opposed to a selective international) requirement. Everything has speeded up, including the pace of change itself.

It is natural that in a period of change and opportunity, approaches to learning, development and training have grown in importance, broadened in scope, and became more sophisticated in method. Once the object of training would have been the individual employee, and the training method would involve teaching. Now, the picture is much more complex: training may involve any grouping up to and including the nation itself, and even sometimes may have an international dimension. It may also extend to non-employees such as suppliers, customers or outsourcers. Learner-centered
activities are becoming just as important as if not more important than, those that are teacher or tutor led. Learning is no longer mainly the province of the psychologist or sociologist: researchers in fields such as systems engineering, artificial intelligence, cybernetics, communications technology, management and even biology have extended relevant theory by drawing on their own specializations, extending and modifying ideas originally geared only to a human dimension. The organisations think of individuals as being 'able to learn', and indeed of both as being capable of 'learning to learn' - which means much more than acquiring knowledge of how learning happens.

Three fundamental (and to some extent contrasting) ideas have grown in importance over the last 20 years or so. The first is that the continuously changing environment demands lifelong learning on the part of all - even governments are aware that this is a key to future prosperity, and are attempting to promote it widely. The second is that real-life experience itself offers significant learning opportunities, and that experiences can be designed to stimulate learning - hence more emphasis on the learner than the trainer. The third is that the government should create and encourage national vocational schools to improve occupational competence, and they should be recognized by the award of national vocational qualifications (NCL, 2002).

To understand the reasons for these diverse developments, and how they have gathered momentum in recent years, they will be briefly reviewed by their evolution, focusing on the key themes that have emerged from almost a hundred years of thinking about learning, and showing how and where these have influenced trainers and educators in achieving their aims.
After industrial revolution, machines were used in various fields and formal training process came into operation. In the beginning phase of industrial revolution the machine system of production was confined to industrial sector. Gradually highly developed techniques were applied in the fields like agriculture, fishing, forestry, etc. The importance of training in the industrial sector is explained in the theory of "Scientific management" given by Taylor (1967). His theory explained about the importance of training for high productivity, low accident rate, low wastage and maximize profit. He emphasized on the need for special training of the production line workers for a specific job. The substitution of machine power for people power, required more specialized hands. Adam Smith and Taylor (1967) wrote on the importance of specialization for increasing efficiency. Babbage (Wikipedia) in his work "On the economy of machinery and manufacturers" listed six reasons for making jobs as specialized as possible and all these reasons imprinted the essence of training. Babbage (1997) has given more emphasis on specialized training than general training. To support his argument he says that specialized training requires less time and less wastage of material.

Training gained importance during the world wars. World War-I promoted a tremendous stimulus for training. To fulfill the sudden demand of military requirements, the organizations set up training wings to train new workers to meet the challenges of huge supplies of war front. During World War-II the management of defense in America found that without training, skilled supervisors were unable to produce adequately for the war effort. The wartime trainers had to move vast number of people through orientation, attitude building and technical instruction. To achieve this, they turned
increasingly to variety of tools and aids for training during this period. They came up with Job Instruction Training (JIT) for better management of the war operations. After war these tools, techniques and training aids were successfully introduced in industries. They include training films and filmstrips, stimulators, flipchart, flannel boards and models. Role playing was also used as an important training method.

During World War II crisis approached and as the United States moved into the “defense era,” these same men and women were ready to accept the call for service in the defense industry to replace young men drafted into the Armed Forces. They took to welding training, machinist training, and specialized job training of many kinds without fear or undue urging. Then business and industry came face to face with the reality that they had too long ignored. Suddenly the training function of the supervisor became paramount. In fact, management found that without training skills, supervisors were unable to produce adequately for the defense or the war effort. With it, new production records were being established by the aged, the handicapped, and industrially inexperienced women.

The training director became a necessity, and soon this was a common title in the management hierarchy. The process of selection was often crude, arbitrary, and fortuitous, further demonstrating the imperative need for the training director’s services.

Now came of the tremendous training impetus accomplished by the establishment of the War Production Board and, within that organization, the Training within Industry group. Here we find as leaders the people who had
faced the war production manpower problems of World War I. They capitalized upon that experience by refining the techniques that had proved so effective in the prior conflict.

In the later part of 1950s, business games were used as a popular method for decision simulation, videotape and television began to be used successfully. By the end of 1960s and in 1970s assessment centers caught the attention as the best way for executive appraisal of performance and potential, and also as a means of training. Programmed instruction was one of the most popular techniques used for training during this period. Organization Development (OD) gained acceptance during the 1960s and became the most talked about training techniques or practice in 1970s. The 80s popularized Quality Circle (QC) movements. In this period emphasis was on quality through training. The 90s saw growth in the use of computers for training, and behavior modeling for management skills training. More emphasis was on career development of employees during this period. Late 1980s and 1990s witnessed rapid growth in Information Technology (IT and Business Process Outsourcing (BPO)). This growth modified training activities. It enlarged training avenues and the ways and means of training. It made training process easier, more systematic and tailor made as per need for improvement in performance as well as building potential of technical and non-technical managers.

The following tables (Margaret, et. al., 2004) explore the evolution of ideas, of training practices, of employer interest, and of national interventions. Approaches to HRD begin with bureaucracy and instruction, and range
through human relations and formal courses, national vocational qualifications, to change management and experiential learning, learning organisations and the internet. All these developments have conditioned the present scene (Margaret, et. al., 2004).

Table – 1.1

Early twentieth century

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Background ideas on: Organisation/management</th>
<th>Employer-led/backed training activity</th>
<th>National training interventions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scientific Management</td>
<td>'Sitting by Nellie' - new entrants learning from experienced workers Unplanned tuition Craft Apprenticeship Workplace Instruction + College-based education</td>
<td>Vocational education in FE Colleges</td>
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Table – 1.2

The middle years

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<th>National training interventions</th>
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<tr>
<td>Human Relations</td>
<td>Supervisory training courses Lectures</td>
<td>Training Within Industry (TWI)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivation theory</td>
<td>Job enrichment Job rotation Management courses, seminars, conferences Lectures, visual aids, case studies, discussions Management traineeships</td>
<td>Business Schools</td>
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<td>Management by Objectives</td>
<td>'Systematic Training’ Policy, needs identification, appraisal, records Induction Programmes Operational courses (Marketing, Safety)</td>
<td>Industry Training Boards (to1980s) Open University</td>
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<td>Organic structures Theory X/Theory Y</td>
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<td>Participation/consultation</td>
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#### Later Twentieth Century

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<td>Socio-technical theory</td>
<td>Organisation development</td>
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<td>Contingency theory</td>
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<td>Manpower Services</td>
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<td>Experiential learning</td>
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<td>Management development</td>
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<td>Oranisational development</td>
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<td>Youth Training Schemes</td>
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<td>Change management</td>
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<td>Barriers to learning</td>
<td>solving/brainstorming</td>
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<td>Learning styles</td>
<td>Structured exercises, simulations, discussion</td>
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<td>Strategic management</td>
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<td>Continuous development</td>
<td>Action learning - 'sets', projects, tutorials</td>
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<td>Outdoor training</td>
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<td>Total Quality Management</td>
<td>Youth Training</td>
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<td>Information technology</td>
<td>IT training</td>
<td>Training and Enterprise Councils</td>
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<td>Competence theory</td>
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<td>The learning organisation</td>
<td>Teamwork seminars</td>
<td>Industry Training</td>
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<td>Multi-skilling</td>
<td>Job enlargement</td>
<td>National Training Targets</td>
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<td>Empowerment/re-engineering</td>
<td>Continuing Professional</td>
<td>Investors in People</td>
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<td>Knowledge Management</td>
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<td>The Internet</td>
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<td>Lifelong learning</td>
<td>Self-paced/planned</td>
<td>University for Industry</td>
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<td>Organisations as brains</td>
<td>Learning</td>
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<td>Learner focus</td>
<td>Career Counseling</td>
<td>Individual Learning</td>
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<td>Skills shortages</td>
<td>Modern Apprenticeships</td>
<td>Accounts</td>
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<td>E Learning</td>
<td>E learning groups</td>
<td>Department for Education</td>
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<td>Leadership</td>
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<td>and Skills</td>
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<td>Diversity and widening</td>
<td>Intranets</td>
<td>Teaching in Higher</td>
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<td>access to learning</td>
<td>Blended learning</td>
<td>Education (ILTHE)</td>
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<td>&quot;Emotional intelligence&quot;</td>
<td>Managing diversity</td>
<td>Councils</td>
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<td>Team-based training</td>
<td>Sector Skills Development</td>
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<td>Knowledge management</td>
<td>Project Management</td>
<td>Agency/Sector Skills</td>
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### 1.3 Importance of training and development

It is an accepted fact that besides money, materials and machines, the success of any organization depends upon the quality of its human resource. In the wake of increased competition, opening of the Indian economy, development of global village concept, people have become pivot around which successful organizations rotate. In the light of these, the training and development function in organizations gained momentum and recognized as a tool to help people to grow within the organization and retain them.

To be productive and profit making, organizations need efficient and effective workforce. To manage and maintain this workforce, organizations
require skilled and knowledgeable executives. Skilled and competent executives can direct the efforts in right direction and reach the organization objectives. The impact of innovations, technological advances, market driven economy, consumerism has forced many organizations to opt for modernization, diversification and organization restructuring. The liberalization of economy has changed the environment for our managers and workforce. The protective layer has gone, and the world is now in the age of competition not only from within but also from the technologically advanced and capital rich organizations of the developed countries. The organizations opting for this change have to prepare its team to accept the challenges posed by the change process. They have to be prepared, developed and updated, accordingly. Their effectiveness would largely be determined by success of the organizations on the following counts; the redefining of the objectives and the mission of their organization, appraisal of the existing activities, phasing out those with low or negative returns, or rendered irrelevant, unless required for strategic reasons; increasing productivity of all the resources developed in the organization, shifting to new markets, new products from selling to marketing, all with customer satisfaction. Organizations would need to gear up all their resources to well defined market orientation strategies, human resource development, research and development, and technology upgradation.

Therefore, it is necessary for any organization to have trained and developed executives. Change in strategy, structure, and work processes often leave executives unsure of their roles and related responsibilities. This role ambiguity may be a major obstacle to organizational improvement,
innovation and change efforts. For role clarity of executives training can do wonders by improving employee knowledge, skills and behavior; enhancing performance; increasing productivity and booming profits. It also enriches the individual in terms of increasing potential, developing competency and opportunity for career advancement. Training helps both the organization and individual to reach their respective goals.

1.4 Scope of training and development

Training has existed from the inception of human being in different forms in the society. It is a medium to pass different skills from one generation to another. But with change in time, the magnitude of training has undergone sea change. Growth and development in technology has developed variety of methods and techniques in the way of training. These changes have added new dimensions to training and influenced the requirement of training. Training of human resource is carried out at macro and micro level. At macro level training is necessary for generating awareness among people on social issues, educating people and spreading literacy in society for giving people an opportunity to live a better life. Training activities at micro level are oriented towards development of people working in the organization to perform better in their job and develop their competency on the job for growth of the organization. Thus every one takes training in some or other form for survival and sustenance on this planet.

Scope of training has also shifted from technical skill based to knowledge and interpersonal skill covering a wide zone ranging from manufacturing industries to service sector at micro level. The emphasis and
awareness on quality of products manufactured and service provided has increased the need for training of all those involved in this process. Growing quality consciousness among customers and competition in market is forcing organizations to have quality employees to give quality products and services.

Inability to provide training and development opportunities can have grave consequences for society, organization and the individual. Poor training and lack of facilities for self development can be a great impediment to growth of the society and shall lead to greater disparity among have's and have not's. In an organization poor or no training shall mean its slow death due to obsolete people. Also for any individual it shall mean stagnancy in career-life and demoralization. Thus training and development activities improve performance in present job, improve quality, and increase productivity, also, decrease absenteeism and employee turnover, reduce accident rate, and help people to have vision for future business environment.

Managers get the work done through coordination and direction of the efforts of others. Managers are organization members responsible for planning, organizing, leading and controlling the activities of the organization so that its goals can be achieved. For the business to improve, the skills of its managers need to be improved. Hence, managing for success requires a comprehensive set of managerial skills.

According to Kanter (1989) managerial work is undergoing such enormous and rapid change that many managers are reinventing their profession. Whereas, Mintzberg (1975) said managers serve three primary roles, they are interpersonal, informational and decision making. To perform
these roles managers need to develop their skills. Katz and Kahn (1970) categories skills for managers into three types, they are technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills. Technical skills enable manager to use effectively techniques, methods, processes, and equipment in performing specific jobs. Technical skills are most important for operating managers and those at lower level for supervising their subordinates.

Human skills refer to the ability to work effectively with others and to build up group relations to accomplish the organizational goals. These skills include the ability to communicate, motivate and lead. Conceptual skills make it possible for a manager to consider an enterprise as a whole and evaluate the relationships, which exist between various parts or functions of a business. Such skills are concerned with the realm of ideas and creativity. Top managers in particular need these skills because they have to coordinate all the activities of the organization. Therefore it may be said that technical skill is an essential ingredient in low-level management; human skills are important at all levels of the management; and conceptual skill is essentially critical in top executive positions.

As change continues with time, the functioning and roles of manager should be changed. Organizations are being restructured and redesigned to be lean, flexible and adaptable to change; managers in all areas and at all levels of the organization are expected to be proactive, team-oriented, and focused on results and for this they need special set of managerial skills and competencies. The availability of effective managerial personnel is a critical constraint and, in fact, it is often stated that managers are the most expensive
and also the most critical resource in operating any business enterprise. Moreover, it is also the resource that depreciates rapidly and needs a more or less constant updating, essential for maintaining a high degree of managerial effectiveness and it can take place mainly through a continuous updating and development of the knowledge and skills of the managers operating at various levels. Drucker (1977) suggested five habits of the mind that have to be acquired to become an effective executive and consequently effective organization. These habits are management of time, orientation to result, setting and keeping of priorities, decision-making and strength building.

The manager responsible for training is required to review the short-term and long term objectives of the firm in order to determine the direction and purpose of training activities. Where a firm plan to grow in, its existing field- or to diversify, to increase its range of products or services, it is creating new needs for trained people at all levels of the business.

1.5 Concept of training and development

Before discussing the concept in detail it is pertinent to present the training wheel developed by Frances and Roland Bee(1994) Which is self explanatory:
Throughout our lives learning experiences are a potent source of stimulation. As per Goldstein & Ford (1993) ‘training is defined as the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes that result in
improved performance in another environment. Therefore, training programs are planned to produce, for example, a more considerate supervisor, a more competent technician in the workplace, or leaders of complex organizations. In some cases, such as on-the-job training, the instructional environment is almost identical to the actual job environment. In other instances, such as a classroom lecture on electronics theory for technicians, the learning environment is further removed from the job situation. However, in both circumstances effective training stems from a learning atmosphere systematically designed to produce changes in the working environment.

Training is an organized activity aimed at imparting information and/or instructions to improve the recipient’s performance or to help him or her attain a required level of knowledge or skill (web dictionary).

Training is the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and competencies as result of the teaching of vocational or practical skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. Training has specific goals of improving one’s capability, capacity, and performance. It forms the core of apprenticeship and provides the backbone of content at institutes of technology. In addition to the basic training required for a trade, occupation or profession, observers of the labor-market recognize the need to continue training beyond initial qualifications to maintain, upgrade and update skills throughout working life. People within many professions and occupations may refer to this sort of training as professional development (Wikipedia).

Training is an investment in people who work with the organization and for the organization. Training can do wonders by improving employee
knowledge, skills and behavior. It enhances performance, increases productivity and multiplies profits. Today’s competitive environment is more intense than ever before. Significant and rapid changes are affecting the business environment. There have been remarkable changes in technology, political boundaries and treaties, population demographics and consumer preferences in the last decade. These changes have lead to turbulent business environment and in this environment to sustain; the organization needs to evolve continuously its strategy, mechanism, structure, system, processes and people. For competitive edge training is most preferred option.

Human resource development in the organizational context is a process by which the employees of an organization are helped, in a continuous, planned way, to:

- Acquire or sharpen capabilities required to perform various functions associated with their present or expected future roles;
- Develop their general capabilities as individuals and discover and exploit their own inner potentials for their own and/or organizational development purposes; and
- Develop an organizational culture in which supervisor-subordinate relationships, team work, and collaboration among sub-units are strong and contribute to the professional well-being, motivation, and pride of employees.

This definition of HRD is limited to the organizational context. In the context of a state or nation it would differ.
Even an organization that has reached its limit in terms of growth needs to adapt to the changing environment. No organization is immune to the need for processes that help to acquire and increase its capabilities for stability and renewal (Rao, 1991).

The human resource systems (HRS), according to Rao T V & Pareek (1981, 1992) can be assumed that human beings are a great asset to the organization. They are not merely necessary evils to be reckoned with, in fact they can contribute a great deal to the achievement of organization goals. The positive view of people working in the organizations as an asset with unlimited potentials is the care of the concept of the human resource system.

The goal of training and development system (TDS) (HRD system) is to develop (Rao, 1991):

- the capabilities of each employee as an individual
- the capabilities of each individual in relation to his or her present role
- the capabilities of each employee in relation to his or her expected future role(s)
- the dyadic relationship between each employee and his or her supervisor
- the team spirit and functioning in every organizational unit (department, group, etc.)
- collaboration among different units of the organization
- the organization’s overall health and self-renewing capabilities, which, in turn, increase the enabling capabilities of individuals, dyads, teams, and the entire organization
To achieve these goals, TD System/HRD System may include the following process mechanisms or subsystems (Rao, 1991):

- Performance appraisal.
- Potential appraisal and development.
- Feedback and performance coaching.
- Career planning.
- Training.
- Organization development (OD) or research and systems development.
- Rewards.
- Employee welfare and quality of work life.
- Human resources information.

All these process mechanisms are linked with corporate plans, particularly with human resources planning. These mechanisms are designed on the basis of the following beliefs:

1. Human resources are the most important assets in the organization.
2. Unlike other resources, human resources can be developed and increased to an unlimited extent.
3. A healthy climate, characterized by the values of openness, enthusiasm, trust, mutuality and collaboration, is essential for developing human resources.
4. HRD can be planned and monitored in ways that are beneficial both to the individual and to the organization.
5. Employees feel committed to their work and the organization if the organization perpetuates a feeling of ‘belonging’.

6. Employees are likely to have this feeling if the organization provides for their basic needs and for their higher needs through appropriate management styles and systems.

7. Employee commitment is increased with the opportunity to discover and use one’s capabilities and potential in one’s work.

8. It is every manager’s responsibility to ensure the development and utilization of the capabilities of subordinates, to create a healthy and motivating work climate, and to set examples for subordinates to follow.

9. The higher the level of manager, the more attention should be paid to the HRD function in order to ensure its effectiveness.

10. The maintenance of a healthy working climate and the development of its human resources are the responsibilities of every organization (especially the corporate management.).

1.6 A discussion on terms: Personnel development, training and development

In presenting the approach to training, usually three terms are used without definition: personnel development, training, and management development. Attempting to explain these terms is like trying to define "supervisor." Of any seven definitions, four will disagree. However, an attempt has been made to define them: (Malcolm, 1969)
Personnel development is any direct action taken by an organization to change the behaviour of any of its members. Any training action is a system for personnel development, as are most internal communications systems, motivational campaigns, and even management policy letters. The primary concern of personnel development is to achieve behaviour which will help the organization meet its goals.

Training and management development are operating terms falling within the general classification of personnel development. Perhaps the easiest way to define these words is to make a comparison between them on several points in system terms, training and management development have totally different missions. Training supplies specific knowledge, skills, or attitudes needed by the organization to meet its goals. It is oriented to the completion of specific tasks within standards of productivity. Management development supplies individuals prepared to meet company goals in specific positions or functions. In other words, it prepares individuals to perform whole groups of tasks. Training further differs from management development in that its problems result from substandard or nonexistent conditions caused by lack of knowledge or skills or by unacceptable attitudes within individuals or groups of individuals in the organization, while management development deals with the problem of improving existing conditions by reinforcing or adding to present knowledge, skills, or attitudes of individuals within the organization. Here then is the critical difference in their system mission: the problem solving of training action
vs. the individual growth programming of development. The selection and evaluation of participants therefore vary. Participants are chosen for training because they lack skills, knowledge, or attitudes needed to satisfy job requirements; for management development they are chosen because their performance demonstrates a potential for further responsibilities. Training participants are evaluated only for that area of their job performance within the scope of the training program, while management development participants are judged in terms of their total job performance and contribution to organizational goals. Finally, training needs are based on present and anticipated task requirements, while management development needs are based on planned manpower requirements to meet organizational goals.

In summary, it can be differentiate between training and management development in three ways:

- Training deals with current needs; management development deals with predicted needs.
- Training is job oriented; management development is man oriented.
- Training usually deals with specific task requirements; management development deals with organizational requirements or task complexes.
- The effect of both training and management development is to change human behaviour. They have a common objective: the development of human resources. It has been said that a business organization is distinct from its competitors in only one respect: its people. An
organization's plant, processes, equipment, even its new technical breakthroughs, can be duplicated by its competitors. But its human resources cannot: they can only be pirated. In today's business environment, human resources are the most expensive and valuable asset of an organization. The development of this resource, the change of its behaviour, is crucial to the success of any organization.

1.7 Importance of training in HRD

Training is the essence of human resource development. Rao (1991) explains it as a process that deals with creating conditions that enable people to get the best out of themselves and their lives. Development is a never-ending process. As people develop themselves and their direction, new problems and issues arise requiring them to develop new competencies to meet the changing requirements, aspirations and problems. At the organization level the goal of HRD is normally to have competent and motivated people to ensure higher level of productivity, profitability and growth of the organization. Organization directs their HRD efforts towards the development of competencies, culture and commitment among employees individually or in groups. Without competent and committed employees organization can achieve very little even if they have excellent technological and other resource bases.

Human Resource Development is an organized set of learning experiences provided by an employer within a specified period of time to bring about the possibility of performance improvement and /or personal growth (Nadler, 1970). Within HRD there are three activity areas: Training, Education
and Development as defined by Nadler (1970); training results in learning that is focused on the present job for the learner; education is learning focused on a future job for the learner; and development is learning that is not focused on reference to any particular job but organization as a whole.

According to Strayton (1972), training for industry and commerce is concerned with the acquisition or development of knowledge, skills, techniques, attitudes and experiences that enable an individual to make his most effective contribution to the combined effort of the team of which he is a member. Dugan Laird (1978) defines training as an experience, a discipline or a regimen, which causes people to acquire new predetermined behaviors. Nadler (1992) in his book on "Developing Human Resources" describes training as "those activities, which are designed to improve performance on the job the employee is presently doing or is being hired to do.

According to the Manpower Services Commission's glossary of training terms, training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behavior through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Management training is recognized as the systematic and continuous development of that knowledge and those skills and attitudes, which will prove beneficial both to the organization and to the individual in achieving the objective of the organization as given by ILO (1972).

According to Sah (1991), Management training denotes planning of a learning situation by selective appropriate management of knowledge and skills suitable to the requirement of pre-specified jobs so that the learner after
learning can perform the jobs effectively in the organization. According to him, management training is to improve managerial practices with the help of modern management practices in the organization.

Hasseling (1971) defines training as a sequence of experiences or opportunity designed to modify behaviors in order to attain a standard objective. Oatey (1970) defines it as any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill at a task. Virmani and Seth (1985) define training as ‘the acquisition of concepts, theories, knowledge, skills and attitudes and development as the application of acquired knowledge, skills and attitude to the job for increasing organizational effectiveness’.

According to Laird (1978) the development activity takes the form of acquiring new horizon, new technologies, new viewpoints. It can lead the entire organization to newly developed goods, postures and environments. Sah (1991) describes development in terms of progress made. Development denotes the growth or realization of a person's ability through conscious or unconscious learning. Management development is an activity designed to improve the performance of existing managers to meet the need of organization in future and extend the understanding of the management activity, as advocated by Singh (1989). Sah (1991) also defines management development as progress a learner makes in learning of managerial concept, theories and techniques on how to manage. It may also be said as application of acquired knowledge, skill and attitude to the job after training. Skentchly (1968) highlights the use of management development as a complex process of raising managerial ability in order to improve the effectiveness of
management action. Management development is the planned experience, guided growth and training opportunity provided for those who perform the management functions. This includes all members of management from the president through all supervisory levels and personnel (Craig & Bittel, 1969).

Campbell (1971) briefly differentiates training and development as training courses are typically designed for a short term, stated set purpose, while development involves a broader education for long term purposes. Training and management development can therefore be defined as the attempt to improve managerial effectiveness through a planned and deliberate learning process. The foregoing discussion on the concept indicates that training and development are two sides of the same coin and are interdependent. Training should invariably lead to development in skill, knowledge and attitudes. In a way training is input and development is output. The researcher, uses the terms training and development as synonyms in this study. In other words, it is a process of developing the managers' skills through continuous training programs. These training programs aim at learning of different skills like knowledge, technical, behavioral or attitudinal skills according to the need of the manager for fulfilling the goals of the organization. This process of development is followed to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of managers for putting in their best efforts on their job.

Systematic development of managerial talent is one of the primary tasks of any organization, for its own survival in an increasingly changing environment. The changes expected in the individual can be perceived in
three different areas. Firstly, relates to ones attitudes such as ones motivational, emotional or intellectual make-up and is likely to enhance the effectiveness of an individual to a variety of external stimuli. Secondly, the skills of the individual especially the intellectual and inter-personal abilities undergo a change. Thirdly, the knowledge and in particular the extent of information also changes. All these changes are capable of enhancing the effectiveness of the individual as a manager.

1.8 Need of training and development

The objective behind transfer of knowledge is broadening and influenced by social, political, economic and technological trends in the environment. It develops a more realistic understanding of the causes and effects. Managers' work involves getting the job done by diagnosing problems, acquiring and interpreting data, and testing alternative solutions. To deal with employees in organization, managers should have good social interaction skills, to help him in coordinating activities. Giles (1977) recommended that a manager's training needs may be divided into three categories, Intellectual knowledge, Problem solving, and Skills of social interaction also referred as changing attitudes.

Singh (1989) attributes rapid technological development as the reason behind the necessity for managers to update their knowledge and skills. Managers are often made to handle areas of responsibility that are radically different from their academic specialization. There has been a basic change in the style of management in recent years. Managers have become more and more behaviorally oriented. They have to be sensitive, to the needs and
aspirations of their subordinates and colleagues. The focus is increasing towards the human system as major source of improvement by the organizations to sustain the tremendous pressure for survival and growth.

Management skill development is one of the most frequently reported types of training over last several years (Froiland, 1993). The main reason is that managers are critical for success of the company and play crucial role in giving direction to the activities implemented in the organization. The capability of organization to achieve its business strategy depends on the ability of its managers. Managers are responsible for setting challenging ambitions, developing product market strategies that sustain the competitiveness of the business. They are responsible for creating functional and product market strategies, developing and effectively using systems for managing the business, shaping organization culture for the future, structuring and restructuring the business according to the emerging priorities, and optimizing profits by continually improving sales and service with today's customers and products.

1.9 Objectives of training and development

Many experts have suggested different objectives for training of managers. But all of them agree on the following points. The common objectives of are:
i. To improve the job performance of managers currently in post.

ii. To provide adequate 'cover' in the event of unexpected short-term changes such as deaths, transfers, resignations or any other unanticipated developments.

iii. To raise the general level of management thinking and understanding in all branches and at all levels in the organization.

iv. To provide supply of managerial talent which will fulfill the anticipated needs of the future development of the organization in terms of environmental change and growth.

v. To extend the frontiers of knowledge in the understanding of the management function.

vi. To give the specialists an overall view of the functions of an organization and equip them to coordinate each other's efforts effectively.

vii. To increase the morale of the members of the management group.

viii. To improve thought process and analytical ability.

ix. To broaden the outlook of the executive regarding his role/position and responsibilities.

x. To understand the conceptual issues relating to economic, social and technical areas.

xi. To understand the problems of human relations and improve human relations skills.

xii. To stimulate creative thinking (Rao, 1992).
Setting clear objectives of training is necessary to give a right direction to designing of training programs, selection of methods and materials for training and for evaluation of training effectiveness.

1.10 Role of learning in training and development

Learning has been described as a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of insight, practice or experience. Learning has been defined by Kim, (1993) as the process of increasing one's capacity to take action.

Learning takes place more readily in some circumstances than in other and hence can be influenced. Reynolds, Caley and Mason (2002) distinguished it from training as learning is the process by which a person acquires new knowledge, skills and capabilities whereas training is one of several responses and organization can take to promote learning. Pedler, Boydell and Burgoyne (1989) opine that learning is concerned with increase in knowledge or a higher degree of an existing skill, but development is more towards a different state of being or functioning. An operational definition of learning refers it to change in a subjects behavior or behavior potential in a given situation brought about by the subjects repeated experiences in that situation, provided that the behavior change cannot be explained on the basis of the subjects natural response tendencies, maturation or temporary states. It emphasizes the relative permanency of learning. Learning of knowledge and skills imparted during training and management development can be increased through various factors such as motivation, response and
reinforcement, feedback, participation and knowledge, perception of trainee and setting of training objectives.

Therefore while setting training objectives, designing and developing training program and implementing training, it is important to take care of the factors influencing learning for better and effective results or outcome of training. Mintzberg (1975) opined that at a personal level, managers have to widen their perspectives and enlarge their information base by resorting to diverse sources of information, formal and informal which can enable strategic thinking.

Ulrich & Brockbank (2005) formulated learning activities for five competency domains as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency domain</th>
<th>Development activity</th>
<th>Selected authors</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| Strategic contribution | • Identify new ways your managers and employees need to behave in the future if they are to achieve their goals and outperform their business competitors.  
• Build a more effective culture by sharing information, experience, and knowledge across organizational boundaries.  
• Develop and implement guidelines that will help meetings reach decisions more quickly, with greater commitment, better follow-through, and consistently measurable results.  
• Prior to facilitating a decision-making process, develop your own recommendations for each issue likely to be raised.  
• Develop an internal communication plan that disseminates customer or shareholder information in a high-impact manner.  
• Visit customers to elicit direct feedback about company performance.  
• Serve on a cross-functional team to identify customer buying habits and recommend action steps to improve market share. | Jim Collins Lee Dyer Paul Evans Jac Fitzenz Charles Handy John Kotter Edward Lawler Dave Nadler Jeffrey Pfeffer Vladimir Pucik Edgar Schein Arthur Yeung |
| Personal credibility | • Apply Six Sigma quality standards and processes to improve the accuracy of all HR activities and practices.  
• Avoid using the word / for an entire day.  
• Practice nonjudgmental empathizing with family members or close friends.  
• Practice drawing visual images of complex problems that clarify the key issues so that they can be specifically addressed.  
• Lead an HR or management team in a discussion of ethics and business issues to clarify the company's ethical parameters and define processes that will help ensure compliance.  
• Elicit feedback from colleagues on a key dimension of your interpersonal skills. Act on the feedback. Don't be defensive. Translate the feedback into simple and focused action.  
• Make a presentation to a major conference on an HR activity in your company. Arrive to repeat the presentation for an internal audience.  
• Have some of your written materials critiqued by a writing coach from a local college or university.  
• When listening to effective speakers in any forum, take notes about the content of the message and also about the speaking techniques they use to get their messages across. |
|---|---|
| | Peter Block  
Dale Carnegie  
Steven Covey  
Marshall Goldsmith  
Daniel Goleman  
Dale Lake  
Brian Tracy |
| HR delivery | • Work for a local voluntary association in a position that involves evaluating association members for promotion.  
• Work with a line manager to identify the technical and cultural competencies that organization may need in the future, which of these competencies have a shortage or surplus, and what needs to be done to bridge the gap.  
• Help a colleague design an individual developmental plan for becoming a relatively more effective player in a major company change initiative.  
• Engage a coach to observe you and give you feedback on your behavior and performance.  
• Become involved in an organization |
| | Dick beatty  
John Boudreau  
Robert Eichinger  
Fred Foulkes  
Jay Galbraith  
Lynda Gratton  
Mark Huselid  
William Joyce  
Robert Kaplan  
Steve Kerr  
Mike Lombardo  
Henry Mintzberg  
Rober Quinn  
Craig Schneier |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic contribution</th>
<th>Business knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Identify what percentage of employees create 90 percent of your company's wealth. Interview employees in that group concerning what they desire by way of both financial and non-financial reward. Design customized rewards for those individuals.</td>
<td>- Interview leading thinkers from each component of the value chain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Determine what percentage of your reward system is at risk and what percentage is entitled. Determine what might be done to make the system more responsive to performance.</td>
<td>- Develop a process for identifying and transferring internal best practice across departments or businesses within your company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jim Collins Lee Dyer Paul Paul Evans Jac Fitz- evans Charles Handy John Kotter Edward Lawler Dave Nadler Jeffrey Pfeffer Vladimir Pucik Edgar Schein Arthur Yeung</td>
<td>- Conduct a value chain analysis. Where in the value chain does your company outperform your competitors and vice versa? Where in the value chain is it most important for your company to outperform the competition?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Work with your company's investment officer to identify the buy, hold, or sell criteria of some of your dominant shareholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Study five recent speeches by national union leaders and identify the major themes and their implications for your future contract negotiations.</td>
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1.10.1 Aspects of learning

Learning has been described as a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of insight, practice or experience. Learning may be simply an addition (new information): it may be a subtraction (unlearning a bad habit): or it may be a modification (adjusting new knowledge to old). Learning as change may be for the better or for the worse: we learn bad habits as well as good ones. Learning may be conscious or unconscious: we take courses in the English language but we unconsciously acquire styles of speech and gesture from family and friends (ILO, 1972).

Learning is such a complicated process that no one can really claim to know how it occurs. Learning takes place more readily in some circumstances than in others, and that it can go to a great extent. To facilitate learning, a trainer needs to understand the various factors which bear upon the learning process.

1.10.2 Motivation for learning

Perhaps the most important factor in learning is motivation to learn. Experimental evidence indicates that little learning takes place in the absence
of motivation. What motivates one person to learn may, of course, be quite different from what motivates another. For some people, it is the interest or challenge of the task (intrinsic motivation): for others, it is the anticipated reward or punishment (extrinsic motivation, e.g., money, certification): for still others, it is the need for recognition or status. Up to a point, the stronger the motivation, the more learning takes place, but beyond a critical level, the learner becomes too anxious and tense to learn effectively (some of the energy that has been aroused is spilling over in tension, which disturbs learning).

1.11 The views of Ulrich & Brockbank on training and development

In high-performing firms, individual training and overall organization development activities are integrated into a cooperative whole. Conceptually and practically, they are linked as a single comprehensive agenda. Elsewhere, they often turn into a tug-of-war between psychologists who emphasize individual training (classroom and on the job) and organizational development (OD) specialists who focus on team or organizational interventions and tend to ignore individuals. One-up-manship between the two groups—each trying to outdo the other in importance, impact, and image—can become as dysfunctional as to undercut performance.

According to them training programs consist of five major sets of activities:

- Training in basic skills (reading, writing, arithmetic), technical skills (activity-based costing, inventory management), or leadership skills (strategy, organizing, coaching).
- Pursuit of overall culture and strategy agendas.
• Individual career development.
• Filling cultural and technical performance gaps.
• Providing experience in high-value-added and challenging work assignments. Cognitive training must include an application component in which the individual is able to synthesize and practice lessons before applying them on the job.

Organization development is also a key component of an overall developmental agenda. OD probably has as many different definitions as there are companies employing OD specialists. At a minimum, OD generally refers to change interventions at the organization and team levels. In the HR Competency Study, they identified two key OD activities:

• Designing developmental intervention programs that facilitate change
• Orchestrating large-scale communication initiatives that help people know where the organization is headed and how it will get there

1.11.1 Strategy of training and development

For successful outcomes of training and management development program, it is necessary to have clear goals, a possible strategy for attaining them, and precise specifications for each part of the training task including the resources of time, skill and facilities. Lynton and Pareek (2004) suggested four key issues for training strategy. They are: the need for a action perspective in establishing a training strategy; setting goals; planning the specifications; and programming the resources and their sequences for these
requirements. Action perspective in training is a systematic attempt to develop the human resources - individual, group and organizational competencies required to manage some present tasks and situations as well as those in the future. It is followed by setting of goals or objectives. Then the time comes for defining training specifications and deciding them with the trainers. Next is the most important step of organizing the various training inputs for maximum effectiveness and in an economic way.

Training strategy formulation, testing in practice, review and development costs much time and effort but is justified by making training effective and economical.

1.11.2 Strategic HRD (Training & Development)

In the search to make HR more strategic and relevant to contemporary organisations, HR systems have become more complex and multi-layered. Responding to criticisms from Caldwell and Storey (2007) that the drive to increase value through HR improvements has led to more disorder and fragmentation in HR processes leading to confusion and frustration amongst internal customers, Ulrich (cited in Crabb, 2008) maintains that the HR profession must learn to live with increasing complexity and must get comfortable with being strategic and administrative at the same time. Such thinking has lead to the creation of HR business solutions managers and marks a dismantlement of boundaries between HRD and organisational development and establishes a new vision for HRD as being tasked with not only human resource optimisation, but also focused on improving the interaction between human capital and the overall system. In this regard,
HRD plays an important role in work system design and in the improvement of the human–technology interface. IT solutions must be accessible, needs-driven, fit for purpose and capable of unleashing and disseminating knowledge quickly and effectively. Moreover, HRD professionals must work to ensure that both human and technological processes work effectively and in alignment with the overall business strategy.

As Garavan (2007) articulates, strategic HRD is a multi-level concept which enables an organisation to combine different knowledge elements, connect prior and new knowledge and merge internal and external knowledge to ensure sustained competitive advantage. He argues that strategic HRD creates core capabilities which make an organisation more change-ready and adaptive to change. In various contributions (Garavan, 1991, 2007; McCracken and Wallace, 2000; Gilley and Maycunich, 2000), strategic HRD has moved from a prescriptive set of practices to a more descriptive and holistic approach to achieving internal and external alignment and promoting an organisational learning culture. In so doing, HRD professionals must connect with customers both internally and externally through formulating solutions that deliver practical and measurable business results.

‘Doing’ strategic HRD requires knowledge of five key underpinning assumptions. As Garavan (2007) articulates, strategic HRD must recognise the context, the importance of multiple stakeholders and partnerships and the development of vertical and horizontal linkages across the organisation. He argues that to achieve a vertically aligned and horizontally integrated set of learning and development activities, strategic HRD must satisfy five
conditions. First, alignment must be achieved between the organisational mission, corporate plans and HRD vision. Tseng and McLean (2008) recognise the importance of integrating strategic HRD into every aspect of the organisation, such that it encourages proactive behaviour that fits with the internal and external environment. Second, environmental scanning should be regularly conducted and reflected in the shape of corporate strategy and HRD. In agreement, Tseng and McLean (2008) argue that the environment pose a threat to the HRD function and consequently HRD strategy needs to be cell-positioned in the business context. Third, HRD planning should be formal, systematic and integrated with both corporate and firm planning. Indeed, Luoma (2000) suggests that the HRD function may itself facilitate the planning process for the organisation by seeing it as a set of learning experiences related to problem-solving and interaction. Fourth, HRD solutions must be appropriate to the problems faced and must add value. Garavan (2007) argues that HRD must not be seen as a panacea to cure all organisational problems but should be deployed in a responsible effective manner. Finally, sharing ownership of HRD is critical to adding value to the organisation. Crucially, Tseng and McLean (2008) argue that line managers are best placed to assess training needs, facilitate training routes and provide counselling, support and advice to employees, in the next section, we examine in greater depth the evoking role of line managers.

1.11.3 International HRD (Training & Development)

The notion of international human resource development is a relatively new development within the maturing field of HRD (Woodall et al., 2002;
Evarts, 1998). In cost-competitive markets, the standardisation of HRD practices across overseas operations has the potential for producing significant financial and human capital savings, improving productivity and streamlining operational procedures (Lunnan et al., 2002). In addition, the increasing use and application of e-learning and computer-based training has resulted in the delivery of HRD solutions that are timely, current and immediately accessible worldwide (Russell et al., 2003; Lytras et al., 2002). However, in spite of technological advances fuelling standardisation of HRD offerings and increasing structural configurations across global organisations, individual behaviour within these organisations continues to manifest nationally culturally-based dissimilarities (Adler et al., 1986). Furthermore, an outcome of globalisation has been the identification of 'uneven' patterns of economic and social development, making more visible the disparities that exist in education and skill levels (Metcalfe and Rees, 2005). Consequently, HRD has a dual role to play; firstly in developing economic and social well-being and secondly as a means of leveraging value from human capital (Woodall, 2005).

The lack of emphasis on international HRD stems directly from the origins and early development of the field. Both Jankowicz (1999) and Weinberger (1998) argue that academic research in HAD is primarily western and uni-cultural in orientation and strongly influenced by the perspectives of US scholars. Indeed, several calls have been made in the literature for academics to move beyond foundational issues, such as defining the boundaries and scope of HRD towards demonstrating the true value of HRD to the organisation's bottom line and its applicability in different cultural
contexts (McGuire 2006; Ruona et al., 2003). Metcalfe and Rees (2005) argue that current international HRD scholarship that is genuinely international in design and focus remains sparse and fragmented. For their part, Littrell et al. (2006) identify the lack of a unifying theoretical framework as a key factor inhibiting cross-cultural and international HRD endeavours. They advocate the need for greater empirical research to establish the efficacy of current theoretical frameworks.

The ability to conduct international HRD research that produces useful results depends not so much on our choice of methodologies, but on our ability to incorporate in our investigation culture as a major influencing factor and to account for culture's influence on phenomena under investigation. And to do this, we need a better understanding of our own and others' centrally conditioned perspectives and assumptions (Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002).

The HRD is strategically linked to long-term organisational objectives (Garavan et al., 2004) and recognise HRD professionals as 'learning architects (Harrison and Kessels, 2004:90), the challenge for HRD is to construct viable international HRD frameworks and demonstrate the capacity of HRD to add value to the organisation across different cultures. As Wang and McLean (2007) argue, the discipline of HRD needs to develop to accommodate the extensive amount of cross-national work being done by trans-national corporations, trans-national non-government organisations and trans-national political entities.

International training and development (ITD) is one of the international human resource managements. Most crucial activities and potential benefits
of effective training and development are widely acknowledged. Shen (2004) after reviewing the existing literature, argues that while there is growing recognition of the significance of International training and management development, the majority of MNCs do not pay adequate attention to training and developing international managers.

1.12 Theory building

There is a lot of effort in the US to build a sound theory base for HRD. The AHRD annual conference in 2001 has devoted special pre-conference sessions to theory building. There is a concerted effort to promote theory-building competencies among academicians and researchers.

Lynham (2000) observes that theory and theory building research in HRD are starting to increase. Theory is a coherent description, explanation, and representation of observed or experienced phenomenon. Theory building is the process by which coherent descriptions, explanations and representations of observed phenomena are generated, verified, and refined. There is a growing recognition of the importance of theory building in maturing thought and practice in HRD. The contributions to theory building in HRD from streams other than management seem to have come from industrial psychology, sociology, social work studies, social psychology, and organizational studies (Rao, 1991).

‘Theory building is important to the HRD profession for a number of reasons: to advance professionalism in and maturity of the field, to help dissolve tension between HRD research and practice, and to develop multiple
and inclusive methods of research for theory building and practice in HRD’ (Lynham, 2000, p. 162).

Five steps suggested by Lynham (2000), after examining the status of theory building in HRD, are important next steps for the HRD profession. These are:

- We must recognize that sound theory and theory development are important to the maturity of thought and practice.
- We must commit to agree and to clarify inclusive, multiple theory-building research paradigms at a philosophical, rather than at the methods level.
- We must conduct rigorous and relevant research to develop, and make explicit and available, multiple methods and paradigms of theory-building to the HRD researcher and practitioner.
- We must begin to support related efforts and studies in HRD.
- Although some of these studies may currently seem incomplete and perhaps more conceptual than operational, these pioneering steps of discovery and understanding need to be encouraged, supported and made explicit in the HRD body of knowledge.
- We need to participate in symposia and forums to synthesize knowledge and efforts on theory building in HRD.

This discussion indicates that in the USA and UK, HRD has come to be accepted as a profession, though debates about what exactly constitutes it, how is different from HRM, etc., continue. One can draw the following conclusions from this discussion and the review of literature:
- There is a body of knowledge, though somewhat more appropriate for these countries. Some of it is universal and some, context specific.
- There are well defined long-term programs to provide education and training.
- There is a good degree of theorization and research on a continuing basis.
- Professional bodies take interest in promoting research and theorization.
- Universities offer well-tested out and reasonably well-understood certification programs at various levels.
- There are serious efforts being made to define a code of conduct, set standards and ethics for the profession.

According to Rao (1996) there are three approaches or theories with regard to HRD. Of late UNDP developed another approach and they were dealt in brief below:

1.12.1 Human capital approach

In economic terms, human resource development in the early years (1950s and 1960s) was equated with human capital formation. Even this was recognised only after the economists in early years pointed out the importance of human capital. Human capital consists of various activities. Schultz (1961) analysed five areas relating to health, on-the-job training, formal education, adult literacy programmes and migration. One may add nutritional status to this. These are all investments in human resources which
have been not given due importance by traditional economists. Rather, investment in non-human resources was given greater emphasis due to ostensible direct, proportionate and immediate returns accrued out of such investment.

He opines that an economy’s aggregate stock of entrepreneurial ability can also be increased by the immigration of people with particular entrepreneurial experiences and skills.

Further comparing the advantages gained by developed economies, who invested in human capital formation over the developing and underdeveloped countries who did not do much headway in this regard, Schultz (1961) argued in favor of investing in education, health, nutrition, employments and such other primary sectors.

1.12.2 Social psychological approach

McClelland(1961) in his book the “The achieving Society” has propagated this approach. The high achievement motivation among the developed economies was associated with the way the young generation are groomed socially and psychologically. To do consistently better than before is a motivation their characterizes the high achiever's language and culture.

Socialization process, inclusive of degree of challenge offered by the environment, child-rearing practices, language used and interaction pattern of parents in families, interactive factors associated with religion, social classes and social values influence achievement motivation contributing to economic entrepreneurship and concomitant development.
While giving importance to government intervention in the issues of education, health and employment aspects; McClelland highlighted the significance and long standing role played by values, motives and attitudes

1.12.3 The poverty alleviation approach

This approach came to focus with the World Development Report of 1980. This highlights the absolute poverty of underdeveloped nations, and the relative poverty every where as a great problem to be addressed by HRD. Improving primary health, primary education, quality of life along with livelihood programs are considered crucial for poverty alleviation. This approach focus on the marginalized groups in different societies and their upliftment through a self help and empowering process in strategically planed with segmented goals to be achieved over a period of time

1.12.4 The world human development approach

As a sequel to globalization, this approach attempts to focus on grass root level policies for the down trodden poor who are suffering from low quality of life; and are deprived of basic life subsisting needs like food, clothing and shelter and suffer from endemic low life expectancy rates, malnutrition and unemployment. UNDP has been harping at this since 1990 as policy goals.

1.13 Current context and approaches to HRD

The current approaches to human resource development incorporate many of the key dimensions of the earlier approaches and some aim to fuse the economics-dominated and social welfare-dominated concepts. The belief
is that there is a need to reconcile and link approaches which emphasise the role of human resources as inputs into the development process and their contribution to economic growth and development, with those which see people as consumers and the beneficiaries of social development.

1.14 Process of training and development

Training and management development activity has to be properly planned and the first priority for anyone designing training programs is to figure out how the proposed training enhances an organizations ability to deliver quality and thereby stay in business. According to Richard D. Miller (1969) assessment of training needs, objectives setting, design implementation and evaluation are various phases in the process of training.

For every training strategy, main focus is on people and the difference training brings in terms of more effective behavior and performance. Lynton and Pareek (2000) in their training model for development have discussed training process. According to them the training process is divided into three phases: pre-training, training and post training. The pre-training analyzes the need of training and accordingly designs and develops training program. The training phase consists of conducting the training program or bringing the designed and developed training program into practice. Finally the post training phase starts when the training phase concludes. It deals with the transfer of training to the job.

To start with the first step towards training plan is to analyze the need of training. It requires detailed study of the following activities.
1.15 The need of analysis (determination) and assessment in training

A training need may be described as existing any time an actual condition differs from a desired condition in the human, or “people,” aspect of organization performance or, more specifically, when a change in present human knowledge’s, skills, or attitudes can bring about the desired performance (James H. Morrison, ASTD Handbook, 1976).

There are three ways to get at training needs:

1. Assuming a performance problem has been identified with a particular group, survey that group for whom training may be needed, their supervisors, the receivers of the product or services provided by that
group, and their subordinates, if any. Here the focus is on the group responses which, when analyzed properly, can lead to the preparation of training for individuals, usually in groups.

2. Conduct organizational audits that review production financial, personnel, and other operational data from records and reports to uncover problem areas susceptible to correction through training and/or development. A full functional audit of an area may need to be conducted to get a thorough analysis of the situation. Here the focus is on “results” of activities, and work backward to the causes to identify training needs.

3. Assess an individual’s achievement levels, knowledge’s, potentials, behaviors, skills, and performance; prepare a needs analysis; and plan development and training specifically for that individual. Similar techniques may be used with groups of individuals, but the focus is on the individual, and the outcome should include individual development plans. The approaches techniques are:

1.15.1 Survey techniques

Survey techniques range from one-page “yes” or “no” response sheets to highly sophisticated methods requiring a multidisciplinary approach—from the “felt-needs” response of the participants to the carefully constructed questionnaires which scientifically cross-check the responses two or more timers.
1.15.2 The delphi technique

The Delphi technique is a method of systematically soliciting, collecting, evaluating, and tabulating expert opinions, usually in long-range forecasting. It is conducted anonymously in order to reduce distorting factors common in committee decisions, such as the unwillingness to contradict publicly expressed opinions, the bandwagon effect of majority opinions, or the impact of a highly articulate or powerful advocate of particular stance.

1.15.3 Problem survey

The problem inventory is usually administered to a group of people for whom training is to be provided. It is therefore a “problem-centered” approach that leads to practical, specifically targeted program planning.

A training needs assessment is the diagnostic X-ray film for the training analyst. Figure 1.3 presents a model of the components of the needs assessment process (Goldstein, 2007).
Need analysis refers to an investigation into whether training or some other organizational intervention can solve a performance problem or enable a desirable new performance in the workplace. Need assessment is the process of determining what knowledge, skill and attitudes (K.S.As) employees need to perform their jobs. Rummler (1990) describes four training assessment approaches. These are Performance Analysis; Organization and Workgroup Analysis; Task Analysis; Process and Individual Analysis; Competency study; and Training needs survey.
Allison Rosette (1987) defines needs assessment as consisting of two kinds of activities: Gap analysis: Identifying gaps between what is happening and what should be happening. Cause analysis: Identifying causes for the gaps. For this she also suggests three phases of need assessment: Planning, Doing and Using. During the planning phase, she suggested that trainers observe the work environment and read background materials to begin on what to study. In the doing phase they select an appropriate methodology to collect data and then gather data relevant to the problem under investigation. Finally the using phase consists of analyzing the data, identifying likely causes and making recommendations to solve the problem. Rosette (1987) offers number of methods such as interview, focus group, observation, and survey for collection of data to identify level of performance and barriers to performance. The data generated from skill gap analysis reveals deficiencies in one or more of these areas; Skill, Knowledge, Environment, Motivation / Attitude, and Incentives.

Ford (1999) offers simplified need analysis model also known as Ford's Model. It follows four phases: Surveillance, Investigations, Analysis and Action. Surveillance is the on going process of reviewing vital information about an organization to understand the issues and problem it is confronting. The investigation phase begins when confronted with a specific performance problem or opportunity, which requires data gathering. Most common methods used in need analysis are interviews, surveys and observation. Once data has been collected, the analysis phase begins. According to Ford, this can be done by using two basic analytical methods, they are Quantitative and Qualitative. Quantitative methods include statistical analysis numerical
summaries graphs, charts tables and related methods to analyze numbers. Qualitative methods include summaries of interviews, field notes, ethnographic reports, work samples, video or audiotapes, content analysis and other methods to analyze non-numeric data such as people words and actions. Then action is taken based on the information obtained from the data.

1.15.4 Performance analysis

It involves studying and analyzing job performance. Scientific approach in this direction has led to development of human performance technology (H. P. T.). It has evolved over the past decade as a powerful new system for addressing performance issues in the workplace. HPT was coined in 1990’s by International Society for Performance Improvement (ISPI), defined it as a set of methods and process for solving problems or realizing opportunities related to the performance of people. It may be applied to individuals, small groups or large organizations (Stolovitch and Keeps, 1992).

Another influential definition appears in the American Society for Training and Development’s Model for human performance improvement. Human performance improvement is a systematic process of discovering and analyzing important human performance gaps, planning for future improvements in human performance, designing and developing cost effective and ethically justifiable interventions to close performance gaps implementing the interventions and evaluating results (Rothwell W., 1996).

According to Rosenberg and Deterline (1992), model of HPT occurs in five major stages, these are Performance Analysis, Cause Analysis,
Intervention selection, Change management, and Evaluation. Performance analysis centers on analyzing an organization performance requirements and capabilities in order to identify gaps between actual performance and desired performance. The tools of performance analysis include assessment of customer needs and requirements of organization mission and strategy, organizational capabilities and key competencies and measures of current organizational performance. The data obtained through these tools forms the basis for defining an organization's current performance capacity and identifying gaps between current performance and desired performance in the future. Causal analysis is the process of examining all the possible underlying causes for a performance gap in order to choosing a comprehensive intervention that will address all the causes. Selection of appropriate intervention depends on the causes identified. An intervention is simply any conscious action designed to mitigate or eliminate a cause for inadequate performance.

Training and development is an important intervention for improving performance. Change management involves carrying out implementation of the intervention to bring about the desired change. The role of evaluation in HPT is crucial to determine whether the intervention selected and implemented is giving desired results. For this, four level evaluation model developed by Kirkpatrick (1995) is useful.

A second influential model for HPT has been developed by Clark (1995) at the University of Southern California. He has also divided HPT in five stages but they differ from the stages of the model suggested by...
Rosenberg and Deterline (1992). Its five steps are initiating event, Opportunity analysis, Causal analysis, Implementation, and Evaluation. Initiating event is an approach for HPT whenever evidence appears to suggest that human performance is not reaching its full potential. Opportunity analysis analyzes potential opportunity through collection of information regarding performance, performers, organization system and culture. Causal analysis is a process of isolating symptoms of performance problems and assigning them to one of the root causes: motivation, knowledge, culture or system of the organization. Implementation goes for putting in the changes by taking action for desired results. Evaluation is done as per Kirpatrick's four level evaluation model. The results of evaluation studies are used in a formative way to improve the HPT process.

1.15.5 Job analysis

Job analysis is the process of determining how work should be organized and performed. It includes activities such as determining the optimal organizational structure, management reporting relationships, division of labour, job roles and responsibilities, job descriptions, required knowledge, skills and attitudes, compensation and rewards.

Job analysis may be conducted at many levels and with many purposes in mind. Swanson (1994) has identified three basic types of job performance analysis: Present performance problems, Performance improvement opportunities, and Future performance requirements.
Many job analysis models are suggested by Campbell (1988); Hammer and Chanipy (1993); Dunnette and Hough (1991); Nadler, Gernstein, and Sahw (1992).

Competencies are the underlying capabilities required for performing jobs to establish competencies for jobs. Analyses rely on direct observation of work and interviews with incumbents. Competency studies have become particularly popular to document managerial and professional jobs (Dubois, D., 1993). For a corporate executive, the competencies required to perform the job include strategic vision, customer focus, decisiveness, communication abilities, perseverance, emotional intelligence, analytical abilities, and credibility.

1.15.6 Task analysis

Task analysis is the process of breaking a given job down into its component tasks, discovering the relationships among the tasks, and the prerequisite knowledge and skills required to perform the tasks. Task analysis is typically used by training designers to determine the knowledge Skills and attitudes that must be learned in order to perform the job under investigation. Training on job specific skills is always based on a task analysis of the job. Therefore, it is one of the core skills of training design. It also serves as a map of the job and the skills needed to perform it. Task analysis varies in scope from job to job, despite this variation, a standard approach to task analysis is followed.
1.15.7 Learner analysis

Learner analysis is the investigation of the current and future audience for training. It is conducted to understand the prerequisite knowledge; skill and experience of the training audience to better target the intended training. It also includes examining the culture, learning styles, background, values and beliefs of the learners so as to match the training design and methodology to the learners.

Knowles, Holton and Swanson (1998), identified the following general characteristics of adult learners. They are self directing, motivated by self interest, life centered and pragmatic, rely on change as the primary driver to learn and rely on experience to learn. Knowles, et. al., believed that training designers could capitalize on these traits to create more effective training programs. Methodologies used for learner analysis are interview and survey research.

1.15.8 Context analysis

Context analysis examines the environment in which the trainee learns. It includes training environment on the job. It also helps to identify barriers that prevent learning and ways to mitigate these problems.

1.15.9 Skill-gap analysis

Skill-gap analysis is a specialized form of need assessment that examines and documents the gap between employees’ current skill and the skills needed to perform the job successfully. It is especially used when the
basic skills of employees appear inadequate for the job they hold. Significant gap between the current performance of employees and the desired or required performance helps the training designers to demonstrate a need for training depending on the skill areas the gaps point at. These skill gaps also help in formulation of objectives and content of training.

There are a number of techniques to document the existing skills of the workforce. Among the most common tests, performance appraisals and documents, quality assurance data, customer feedback data and self-perceptions are important.

1.16 Design of training

Once the need of training has been analyzed, designing phase starts with carefully crafting of training objectives. These form the goals of the training design and shape its content.

1.16.1 Training objective

Objectives are statements of the specific outcome to be achieved by training. Training objective has been defined by Taylor (1967) as a change in the behavior of the learner. Need assessment helps to identify or select what tasks, procedures, concepts and principle need to be learned. These would then become the training objectives guiding the development of a program.

Training objectives denote two aspects of training quantity and quality. Quantitative objective is concerned with the number of persons to be trained during a particular period of time. Qualitative objective is associated with the
standard of competence to which the learner will be trained. In most training programs, objectives do not exist in isolation. To help instructional designers to sort out objective of a complex training program a hierarchy of objectives is constructed according to Mager (1975). The hierarchy consists of the following elements: Prerequisite objectives, Enabling objectives, Terminal objectives, Application objectives and Results objectives.

1.16.2 Training deliverables

Training deliverable may be defined as any end product of an instructional design process. These training deliverables such as course, workshop or seminar may further be sub-divided into workbooks, manuals, lesson plans overheads, audio-visuals, tests and teaching aids.

Before selecting the options available for training deliverables, the training needs are classified into: Communication skills, Business skills, Analytical skills and Technical skills. Sah (1991) suggested that the design of training session can be divided into following components: Deciding learning topic and sequencing its contents, Selecting suitable training techniques and equipments, Allocating time for learning session, preparing training materials and preparing the final session guide.

A training program uses a variety of communication or instructional devices to create maintain and sustain interest and curiosity in the learner towards facilitating learning. These devices are also called as teaching techniques and aids. Since quality of learning is greatly influenced by these
techniques, its suitable selection is of critical importance while designing teaching sessions of training programs.

1.16.3 Training techniques/methods

There are different training methods to direct the growth of learners in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude enabling them to perform their jobs efficiently and effectively. During a training program variety of training techniques are used in combination. Choice of training techniques depends on the following: Learning objectives, Size of the target population, Learning styles and interest of learner, Course contents and duration of training program, and Training interest and capacity. The training techniques available for management development can be categorized mainly into two types: On-the job techniques and Off-the job techniques. On the job techniques are learning or training on the location or workplace. Transfer of learning is very fast in such techniques. They consist of: Coaching, Job Rotation, Understudy and Multiple Management. Off the job techniques are learning given in a place away from workplace of the person. Due to limitations attached on the job techniques and off the job techniques are used satisfying the requirements of different training objective. These consist of Case Method, Incident Method, Role playing, In Basket Method, Business Game, Sensitivity Training, Simulation, Grid training, Conferences and Lectures.

1.16.4 Coaching

In coaching the trainee is placed under a particular supervisor who acts as an instructor and teaches job knowledge and skills to the trainee.
1.16.5 Job rotation

The transferring of executives from job to job and from department to department in a systematic manner is called Job Rotation. It develops required diversified skills and a broader outlook important at the senior management levels. Also it increases interdepartmental co-operation and reduces monotony of work.

1.16.6 Understudy

An understudy is a person who is in training to assume at a future time the full responsibility of the position currently held by his/her superior. The person develops competencies to fill the post of his/ her superior, which may fall vacant because of promotion, transfer or retirement. It develops decision making, operating, problems solving and leadership skills in the individual.

1.16.7 Case study

Cases are prepared on the basis of actual business situations that happened in various organizations. The trainees are given cases for discussing and deciding upon the case. They are asked to identify the apparent and hidden problems for which they have to suggest solutions. This exercise improves the trainees' decision-making skills by sharpening their analytical and judging abilities.

1.16.8 Incident method

Incidents are prepared on the basis of actual situations. Each trainee is told about the incident and to make short-term decisions in the role of a
person who has to cope with the incident in the actual situation. It aims to develop the trainee in the areas of intellectual ability, practical judgment and social awareness.

1.16.9 Role playing

Asking the participants to assume the role of particular person in the situation stimulates a problem situation. The participant interacts with other participants assuming different roles. Role-playing gives to participants' various experiences, which are of much use to understand people better.

1.16.10 In-basket method

In this method the trainees are first given background about a simulated company, its products, key personnel, various memoranda, requests and all data pertaining to the firm. The trainee has to understand all this, make roles, delegate tasks and prepare memos within a specified amount of time. Abilities that this exercise develops are:

(i) Situational judgment in being able to recall details, establish priorities, interrelate items and determine need for more information.

(ii) Social sensitivity in exhibiting courtesy in written notes, scheduling meetings with personnel involved and explaining reasons for actions, and

(iii) Willingness to make decision and take action.
1.16.11 Business game

In this method trainees are divided into groups or different teams. Each team has to discuss and arrive to decisions concerning such subjects as production, pricing, research, expenditure, etc. assuming itself to be the management of a simulated firm. The other teams assume themselves as competitors and react to the decision. This immediate feedback helps to know the relative, performance of each team. The team's cooperative decision promotes greater interaction among participants and gives them the experience in cooperative group process.

This develops organizational ability, quickness of thinking, leadership qualities and the ability to adopt under stress.

1.16.12 Sensitivity training

The main objective of sensitivity training is the development of awareness and sensitivity for behavioural patterns of oneself and others. This development results in increased openness with others, Greater concern for others, Increased tolerance for individual differences, Less ethnic prejudice, Understanding of group processes, Enhanced listening skills, and Increased trust and support. It develops managerial sensitivity, trust and respect for others. On the contrary it extracts huge emotional cost from the manager.

1.16.13 Simulation

In this technique the situation is duplicated in such a way that it carries a closer resemblance to the actual job situation. The trainee experiences a
feeling that he is actually encountering all those conditions. The trainee is asked to assume a particular role in the circumstances and solve the problems by making a decision. Feedback is given immediately on the performance of the trainee.

1.16.14 Managerial grid

It is a six-phase program lasting, from three to five years. It starts with upgrading managerial skills, continues to group improvement, improves inter-group relations, goes into corporate planning, develops implementation method and ends with an evaluation phase. The grid represents several possible leadership styles. Each style represents a different combination of two basic orientations - concern for people and concern for production.

1.16.15 Conferences

A conference is a meeting of several people to discuss the subject of common interest. But contribution from members can be expected as each one builds upon ideas of other participants. This method is best suited when a problem has to be analyzed and examined from different viewpoints.

It helps the members develop their ability to modify their attitudes. Participants enjoy their method of learning as they get an opportunity to express their views.

1.16.16 Lectures

It is the simplest of all techniques. This is the best technique to present and explain series of facts, concepts and principles. The lecturer organizes
the material and gives it to a group of trainees in the form of talk. The main uses of lecture in development of managers are: It is direct and can be used for a larger group of trainees, it presents the overview and scope of the subject clearly and it presents the principles, concept-policies and experience in the shortest time. But this method does not give much scope for participation.

1.17 Training aids

Training techniques stimulate and direct the learner toward some learning objectives. But effective stimulation in a learning process and situation is achieved through some physical base or objects. These training objects or aids can be classified into three groups: Audio, Visual, and Audio-visual aids.

1.17.1 Audio aids

Facilitate presentation of learning stimulus through sound, talks, dialogues, lecture etc. Sounds are normally presented through radio, tape recorder, record player and sound track. People learn by hearing from these media. In training audio aids are frequently used.

1.17.2 Visual aids

Visual aids facilitate presentation of learning stimulus through vision and people learn by seeing posters, exhibits, pictures, etc. For visual presentation of an issue or theme a number of equipment are available such as black board, flannel board and graph, magnetic board, flipchart board and
chart displays and exhibits-posters, charts, graphs, silent video tape, episcope or opaque projector, overhead projector, film strips, silent films, film slides etc. visual aids in one or other form are very popular in teaching and training circles because they are comparatively more effective than audio aids.

1.17.3 Audio - Visual aids

Audio-visual equipments are used for combined presentation of sound and vision. Sound and vision effect human sensory organs and put the learner in a situation as if he is experiencing the events problems and environment as real. A variety of audio-visual equipments are used now days in education and training program such as film projectors, television including closed circuit television and videocassette recorder and player. Preparation of visual and audiovisual aids requires professional competence.

The business world is changing at an ever increasing pace. The globalization of markets, the revolution in information and communication technologies, the increasing importance of financial markets and the war for talent are only a few of the change drivers in the current business climate. Thus business is becoming more and more complex. Many organizations are encouraging newly trained and empowered employees to implement many innovative practices including continuous improvement, empowerment, activity based costing, re-engineering, quality circles, total quality management, balanced score card, competency mapping, employee engagement, employee wellness programs etc.
1.17.4 Training materials

Materials are used along with aids in training. Printed or photos fact notes handouts are distributed to each trainee either at the beginning, mid or at the end of a session while applying training techniques. Trainer may use displays, exhibits, picture, graphs, posters, charts, books, printed matters etc. For use of any materials and equipment in any training technique there is need to plan, prepare, present and maintain them. Choice of suitable material and equipment can be made depending on training objective, training techniques, nature of subject contents, learning climate, level of participants, budget of training capability of training to use equipment and other practical problems.

1.18 Training budget / and schedule

Training involves two kinds of budgets: Preliminary budget and Operating budget. Preliminary budget is usually prepared at the outset along with a proposal to provide training services. Operating budget is more detailed, based on the actual working of training program. Calculation of budget we requires list of resources for training and their estimated cost. They may be divided into labour costs, which may include professional labour, contract labour, administrative labour and non- labour costs comprising of publishing & printing, Video / Audio Aids, Software, Travel and shipping, Office Supplies, and Overhead expenses. Along with this it is important to calculate an approximate contingency amount. Based on this final budget is prepared which includes actual costs based on the individual resources employed and actual days worked, based on the project schedule. The best
A rule of thumb for estimating a training design project is past experience. According to Greer (1992), successful budgeting can be made through estimated design projects based on the volume of materials and other deliverables required for the respective training program. Scheduling is a critical skill especially for designers. The key to scheduling is to accurately predict the time it takes to complete each task and then execute within that time. Scheduling starts with a complete list of all the phases of training project. Then within each of this phase a complete list of tasks to be performed is developed and arranged in chronological order. Then time limit of each task is estimated and finally contingency time of 5-20 per cent is kept depending on the complexity of the project.

1.18.1 Training project management

It involves planning, organization, staffing, directing and controlling aspects of the training program. Its main role is to balance and synchronize, cost, time and quality with goals of training.

1.18.2 Design blueprints and prototypes

It is a detailed document that includes the objectives, budget, schedule, project team, proposed content and a prototype of what the finished training program will look like.

The critical element of the training blueprint includes the following: Course objectives, Prerequisites, Content Outline, Presentation / Demonstration methods, Practical activities, Training deliverables, Assessment / Test description and Evaluation plan.
1.19 Development of training

The development of training requirements is crucial to the achievement of the objectives of training and their impact on business results. It consists of drafting of materials, developing tests or assessment for measuring the effectiveness of training, maintaining desired standards through quality control and finally the full-scale production of the training materials.

1.20 Implementation

The implementation step is also referred to as delivery phase. In this phase training design is finally implemented. In other words, training programme is conducted. The availability of new techniques of training and the presence of specialized institutes for conducting training programmes have opened new ways of training. Training can be conducted in the organization which is referred as In-house training. In this type of training, trainers may be from the organization or specialists / consultants (training) outside the organization, Organisations also sponsor their executives to attend training in other organizations or institutions. This type of training is referred to as external training.

Both in-house and external training have their advantages and disadvantages. Training may also be implemented on- the job or off- the job. On the job training refers to training given while doing the job. This does not require sending the trainee away from work. They learns by practice. It is informally carried out in many organizations. For off- the job training trainees are either sponsored for external training or are given classroom training in
the organization. The selection of type of training depends on the objective of training, number of trainees and budget of the organization.

1.21 Evaluation of training

Hamblin (1970) defined evaluation of training as any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of training program and to assess the value of training in the light of that information for improving future training. Training evaluation has two primary purposes, to improve the effectiveness of training and to demonstrate its result. These twin purposes were described as formative and summative evaluation by Scriven, M. (1967). Formative evaluation focuses on improving the training process and the effectiveness of training. It is an internal evaluation process used by trainers to assess their own work and discover ways to make continuous improvements in the training process. It is used to monitor the quality of an instructional design projects and assure that they achieve their stated objectives. Summative evaluation is result oriented. It focuses on assessing the impact of completed training program to determine whether they met their goals and their relevance in future. According to Philips (1997) the importance of training is shifted towards financial benefits, which has increased emphasis on summative evaluation.

Evaluation remains an important aspect of the training process. Without evaluation, there is no mechanism for establishing the changes to be made to the training program, the degree of learning attained by participants and the effectiveness of training along both financial and non-financial metrics. In terms of general observations from the research data, it appears
that HRD practitioners are not very knowledgeable about evaluation processes and often employ evaluation in a strategic manner to both satisfy political motives and justify training expenditures. These factors will affect how the evaluation is structured and the results obtained from the implementation of the process (Hamblin, 1974).

Knowledge of ontology will provide HRD practitioners with an understanding of the evaluation choices available to them and the methods (qualitative and quantitative) through which the data should be collected. Too often, organisations rely solely on reactionnaires (smile sheets) to gain instant feedback on participant satisfaction with training. Such practices ignore the rich tapestry of evaluation information that can be collected through a considered and planned evaluation methodology. Employing a variation and combination of evaluation techniques will provide organisations with more accurate and detailed information leading to the more effective selection of participants, tailoring of teaching styles and individualising the learning experience (Hamblin, 1974).

The Kirkpatrick (1991) four-levels taxonomy remains the most consistently used method for evaluation training. Its conceptual simplicity makes it attractive to HRD practitioners; however, all four levels are rarely implemented by organisations. The reactions level measures contentedness of participants with training content, training structure, instructor style and assessment type. The learning level examines the knowledge and skill progression of participants arising from the training course. The transfer level assesses how well learning is employed in the workplace. Finally, the results
level gauges the impact of training on organisation metrics such as productivity and profitability. A key criticism of the Kirkpatrick four-levels taxonomy relates to the lack of correlation among each of the levels. Furthermore, HRD practitioners need to be aware of other evaluation models, beyond that of Kirkpatrick, which may be more appropriate to their needs.

As a process, benchmarking (Yesin, 2002) enables an organisation to measure its achievements against industry standards and identify strategic gaps in its operations. Three types of benchmarking are commonly in operation: product benchmarking enables organisations to conduct an analysis of their product versus a competitor offering along a specific set of criteria such as functionality, design, performance and environmental features. Process benchmarking compares the effectiveness of work systems and practices and identifies areas where further improvements can be made. Finally, best practice benchmarking ascertains centres of excellence across organisations where specific practices are widely admired and propel superior performance. These practices are then adapted and incorporated into the host organisation to improve overall efficiency and effectiveness.

The balanced scorecard (Kaplan and Norton, 2004) offers organisations an opportunity to manage their operations more effectively through examining performance across a range of metrics, rather than solely relying on traditional financial measurements. The balanced scorecard allows organisations to look at outputs and the drivers of those outputs. In so doing, it allows management to set a range of priorities for the short, medium and long-term to align the organisation with the external environment. Through the
four perspectives of financial, customer, internal process and learning and
growth, a more complete picture of the state of the organisation is provided
and such an analysis can be easily communicated to employees. Some
research on the balanced scorecard questions its overall effectiveness and
there is evidence to suggest that weak levels of correlativity exist among
some of the metrics used in the balanced scorecard.

1.21.1 Hamblin evaluation framework (1974)

Reaction level: Measures employee opinions regarding the nature of
the training programme. It examines usefulness of training, perceptions in
relation to content and trainers.

Learning level: Measures the content of what trainees have learned,
particularly in relation to knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Job behaviour level: Measures the impact of the HRD programme on
the behaviour of employees in the workplace. It seeks to establish the level of
training transfer.

Department level: Measures effect of learning on departmental metrics
and examines how changes in job behaviour have impacted upon the
department

Organisation level/ultimate value: Measures how the organisation has
benefited from the HRD programme. This will be examined in terms of
metrics such as growth profitability and productivity.
1.21.2 Warr, Bird and Rackham evaluation matrix (1976)

Context: Focuses on factors such as identification of training needs and objective-setting in relation to organisation culture and climate.

Input: Examines the design and delivery of the training activity and how individual interventions are framed.

Reaction: Explores the process of acquiring and using the feedback received in relation to individual trainee experiences.

Output: Measures training outcomes along three dimensions: immediate post-intervention changes, training transfer back to the workplace and impact on departmental and organisational performance.

1.21.3 Easterby-Smith evaluation framework (1986)

Context: Examines factors surrounding the HRD programme, such as organisational culture, climate, values, provision of support and availability technology.

Administration: Examines how the HRD programme is marketed and communicated to employees. Looks at pre-programme instructions, location of programme and expectations communicated to trainees.

Inputs: Examines the various elements to comprise the training programme – such as training techniques to be used, topics to be covered, format of training room etc.
Process: Examines the content of the HRD programme and the means by which the content is delivered. Focuses on how learning is structured and the experiences of participants.

Outputs: Examines the changes that occur as a result of the HRD programme. At the individual level, this focuses on the knowledge, skills and attitude changes.

CIPD model of value and evaluation 2007: Evaluation is considered across four dimensions:

Learning function measures: Focuses on the effectiveness and efficiency of the learning function. It examines the provision of training and competence of personnel within the function.

Return on expectation measures: Looks at the anticipated benefits of the training programme and whether these have been achieved. Attempts to establish what changes have occurred as a result of the programme.

Return on investment measures: Examines the benefits resulting from the training programme relative to the costs incurred over a specific period of time. Explore how learning is contributing to the attainment of key performance targets.

Benchmark and capacity measures: Compares the programme to a set of internal and external standards. Seeks to promote good practice and a culture of continuous improvement.
Virmani and Premila's (1985) model of evaluation is based on the following three stages, they are Pre-training evaluation, Context and Input evaluation, and Post-training evaluation. Their model shares lot of similarity with Wait's (1969) model but is more elaborative. Virmani & Premila's model puts more stress on post training evaluation. At this stage, they evaluate learning, prepare job improvement plan with trainee, followed by on the job evaluation to assess the transfer of training to the job and finally conduct follow-up of evaluation to assess the contribution of training program to the organization. For evaluation to be effective it is important that evaluation should be carried out at different stages of training program starting from analyzing to evaluation.

1.22 Effectiveness of training

Druckcr (1966) has stated in his book 'The effective executive' that 'to be effective is the job of the executive'. Here, the effectiveness of executive refers to the success in accomplishment of desired objectives of an organization. Reddin (1990) says that managerial effectiveness is the extent to which managers achieve the output requirements of their position. In this business environment influenced by economic, technological and socio-political changes, effectiveness of management requires highly competent executives. The main factors effecting managerial effectiveness are:

i. External factors government policies laws, etc

ii. Environment work style or culture of the organization and

iii. The Manager (Dharam, 1997)
For managerial effectiveness there is need of enlightened managers have to learn the activities and develop perception and attitude towards positive decision making and getting work done in the organization. Effectiveness generally means the extent of target realization (Sinha 1973). Steers (1976) observed that effectiveness is best judged against managerial ability to compete in a turbulent environment successfully by acquiring and using its resources. From the standing point of an organization, managerial effectiveness is seen as the degree to which management achieves the organizational goals given its environmental constraints or other uncontrollable and/or unpredictable events. In the long run managerial effectiveness also entails the growth, adaptability, health and viability of the organization (Richman, Barry and Fanner, 1975).

Management development and training programs have an important role to play in improving performance of an organization. Management development activities provide executives with a systematic and integrated approach to facilitate a fuller understanding of their tasks. It leads to broadening of the overall perspective of the executives in relation to the entire management process and enhances their ability to analyze the management problems from the viewpoint of the entire organization rather than from a narrow department or divisional viewpoint. Moreover, broad based training programs also provide a forum for a free exchange of knowledge and experience among the executives of enterprises belonging to different sectors of the economy. Specific segments of the management development programs enable the enterprise managers to equip themselves with modern
management methods and techniques, and also bring them in touch with current thinking on managerial issues in major areas of management.

1.23 Efficiency through training

Efficiency is denoted by the ratio of output to input (Koontz, 1986). Its focus is on how economically goal oriented activity is performed. In other words, it is concerned with the input of effort into all areas of activity, or a measure of how well resources are being used to produce output (Bennis, 1969). It concentrates on economic and technical facets of the enterprise. Efficiency of manager is to achieve objective in better way through less wastage of time and raw materials. To increase efficiency of executives training plays crucial role by updating them on time saving strategies latest technological advancements which can be used by them to increase input-output ratio of the resources used in work process.

1.24 Sources of potential training needs

The training needs can be categorized into two types and they are ‘Micro’ and ‘Macro’. A micro training need exists for just one person or for a very small population, whereas, the macro training need exist in a large group of employees mainly, in the entire population with the same job classification.

The Human Resource Management activities of an organization for maintaining personnel systems lead to many training needs, such as:
i. Promotions: When one person moves into a position of greater responsibility, there will a gap between the persons inventory and the knowledge and skill required to perform properly in the new position.

ii. Transfers: Switching to new responsibilities may lead to temporary mismatch between what the employees can already do and what must be done to perform satisfactorily in the new placement.

iii. Appraisals: This system helps by giving suggestion for improvement in ones performance

iv. Career planning programs: Helps to reveal deficiencies or areas where one lacks in current inventories.

v. Management by objectives: Statements of plans for the work helps to show the deficiencies in the person concerned.

vi. An accident: It may signal about unawareness regarding safety measures.

vii. Quality control recording: The records show the profile of individual and reveals consistent errors.

viii. Grievances: The constraints hindering performance are revealed.

ix. New positions: Creating new positions in the organization requires induction training for new entrants.

x. Special assignments: Helps to educate and develop incumbent employees.

xi. Job Descriptions: It identifies micro training needs.

xii. New plants, New products (Diversification), New Equipment, Change in standards, New policies also play crucial role in identifying the need of training.
1.25 Organisation development and training

Therefore, the organization development is the field of study that deals with creating and implementing planned change in organizations. Bennis defines organization development as a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies with training skills, markets, and challenges, and the dizzying rate of change itself.

According to Tichey, Fornbrun, and Devanna (1982), there are three core issues that organization must restore in developing and implementing strategy related to organization development. The first one is technical design, it arise in relation to how the product or service will be determined, created and delivered, the second one is cultural/Ideological, which relate to the shared beliefs and values that employees need to hold for the strategy to be implemented effectively. And the last one is political: These occur as a result of shifting power and resources within the organization as the strategy is pursued. Hence, Organization development provides a research base and a set of techniques that allow these decisions to be made and implemented in a more objective and well thought out manner.

Organization development uses an open-system, planned change process that is rooted in the behavioral sciences and aimed at enhancing organizational and employee effectiveness. OD focuses on change similarly training also focuses on change therefore the principles of OD are applicable to training efforts. By including an analysis of organizational problems as an integral part of the training needs the organization ends up not only with
training programs that address critical competencies but also an increased awareness of what problems need to be solved by other means. Training can also use organization information to design better programs so that potential application programs are included in the training.

Ultimately training and development of the organization both aim towards improving competencies and performance of employees in the organization. They depend on each other for betterment of organization as a whole by fulfillment of organization aims and objectives. Therefore, the present study has surveyed some earlier studies of different authors and investigators which are related to the current study.

1.26 The system of training and development

Training and management development system refers to identifying, organizing training and resources, and providing the actual training. The training system consists of following tasks: building and maintaining support for existence and continuation of training; building training competencies and overall training capacity; developing training materials; building internal structure and process, and developing policy; strategic planning, networking training resources; facilitate transfer of training; and monitoring, evaluating, appraising and controlling performance.

Pareek and Rao (1975) outlined a philosophy for the new HRD System. They outlined 14 principles to be kept in mind in designing the HRD System. These principles deal with both the purpose of HRD systems and the process of their implementation. Some of the principles are:
• HRD systems should help the company increase enabling capabilities. The capabilities outlined in their report include: development of human resources in all aspects, organizational health. Improvements in problem-solving capabilities, diagnostic skills, capabilities to support all other systems in the company, etc:

• HRD systems should help individuals recognize their potential and help them contribute their best in various organizational roles that they are expected to perform:

• HRD systems should help maximize individual autonomy through increased responsibility:

• HRD systems should facilitate decentralization through delegation and shared responsibility:

• HRD systems should facilitate participative decision-making:

• HRD systems should attempt to balance the current organizational culture along with changing the culture:

• There should be a continues review and renewal of the function.

A developed training system ensures continuous development of individual, group and organization. In long term the efforts put in developing a training system pays in terms of maximum utilization of resources and have proved to be economic. The Instructional Systems Design, also known by its acronym, the ADDIE model was given by J. Ford (1999) and it is the most used instructional design system today. It consists of five phases, analyze, design, develop, implement and evaluation.
With the above discussion the study has organized in six chapters and they were discussed in the following paragraphs.

1.27 The training and development in India

The present age is the age of technology revolution. This stage of development has highly influenced the work process through the development of sophisticated methods and machines. Development in the field of software and frequent use of microelectronic technology in the work process require highly skilled and quality human resource in all the fields of economic activities. The process of training in the industrial sector is highly essential in creating quality people both among the managerial and operative staff.

India has the problem of developing thousands and thousands of capable industrial managers in the organizations for achieving the goals of industrial development. India needs capable managers and administrators as much as it needs foreign exchange. Long apprenticeships training in junior management positions do not provide a feasible solution to the problem of providing adequate managerial talent. The appointment of University-educated young men to family firms will not automatically supply creative and self reliant managers who can assume posts of responsibility in expanding public and private enterprises. The economists notions about rates of capital accumulation are only statistical concepts unless there are managerial resources for obtaining the economic growth. There is hardly any experienced manager from whom more skill and effort will not be expected during the coming years of crisis.
It is essential that managers and potential managers learn the most modern and productive techniques in the various functional areas of economic enterprise like production marketing, control and finance. The goal of training is to provide technically competent managers with the skills and outlook, that will enable them to build strong and enduring organisations, assist them in creating organisational climate that permits continuous innovation of new and advanced technologies, and enable them to deal more effectively with the unending series of human problems which inevitably occupy the greatest part of their work time. But it is not easy to achieve.

The problem, India is facing today is not unique; many of these problems exist in all the industrial societies. For solving these problems, it is important to bring them into awareness and deal with them constructively.

Economic reforms of 1990s in the form of Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG) brought drastic long term changes in the business environment of the country. Indian market faced tough competition against products and services of other countries. Besides this competition in market economy, organizations went global with greater diversity in workplace. The economic conditions caused many companies to restructure, thus cutting out layers of management, closing operations, and loosing experienced manpower.

The wider responsibilities of the remaining manpower and the loss of experienced employees created the need for skills training, particularly in the managerial and supervisory areas. In recent years political changes have brought about the need for a wider range of management skills in many parts
of public sector. This change has created new challenges for managers who previously had detail control over their finances, employment practices, marketing or ability to exploit opportunity. However, the ongoing process of disinvestments and privatization of public sector demands' change in organization culture, structure and process. To meet the challenges of these strategic changes, highly efficient managerial personnel are required, for which appropriate techniques of management development programs through training are the need of the day.

Athreya, Mritunjay (2003) one of the founder and pioneers of the Indian Management Movement, in his lecture on "Massive Training for 8 per cent growth" held under eminent speakers services programme by Indian Society of Training and Development (ISTD) highlighted budget allocation for training to make the transaction from being a domestic business to international business by bringing international mindset into business perspectives. He focused on productivity increase; quality through quality circles, quality assurance; improvement in service; infrastructure development; reform implementation; and improvement in governance for quality growth. Further he highlighted the need to work for capital productivity through raising the return on investment by greater plant capacity utilization, reduction in working capital and every element of capital that is invested, including human capital. He also discussed the relevance of material productivity through reduction of material cost, wastage, re-work and rejection. This can be achieved by adopting ISO 9001, total quality management, six sigma and other such techniques and methods available. The other two areas of productivity where training needs to contribute is labour productivity and managerial productivity.
Labour productivity has long been given much importance in India whereas the labour cost accounts for only 8 to 12 per cent of the total cost. Now, training has to focus hard for increasing managerial productivity as managers are responsible for indecisions, wrong decision, rivalry, lack of teamwork and loss of opportunities of managerial and leadership productivity in India.

Training and development are the driving forces of economic growth and social development of any country. They have become even more important given the increasing pace of globalization and technological changes provide both challenges that is taking place in the world. Countries with higher and better levels of skills adjust more effectively to the challenges and opportunities of globalization.

As India moves progressively towards becoming a ‘Knowledge economy’ it becomes increasingly important that the twelfth Plan (2012-2017) contemplates to focus on advancement of skills and these skills have to be relevant to the emerging economic environment. In old economy, skill development largely meant development of shop floor or manual skills. Even in this area there are major deficiencies in our workforce which need to be rectified. In new or knowledge economy the skill sets can range from professional, conceptual, managerial, operational behavioral to interpersonal skills and inter-domain skills. In the 21st century as science progresses towards a better understanding of the miniscule, that is, genes, nanoparticles, bits and bytes and neurons, knowledge domains and skill domains also multiply and become more and more complex. To cope with this level of complexity the twelfth Plan has given a very high priority to training and skill
development and are aimed at meeting that part of the challenge of skill development.

The twelfth Plan aims at launching a National Skill Development Mission which will bring about a paradigm change in handling of ‘training and skill development’ programs and initiatives.

The quantitative dimension of the training and development challenge can be estimated by the following:

- 80% of new entrants to workforce have no opportunity for skill training. Against 12.8 million per annum new entrants to the workforce the existing training capacity is 3.1 million per annum.

- About 2% of existing workforce has skill training against 96% in Korea, 75% in Germany, 80% in Japan, and 68% in the United Kingdom.

Investments to the tune of US $ 1 Trillion are proposed in India in the infrastructure sector in the 12th plan. An investment of this scale and size is likely to generate higher domestic demand for steel. To achieve the target, infrastructure development across the country plays a vital role. Steel is the critical material in creating the infrastructure like high ways, runways, railways, ports, docks, buildings, industries and irrigation structures. The demand for steel has been worked out to 113.3 million tonnes by 2016-17 on the basis of Most Likely' growth scenario i.e. 9% GDP growth. Though the estimated India growth rate for the year 2012-2013 lowered to 6.5 to 7 %, the proposed massive allocation of US $ 1 Trillion for infrastructure sector in the 12th plan will bring back the growth story. Therefore, it is likely that in the next five
years, demand will grow at a considerably higher annual average rate of 10.3% as compared to around 8.1% growth achieved during the last two decades. (1991-92 to 2010-11)

To meet to this growing demand of steel and the need of the customer both at national and international standards in time and at competitive rates, steel industry shall be managed and operated by experienced and highly trained managers and workforce.

1.28 Organization of thesis

The first chapter begins with the concept and definition of training and development. Further it discussed the importance of training, its role in development of organization. The process of training, methods and techniques for conducting training program are discussed to present a clear picture of the topic of research.

The chapter two highlights the earlier literature developed by different authors, the researchers, scholars etc., which are related to the current study. The studies were covered both national and international where the authors discussed at length and their arguments give a wider perspective to training and development.

Chapter - III is ‘Profile of the organisation’, which gives an overview on the Visakhapatnam Steel Plant. This chapter deals with management, operations, organization structure, performance and financial status of VSP (RINL). It gives information on its manpower planning and different activities pertaining to human relation such as, manpower, wage and salary
administration, welfare activities, industrial relation and organisation development. This chapter also presents a picture on the potential, problems and strategies of the organization. At the end of the chapter an attempt has been made to analyze the secondary information collected on the training and development function at Visakhapatnam Steel Plant. It covers training and development policy, machinery for its administration and the training activities. The data collected from the records of the organization on its training and development functions have been discussed in this chapter. The data was collected from 2003 to 2012 years.

The research methodology of the study was discussed in chapter four. In this chapter the problem, its need and significance, objective, scope, research methodology and limitations of the research work. It also gives the hypothesis based on which the research work is carried out.

The fifth chapter deals with the data analysis and interpretation, where it based on the response of the executives in the sample study organisation. It is focused on their demographic profile and nine dimensions of training. This data on training activities of executives have been further tabulated and analyzed on the basis of category, department, types and key areas of training. A critical analysis of the training and development activities has been discussed in this chapter. Here the analysis of relationship between demographic profile and training dimensions has been tested and discussed. This analysis aims at establishing a relationship between the various dimensions of training with personal profile of the executives.
In the last and summary chapter, an attempt has been made to provide a resume of previous chapters. It evaluates the hypothesis and presents the findings of the research in the conclusion and suggestions for better management of training and development activities in Visakhapatnam Steel Plant.
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