Chapter II

REVIEW
OF
LITERATURE
This chapter describes relevant literature that documents the benefits of a well functioning training and development system for both individual employee and for the organization along with elements of effective training and development practices.

INTRODUCTION

The globalisation phenomenon has led to the survival of the fittest syndrome all over. Probably, never in the history of global business such a keen sense of competition was noticeable among corporates. Technological innovations are no more of strategic importance, even as they are a fundamental necessity. It is believed that human resource is the only factor in the value creation process which has immeasurable growth and potential, and is being viewed as the most critical to competitive success (Sohdhi, 1999). Thus has emerged the subject of human resource development.

The phrase ‘human resource management ‘is not new, it was used as long as forty years ago. It did not emerge until the mid 1980’s but its roots go back to the 1960’s and the usage of term grew in 1990’s (Armstrong, 1996).

In a study Sodhi (1994) states that HRD is a dynamic discipline as it mostly deals with ever-changing human resource. Armstrong (1996) opines “people to be regarded not as variable costs but as valued assets in which to invest”. Thus, it envisages that human capital is capable of
being further enhanced by developing competencies and managing them proactively. Moreover human resource is not a jargon but a real thing at the organisational level, ground level, plant level, everywhere. Only, its reality took time to be recognised (Dey, 1994).

In a survey at Vishakapatnam (Rao, Sambasiva Suryanarayana, 1987) concluded that the quality of human resource in terms of its knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and behavioural pattern play a vital role in the process of the socio-economic growth and prosperity of the nation. Yet in a study of 1050 companies by the Hackett-Group (1998) shows that HR professionals typically devote less than a third of their time to the most crucial strategic HR initiatives (employee development, hiring the best people, training, career management, performance management), instead a bulk of time is devoted to lower value-added routine activities (PR, Newswire, 1998). Good HR is prerequisite to high morale and productivity. According to Paul J. Myser, the broadening capacities of man, the extension of his knowledge and upgrading of his skills may lead to economic developments which results from action (Khan, 1984). The importance of HR for business success has been aptly pointed out by Mortia (1987) when he says that your business and its future are in the hands of the people you hire.

The main spirit of HRD is to humanize the human processes in the organization. According to the World Bank’s assessment of 192 countries on an average, physical capital accounts for 16 percent of wealth, natural capital for 20 percent and human capital accounts for 64 percent. This is much against the general belief that physical capital is most important proactive wealth. The optimum utilisation of human resource will be achieved by developing consistent and coherent policies which promote commitment to the organisation, and unleash the latent creativity and energies of the people who worked there, thus leading to enhance a performance.
The essence of 'HRD' is that employees are valued assets and their value should be increased by an effective human resource development system (Sen, 1995). Human resource development system's primary is developing the key competencies (knowledge, skills, attitudes)-through learning-which enables individuals to perform current and future jobs (Nadler, 1985). Nadler claimed that the term 'HRD' was first evolved in his class discussion at the George Washington University in (1968) and he first used the term formally in (1969) in Miami (USA) at the American Society For Training and Development (ASTD) conference. According to him, there was coldness and even resistance to this term and it started picking up only after the mid 1970's. Even then it started getting used as a more attractive term than "Training and Development".

Cholofsky, (1992) in his study on 'HRD' says 'It is the study and practice of increasing the learning capacity of individuals, groups, collectives and organisations through the development and application of learning based interventions for the purpose of optimising human and organisational growth and effectiveness. In some organizations like NTPC the core of HRD is to create a team of motivated and competent power-professionals. There the HRD strategy has been given considerable attention to its human resources so that they can keep pace with technological advancement and face the challenges of obsolescence. Similarly, Steel Authority of India took lead in adopting HRD experiments for both managers as well as workers and has achieved worthwhile results. Thus it is a strategy to transform human resource inputs into outputs. The inputs are the people, the individuals, groups and the total human Organisation. The outputs are the services provided by the individuals and groups to the Organisation in which they are employed in particular and the society in general (Rao, 1986).

Over the past three decades and more, a fast wind is blowing through the management literature which is driving out the traditional term ‘personnel management’ and substituting a new phrase human
resource development. HRD is a distinct idea, various people understand it variously (Mufeed, 2000). Some call it, 'human response development, human relations development, human resource depression'. Some say it is old wine in new bottles. Few people realize that HRD is as basic as mother teaching her baby to stand up and walk on the walker (Rao, 1988).

HRD has become very critical for survival and growth of today's organization. The concerns for quality customer education and expectations have all created new challenges, as many research studies have shown a rise and fall of many large organizations. Lajuria (2002) in his research article has reported that Kodak and Xerox have been humbled by Fuji and Cannon in photographic arena. GM and Ford are no longer leaders in automobile industry, Toyota and Honda have surpassed their excellence. Therefore to get an edge over rivals every organization needs to be technologically competent, reliable, fast, efficient and customer oriented. Thus the only choice the organizations are left with is to develop them if they cannot get them.

Rao (1985) believes that Human Resource Development system is an integrated system. Its sub-systems include performance appraisal; potential appraisal and development; feedback and performance coaching; career planning; organization development; rewards; employee welfare and quality of work life; and human resource information system. Pareek and Rao (1989) point out that the mostly felt HRD strategy need is training and development (T&D). Further Armstrong (1992) adds "It is because of the essence of HRD, that employees are valued assets and their value should be increased by a systematic and coherent approach to investing in their training and development.

HRD is about enhancing and widening these skills by training, by helping people to grow within the organization, and by enabling them to make better use of their skills and abilities" (Armstrong, 1992).
According to Harrison, development is "the all important process, through which individual and organisational growth can through time achieve their fullest potential. Education is a major contributor to that development process, because it directly and continuously affects the formation not only of knowledge and abilities, but of character and of culture, aspirations and achievements. Training is the shorter-term, systematic process through which an individual is helped to master defined tasks or areas of skill and knowledge to predetermined standards". As mentioned above training constitutes a basic concept in HRD. It is the systematic modification of behaviour through learning which occurs as a result of education, instruction, development and planned experience. It is concerned with developing a particular skill to a desired standard by instruction and practice. Training was defined in greater detail by the British Manpower services Commission (1981) as follows; A planned process to modify attitudes, knowledge or skill behavior through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or a range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organization.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The beginning of training could be traced to Stone Age when training was transferred through signs and actions to others. Rapid technological changes recognized it as the most important organizational activity, which assists today's knowledge worker to exhibit judgement, creativity, technical expertise and interpersonal skills? That will promote the development of proper cadres of competent trained and well-satisfied employees, who are capable of running the organization as model business ventures. Trainings the creation of an environment where employees may acquire or learn specific job related behaviours, knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes. It is directed at helping the
employees to perform better their jobs whereas development is based on the fact that an employee will need an evolving set of knowledge, skills, and abilities, (KSAs) to perform well in succession of positions encountered during one’s career.

Traditionally, training and development was not viewed as an activity that could help organizations to create “value” and successfully deal with competitive challenges. Human resource planners in 1970’s used to organize training programmes as one of the main activities, but training course content and training resources were not given much attention as they deserved to. During 1980’s the training scenario changed and it further got shaped and reshaped in 1990’s (Lajuria, 2002)

Today view has changed. In a research survey (Lawler, 2000) points out “market forces, technological change and evolving employment relationships have come together to compel organizations to pay closer attention to maintaining and developing human capital”. As a matter of fact every employee requires training in his job. Companies that use innovative training and development practices are likely to report better financial performance than their competitors that do not. Studies by the National centre on educational quality of the workforce based at the University of Pennsylvania show that employees are requiring more skills for production and support positions that they have asked for.

Training and development helps a company to meet competitive challenges. As companies attempt to expand into foreign market places, their success will be determined by employee’s ability to work in a new culture (determined by Noe, 1998), as Fisher et al; (1999) in a survey reports “Organisations provide training for many reasons. They wish to orient new hires to the organisation or teach them how to perform in their initial assignment. Some organisations also wish to improve the current performance of employees who may not be working as effectively as desired, or to prepare employees for future promotions, or for upcoming changes in design, processes, or technology in their
present jobs.

Training can help organisation succeed in a number of ways. Traditionally, training facilitates the implementation of strategy by providing employees with the skills and knowledge needed to perform their jobs. Today training assists in solving immediate business problems, such as when a team of managers in action learning program studies a real problem (e.g., "Why isn't the marketing campaign working as well as expected in Europe?") and recommends solution. Finally to keep ahead in a highly competitive and turbulent environment has been suggested that the training function must foster a continuous learning culture and stimulate managers to reinvent their corporation (Martocchio and Baldwin, 1997). "Proper training motivates the workers to take interest in their work and increase their capacity for doing things in a better way." (Shah, 1991). A recent survey of competitive and innovative companies with skilled and knowledgeable staff find it easier to obtain skills at all levels than do other companies which probably reflects their relatively greater attractiveness to prospective employees (Allen Group; 1999). Similarly results were obtained from the study conducted by Sheikh T. S (1983) to see the status of employee training in urban banks stated that junior officers and clerical staff seemed provided with positive results with respect to training impact in organisations resulting from well designed human resources development programmes (Benabou, 1996). It was concluded that different kinds of training contributed to increased productivity and cost attainment. Key performance indices were specifically linked to changes in job behaviour of trainees and application of training material.

Training could not be viewed in isolation but must be considered an integral part of work and development of every organisation, large and small; as its human resources are among its most important assets and the skills and motivation of its workforce are crucial to its success (Kenney, 1990). All employees, regardless of their previous training,
education and experience, need to be introduced to their work environment and to be taught how to perform specific tasks (Pigors and Myerses, 1965). Saks (1996) examined the relationship between the amount and helpfulness of entry training and work outcomes for newcomers in an Organisation. The results obtained from the analysis of 152 newly hired entry level professionals indicated that the amount of training received by newcomers was significantly related to job satisfaction, commitment, intention to quit, ability to cope and several measures of job performance. The perception of helpfulness of training was significantly related to job satisfaction, commitment and intention to quit beyond that explained by training.

Organisations can benefit from training, beyond bottom line and general efficiency and profitability measures, when they create more flexible workers who can assume varied responsibilities and have a more holistic understanding of what the organizations do and the role they play in the organisations success (Mello, 2001). It helps the employees to do their present job; the benefits of training may extend throughout a person’s entire career and may develop that person for future responsibilities Flippo (1984) concludes “The increasing technical nature of modern jobs demands systematic training to show even minimum level of accomplishment”. In the industrial situation, training shall acquire new manipulative skills, technical knowledge, and problem solving ability or attitudes. The raw human resource can make only limited contribution towards achievement of an organisation’s objectives. Therefore, training promotes the willingness and efficiency of an employee to co-operate with others in the accomplishment of organisation’s objectives. Therefore Flippo (1984) states that training promotes the willingness and efficiency of an employee to co-operate with others in the accomplishment of organisation’s objectives. Training is not something that is done once to new employees - it is used continuously in every well-run establishment AS IN Japan 10 million
workers (or one in every six workers) need to provide retraining in order to build economy of Japan and prepare for drastic deregulation in logistic distribution, energy, information, finance, and telecommunication (Bermer, 1998). Every time you get someone to do the work the way you want it done, you are training. Every time you give directions or discuss a procedure, you are training (Pigors, Myers 1961). The trained employees does not require much supervision. He is a supervisor for himself. Training increases the productivity of the employees and contributes to considerable savings in man, material and machines (Bernard, Samenson, Peter and Place 1970). Training appears to have played the facilitative role for easier adoption of participation. Continuous training and education of workers is necessary for enabling them to comprehend the issues connected with the participation process as testified by Suri (1989) in units like 'Tata Iron' and 'Steel' company. Constant effort to upgrade the skills of participation of workers and to increase their involvement in the decision making process, has made a positive contribution to the success of participation. There is visible participation in units like cement corporation of India (Aadilabad) and National Fertilizers Limited (Panipat) where training in both conceptual and communication skills was given to the management and the workers (Suris, 1989). Training programmes in these organisations are conducted to enhance the awareness of workers towards participative forums and their utility.

Rapid changes in technology continue to cause increasing rates of skill obsolescence. In order to remain competitive, organisations need to continue training their employees to use the best and latest technologies available (Mello 2001). The increasing faith in training is backed by the evidence generated through countless surveys conducted world over in all types of enterprises which amply demonstrate that training properly planned, conducted and evaluated contributes substantially to improving rational economic performance, enhancing organisational
productivity and profitability, freeing management time, shortening the
time required to reach maximum efficiency; reducing wastage labour
turnover and accident rate; increasing personnel versatility and
flexibility, and providing them better promotional prospects and greater
job security (Ashton and Green, 1994, Durra, 1990; Grass and Jones, 1992,
Kenney et al., 1990).

Given the intense pressure to compete, improve quality and
customer service and lower costs, leading American companies have
come to view training as a key to organizational survival and success as
studied by Linde Horney and Koonee (1997). Likewise, in countries
around the world training has become increasingly important to prepare
workers for new jobs for example in Japan with increasing number of
women entering traditionally more factory jobs, more training is needed
to help them to learn the necessary skills. Similarly in a study by
Thornton (1999) at Toyota Motor Corporation women have been given
more training in everything from sexual harassment policies to skills for
working on assembly line.

Even in Indian context, there is ample evidence to suggest that
intensive training results in improvement of method, reduction in
learning time, reduction of costs; improvement quality, efficiency,
discipline, sense of belongingness and morale; change in employee
attitude and imbibing a sense of service and integrity in them (Diya,
National fertilizers ltd. it appears to have played the facilitative role to its
staff in increasing general level of skill (Suri, 1989).

A study conducted by the American Society for Training and
Development shows that the most the most American workers are not
getting the training they need to keep their companies competitive.
With such a lack of training, it is expected that there will likely be too few
well-educated and well-trained workers to satisfy the nation's economic
needs (USA Today, 1989). Other surveys illustrate the extent the of the
skills gap as perceived by American business; a recent Coopers and Lybrand poll posed the question;” Is the lack of skilled workers hurting your revenue?’ in 1993, twenty seven percent responded “yes” to this question. The affirmative responses increased to over sixty percent in 1998. Others resources confirm this trend. Nations business conducted a recent Readers; poll in other resources confirm this trends. In which fifty nine percent responded that it had been “very difficult” to find qualified workers in the past year (Chance,1998).the age of 16 to 24 years old is diminishing in size, and a significant portion of the remaining group is poorly educated.

With the increasing competition and the evolution of global economy, organisations the world over are under tremendous pressure to improve their performance not only for sheer survival but for accelerated growth (Sen 1994). In a survey of 1480 SMEs Baldwin et al (1994) found insignificant relationship between the provision of training and firm performance when other related variables were controlled .Another study by Cosh and Ducan and Hughes (1998) investigated a sample of 1640 in 1991 and 1995. They found positive link between training and firm survival. Therefore, organizations continue to seek out and employ knowledge workers rather than workers with narrowly defined technical skills (Mello, 2001). Thus in today’s complex and fast changing organizational environment developing human resource is of Para mount importance. Storey (1995) views that “failure to train an employee up to or even beyond international standard will put an organization at a competitive disadvantage and it may eventually be driven out of business”.

Technological and methodological improvements emphasis attitudinal change among the employees as Lajuria (2002) says “Training as a discipline can change behaviour. it cannot change personality. Employees who deliver results are those who consistently use effective skills or behaviour not just personality.” A study focused upon the
impact of imparting behaviour skills through training to officials of Nationalised bank's showed attitude change leading to better performance, credibility of the communicator and positive attitude towards work (Singh, 1998). Thus employees who deliver results are those who consistently use effective skills or behaviour not just personality. In this aspect Indian industry lags behind its competitors. Employee’s obsolescence and lack of commitment are two major drawbacks of Indian Industry (Parveen, 2001). "Employees obsolescence and lack of commitment are two major drawbacks of Indian Industry". Employees become obsolete when they fail to adapt to new technology and procedures.

TRAINING MODELS

Katz and Khan’s (1978) training processes model serves as a problem solving tool. Here in performance deficiencies are identified by the Needs Analysis phase. If the deficiency or problem is caused by inadequate KASs, then training becomes a way to satisfy the need. Once training is identified as a solution, the Design, Development and implementation phases result in a training process for the appropriate employees then the evaluation phase assess both training processes and the training outcomes.

Expectancy Motivation Model of Portor and Lawler (1968) can be used for effective training and development, the model says that Effort leading to reward-intrinsic and extrinsic. These rewards need to satisfaction, which affects the value of rewards held by the person. Portor and Lawler say that the rewarding outcomes proceed from performance. Saleh and Grygier (1969) explain intrinsic rewards as those directly related to the actual performance of the jobs and the extrinsic as those related to the environment in which the job is being performed. This method has been widely utilized Mitchell and Nebeker (1976) had utilized this to predict effort in performance of college students.

Rothwell and Kazanas (1994) have forwarded a model for “Strategic Training” comprises of five phases: Determine purpose of training and training department; Assesses past training programmes and training departments; assesses what conditions inside and outside the organization, job and individuals will effect training needs, programmes and the department; Determine long term strategies; evaluate strategies and results; Another model by Buckly and Caple, (1990) involves four stages first to investigate training needs, To Design training, second to Design training, Third to Conduct training and Fourth , the last one to assist training Effectiveness and this model is popularly known as “Systematic Approach To Training”. These models are not linked to any setup or empirical data. Rather, they were developed from the praction’s rational argument about the elements of a well-functioning training & development system.

Human technology, inc., (1993) “training & development framework; Best Practices Model” is a model developed through a benchmarking study of 26 private & 10 public sector Organisations recognised for their exemplary training & development systems & from the training & development literature (Linda 1998).

This model has a broader perspective & involves eight stages. Plant strategic role of training & development to achieve organisational goals; Develop organisational policies governing the training & development system; Establish training & development needs build transfer into training & development; Determine training & development methods & approach; Devise training & development evaluation strategy; Sustain & continuously improve the training & development system.

The model of training & development system & their description have several features in common. They all address certain well documented features of procedures for determining training content &
methods. They all stress the critically reviving the training & development as a key component in helping an organization to achieve its short time & long time goals. They share the view that training & development system must have the commitment & involvement of top management in order to be effective. the model stress the importance of thorough comprehensive need assessment; of evaluation of training events & activities & the training & development system as a whole; & of continuous improvement the training & development system.

QUALITY TRAINING:

Increased competition has led organisations to adopt a strategy of attempting to compete in terms of quality rather than price and in such cases training has been closely associated with attempts to improve product quality Keep, (1989).

Employees working in an organisation constitute a pivotal resource used in the process of value addition. Contrary to this people are also found to be the source of waste in the organisation (Khan, 2001). In the present environment of rapid advancement in technology and increasing competition, organisations are targeting the lowest possible waste and the highest possible quality. Khan (2001) says “moving towards these two-fold objectives of productivity and quality, companies wonder whether to invest in training and development of human resource. And if yes, then how and to what extent?” Studies, however suggest an affirmative response to such question. Glance et.al (1997) have found a positive correlation between high productivity, low employees turnover and enterprise size for trained workers.

Kohli, Sinha (1997) view that the philosophy of total quality management (TQM) too explains that quality improvement is a continuous process and that men have a vital role in the mission of total quality (TQ). It is, therefore, imperative for organizations to train and develop the workforce on continuous basis to avoid human
obsolescence. Juran (1995) has defined TQM as "the system of activities directed at achieving delighted customer, empowered employees, higher revenues and lower costs". This implies that commitment of employees to build in the quality is an essential condition to achieve satisfied workforce Khan (2001).

Proper training of employees is an essential component for all organisations looking for high product quality and satisfied customer (Ravi, 2001). A comparison of some British and European biscuit manufacturing plants found substantial differences in the quality biscuits produced. Compared to the British products, the European enterprises produced higher value-added, more complex products aimed at the luxury end of the biscuit market. It was the existence of higher levels of intermediate skills amongst baking and supervisory staff that enabled the European producers to pursue a higher value-added strategy than the British manufacturers (Mason, Ark, Wagner, 1994). Blandy (1999), an Australian researcher, has found that the profitability of firms is directly related to the quantity and quality of training they provide.

Training should provide employees an opportunity for updating their knowledge about the job contents, the quality policies and goals because knowledgeable, skillful, motivated and committed employee performs a well perceived job with acceptability, he certainly helps the organisation to achieve total quality motto (Kohli, Sinha, 1994). Although many differences exist between smaller and larger firms in the way they deal with training, owners of small businesses have same concern as the big businesses. They identify as their number one concern about the ability to obtain, develop and retain a high quality workforce (Hornby and Kuratko, 1990). They recognise that training is a critical component to increasing the quality of their workforce. Large establishments are like to have higher quality training programmes as they normally have more training resources and training expertise (Saari
et al., 1988). Large companies, like British Airways, have made huge investment in service improvement and staff training and the business results have been impressive (Kohli, Sinha, 1994). An American study of over 500 organisations found that firms identified as "leading edge" train more employees and spend more on training than other firms. They reported improved performance on such measures as sales, overall profitability and the quality of the products and services (Bassi and Burren, 1998).

Experts in the area of TQM, in fact, consider training as the first level criterion for total quality but the lack of training and education and set up of training is however inadequate in producing the quantity and quality of manpower required to take the challenges of the business world (Khan, 2001). Over 3000 ITIs in the country with capacity of around 5 lakh, train only about four percent of the persons entering into the workforce of every year (Jagannathan, 1998). Training and development activities in isolation cannot build competence, as obvious no training system like quality system can work without the commitment and support of management, it is therefore imperative for the organisations and individuals including those in the training profession to implement a quality system for the training activities.

INVESTMENT IN TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT:

Training and development is an investment in human resource; it is an important means of improving the human potential and increasing the efficiency of personnel" (Patel, 1946). If an organisation has invested in training its workforce, it then makes a sense to develop them in such a way as to put to best use their skills, their by maximizing the return on investment (Mello, 2001). Organisations that for whatever reason, are inclined to treat their employees simply as a cost or commodity, and who hence to invest in training and development activity cannot be
meaningfully be said to be practising human resource management (Keep, 1998). Realising the emerging realities, the leading employees in Japan, Germany and Singapore exhibit a great degree of commitment to training and spend of the order of over three percent of their turnover on training (Gani and Riyaz, 1997). And employees in these countries tend to be trained to far higher levels than their counterparts in UK (NEDO/MSC, 1984). MSC sponsored survey found that in British companies, employers on an average were spending only 0.15 percent of their company turnover on training (MSC, 1985).

Few employees think training sufficiently central to their business, the great majority do not see it an issue of major importance but as an overhead, which would be cut when profits are under pressure or as something forced on the company as a reaction to other developments (Cooper and Lybrand, 1985).

Most training goes to managerial, supervisory, white collar, salaried employees. Mangham and Silver (1986) points out that 'over half of all UK companies appear to make no formal provision for training of their managers, and that in companies employing more than 1000 people fewer than one in ten senior managers received any training. Training and development is one that is often mentioned but rarely viewed as a potential source of competitive advantage (Fairfield, 1987). Lack of investment in training is an often cited reason why U.S. companies are losing market share to foreign competitors. For example, whereas sixty percent of German workers are involved in apprenticeship training programs, only two-tenth of one percent of U.S. workers are involved in similar programs (Carnevale, et al., 1990). On average, U.S. companies only spend about one third as much as Japanese companies spend on training per year. Some statistics also suggest that only sixteen percent of U.S. employees have ever received any training from their employers (Noe, 1998). Mincer (1997) reported in Australia, people who in the past have received training are more to apt to undergo further training in the
future. Billions of dollars invested in training annually by Australian companies impacts on company performance (Office of Training, 1997). Here managers also play a vital role in getting the most out of training. In particular, organisations which empower employees and equip their first line managers to coach, facilitate, mentor and lead, will have a much better chance of making the most of the skills and abilities of their staff (Mac Duffie, Kochan, 1995). In India though the Government, trade unions and political parties exhort companies to put training high on agenda for a greater competitive advantage, evidence that the companies are increasingly investing in human resource by way of training is lacking. According to a study while the average cost of human resource in India is of the order of 9.86 percent of the total turnover, the average cost of training works out to 0.017 percent of the total cost of the human resource (Saiyadain, 1995). While there are firms which attach greater value to training, on the whole the situation seems to be far less rosy mainly due to lack of proper training culture in the country.

The case for training stands firm. It has deep roots and is broadly based. The present inadequacies of training may be glaring, but they can be examined and removed, and the real progress can be made in action.

IDENTIFICATION OF TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS.

The crux of any training strategy is the identification of training needs within an organisation and then to devise means to meet these needs through institutional or non institutional arrangements.

Kumar, Nandi, Benjamin (1994) view ‘TNA’ as an integral part of any well-designed training programme by professional trainers and academicians. Further they analyse it as the process the organisation’s training needs and seeks to answer the questions of whether the organization’s needs, objectives, and problems can be met or addressed by training.

Demands for training in organisation arise quite naturally and
obviously when organisations expand rapidly or when altogether new services are to be introduced (Lynton and Pareek, 1990). The experience of Prouty (the director of the business and Industry, Institute of Foothill D. Anza College in California) in Silicon Valley companies have shown what works and what does not. She cautions that the training needs assessments are crucial without a survey to pinpoint the skills the company needs. Further needs-assessment strategy is really fundamental to avoid wasting training dollars as experienced by Prouty (T&D, 1995). Many companies rely on very detailed surveys of the workforce to determine training needs as part of the planning effort. Motorola and IBM conduct annual surveys to assess particular training needs in the context of the company's short term and long term goals. In addition to it Lynton and Pareek (1990) attribute the need for training to factors internal and external to the organization. Changes in technology, introduction of new systems and procedures, variation in the government policies are some of the factors, external to the organization, which necessitate a response from the Organisation. The internal factors, such as expansion of production capacities, introduction of new products requires reorientation of manpower. Hence, identification of needs has become foundation on which subsequent training interventions are built. For example the World Bank recently determined through a needs assessment that many of its constituents from Eastern Europe required training in transforming state-owned business into self-sustaining business. The organization contacted with a number of Universities to develop and provide the necessary training.

Managers are often in too much of hurry. They implement a solution which is sometimes, but not always the correct intervention. This can prove to be an expensive error (Rossett, 1999). The largest expense for human resources programs, by far, is attributable to the time spent by the participants in training programs, career development and organization development activities. Gilbert (1988) in his study depicts
“in training cost due to lost production and travel time can be as much as 90 to 95% of the total program costs”.

Arthur and Bennette (2003), Sharma, Snell and Bohlander (2001) state that needs-assessment is a three-step process that consists of organizational analysis (e.g.; which organizational goal can be attained through personnel training? where training is needed in the organization?), task analysis (e.g.; what must trainee learn in order to perform the job effectively? what will training cover?) and the person analysis (e.g.; which individual need training and for what?). Where as Dessler (2002) states that Task-Analysis and Performance-Analysis are two main ways to identify training needs. Task-Analysis is especially appropriate for determining needs of employees who are new to their jobs. About 19% of employees reporting in one survey said that they used task-analysis to determine the training required (Bureau of National Affairs, 1965). Performance analysis appraises the performance of current employees to determine whether training could reduce performance problems like excess scrap or low output, where as Clark (1999) depicts two ways to learn training needs. The first method takes a proactive approach. An instructional designer goes into the system and searches for problem or potential problems. The goal is to make the system more efficient and prevent future problems from being occurring. The second method is when a supervisor or manager comes to the training department to fix a problem. These problems are usually caused by the new hires, promotions, transfers, appraisals, or the introduction of new technologies.

Training departments must act rapidly when problems arise that might require a training solution. A training need exists when an employee lacks the knowledge or skill to perform an assigned task satisfactorily. It also arises when there is a variation between what employee is expected to do on the job and the employee’s actual performance. Gani and Riyaz (1997) reveal that the management of a
large public sector organization claim that great importance is attached to the systematic appraisal of training plan, in reality this claim does not seem to have translated into concrete action. Many programmes have often not been geared to the specific training need of employees. Different categories of people with different training needs have been lumped together for training.

Moore, Dutton (1978) states “one of the important principle of human resource planning and development is that the organization should classify jobs into various parts and assess its developmental needs in order to provide the need-based training to the employees”. Balgir (1983) reveals that in private undertaking there is a close correspondence in the perception of workers and management with respect to the training needs determination. They are unanimous in accepting ‘analysis of job requirements’ as the first important basis for training needs identification. This appears to be logical because training is reported to be effective when it is imparted in the context of immediate job environment and job requirement (Arora, 1974). The experience in some of the enlightened enterprises like Voltas, Laser, Turbo and Acc highlight that training is effective only if it is based on needs. Mukundan (1986) has reported about an exercise conducted in a large Indian construction and engineering company where in the training officer interviewed a cross-section of staff at all levels from different job sites and regional offices; compiled the data generated through interviews; got approval from the management, and finalized a training calendar using the data.

Training needs analysis analyses the causes of the problem of deficiency in performance, establishes the impact of the problem being investigated and clarifies the various situations that must be treated if the problem is to be successfully solved (Laired, 1985). Based on the experience with an International Airport Authority of India (IAAI) Silvera (1990) pinpoints the limitation of needs analysis based solely on
performance appraisal-orientation. Instead, he argues for integration of approaches, where concerns of the organization as also that of users of its services, namely, customers are linked together. Silvera comments that in IAAI’s case when such exercise was undertaken, the focus, as indicated by training needs derived through performance appraisal reports, changed from individual needs to group and organizational needs.

Training programmes are organized in response to a need and not merely as a reaction to a problem (Moori and Dutton, 1978). A study conducted by Gupta (1997) at Vishakapatnam steel plant Rastriya Ispat Nigam Ltd. (RINL) concluded that there the training is purely based on needs, there is great awareness among the controlling officers to properly identify the persons for training as employees are taking training more seriously. The training programmes are sometimes tailor made to solve specific job problems or requirements. According to a Harvard Business Report ' the most common mistake in a corporate training programme is to take a scatter short approach in training employees in subjects, with little or no relation to company’s goals'.

Allen (1971) opines “the analysis of training needs reveal that training recognizes the system of work that an individual can perform or feel responsibility and take initiative so that it could be more productive in the long run”. Training needs of an individual in an organization are related to the tasks that he is expected to perform. Ganeshan (1984), Lawlande (1980), Sarkar (1978), Sinha (1984) state that in India little effort has been made towards developing productive and workable method for analysis of training needs. Employees are sponsored for some training programmes either as a ‘pleasure trip or keep the trouble makers out of sight, or to reward blue eyed employees for extraneous condition. They have seen situations where ‘training needs’ have been tailored to the ‘existing d training courses’ instead of tailoring the ‘training courses’ to the existing training needs’. This faulty practice had
led to what is commonly termed as the ‘training course – training needs syndrome’. A study by the American Society for training and development (ASTD) found that unfortunately, because the costs, expertise and time required, organizations conduct needs assessments less than 50 percent of the time before initiating a training program. To overcome these obstacles, ASTD has teamed up with InSync Corporation, a training and development firm in Melean, Virginia, to develop a software program called ASTD Assess. This program enables managers to use a personal computer to develop surveys, analyse data, and prepare reports used in training needs assessment. Companies such as Noxell, Marriott, and Minnesota Power have participated in the development of this software (Schofield, 1999).

Lynton and Pareek have attributed the need for training to factors internal and external to the organisation. Changes in technology, introduction of new systems and procedures, variations in the government policies are some of the factors, external to the organizations, which necessitate a response from the organizations. The internal factors, such as expansion of production capacities, introduction of new products require reorientation of manpower. Hence identification of needs of the existing manpower has become foundation on which subsequent training interventions are built.

Thus, conducting a systematic needs assessment is a crucial initial step to training design and development and can substantially influence the overall effectiveness of training programmes (Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Mcgehee & Thayer, 1961; Sleezer, 1993, Zemke, 1999). Specifically, a systematic needs assessment can guide and serve as the basis for the design, development, delivery and evaluation of training programme; it can be used to specify a number of key features for the implementation (input) and evaluation (outcomes) of training programmes. Consequently, the presence and comprehensiveness of a need assessment should be related to the overall effectiveness of training.
because it provides the mechanism whereby the questions central to successful training programme, can be answered.

MODELS OF TNA

Kubr and Prokopenko (1989) present needs diagnosis in a model, which identifies and comprises two levels of performance: the standard level (desired, optimum) and the current level (existing, real); the difference between the two levels indicating the performance gap, which is directly related to training and non-training needs. They also discuss different levels of needs, such as individual level, group and team level, organizational level-sectoral level, country (national) level, regional and global level. The segregation into different levels has many methodological and organizational implications.

Steadhan (1980) advocates adoption of ‘situational approach”. The situational approach involves developing a set of criteria for a particular assessment situation against which certain methods (which fit) are selected and applied. Steadhan recommends a method, which is flexible does not consume much time and effort in assessment process leaving no time for implementation, and combines strength of different techniques in some action.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES:

Training is one of the most commonly used mechanisms for developing effective teams’ world over. Preparation of a need based curriculum and selection of an appropriate methodology or combination of methods for running an effective management development training programme is crucial decision the trainees have to make to achieve optimum results.

Selection of training method is a complex problem as it depends on the nature of work, availability of facilities, funds and time (Caroll, Paine
and Nancovich, 1972). Training methods are chosen according to their suitability to impart the needed training. The selection of the right type of training technique would depend on the consideration of various factors and may vary from organisation to organisation (Gani and Riyaz, 1997). Although no single training technique is by nature superior to any other, the goals or objectives of a particular program may be better served by one method than another (Leap, Crino, 1990).

Bentely (1990) has defined six categories of training. His training spectrum includes free learning, guided learning, lecture and discussion, presentation, instruction, and conditioning. Training methods can be broadly classified into categories - on-the-job training and off-the-job training.

On the job technique is considered the most efficient method of training. Employees are trained under the watchful eyes of the master mechanic at their work places. Their output adds to the total output of their department (Leap, Crino, Ahuja, 1986, 1990). Commonly used training techniques of on the job are Orientation, Apprenticeship, Job-rotation, and Internship (Khan, 2001). After selection of employees on-entry, orientation or induction training methods are used for introducing or orienting a new employee to the work-situation and co-workers. Dey (1983) views "orientation should not be viewed as a mere 'reception' or 'welcome to work place' or a five minute talk by the boss' but it should be made pleasant and productive as well", as it lingers on the memory and often fixes the employee attitude for long periods throughout the career, about his co-workers, work and the organisation, its environment, styles and culture. Apprenticeship is the oldest and most commonly used training methods in crafts and technical areas. 'Job-Rotation' broadens the background of trainee in various positions of job by periodically rotating from one job to another instead of sticking to one job. 'Internship training' is usually imparted to skilled and technical personnel with the objective to bring about a balance between
theoretical and technical knowledge with the cooperation of vocational and training institutes. Beach (1970) opines that "in the Industrial situation, training shall acquire new manipulative skills, technical knowledge, and problem solving ability or attitudes. It is expected that the employees apply their newly acquired knowledge and skills on the job in such a way that they aid in the achievement of the organisational goals. Some more techniques of on the job are—Coaching, Job-instruction, under study and Junior-board (Leap, Crino, 1990). In the words of Betty (1974) "for the success of on-the job training, needs a properly trained instructor, otherwise an inefficient instructor can produce a number of inefficient off-springs".

Off-the job training technique are used when employees are not trained at their work place. This method is preferred when jobs can be stimulated in a classroom and laboratories or when the damage a trainer can do on the job is unaffordable (Davis, 1996). The technique is seen as a series of events—Lectures, Role-plays, Workshops, Simulation, Case study, Conferences, Seminars—rather than a process of adjusting the knowledge and skills of employees to meet the new demands on the organisation, as these change over time (Healy, 2001).

Under 'lecture' method a great deal of information is verbally provided to large groups. Here cost per trainee is low but represents one-way communication." Method of human interaction which involves realistic behaviour in the imaginary situation" is Role-playing. Whereas 'simulation' technique duplicates actual condition encountered on a job. It is mostly used in aeronautical industry. To receive quick orientation in various areas of management in which employees might be unfamiliar are deputed to attend 'seminars, conferences and workshops'. Healy (2001) views "Training and organisation of workshops—the bread and butter of many HRD practitioners, lend themselves to this kind of horizon very neatly".

Hawrylyshyn (1967) studies the effectiveness of various
participative methods used for development of management skills and found that the group project, role-play, decision simulation, case method and field study were most effective for developing motivation, communication, deciding diagnosis problems, selecting pertinent data and observing skills respectively.

In addition to the above techniques of training, an increasing amount of organisational is being conducted online. "Many organisations have entire training libraries consisting of skill-related training and knowledge based learning that have been packed into computer-based instruction modules or programs" (Mello, 2001). A recent survey of 100 companies with an average 15000 employees each found that 42 percent currently used online learning application. More importantly, however, 92 percent of the respondents planned to introduce the volume of online training within 12 months.

It is accepted that training methods, multifaced in scope and dimensions increase aptitudes, skills and abilities of employees to perform specific jobs, but organisations need to increase investment in training and development multifold, only then a spurt in the growth of organisations is expected.

**TRAINING TRANSFER**

Transfer of training is pervasive in our everyday life at work, at home and in the community. Transfer takes place whenever our existing knowledge, abilities and skills affect the learning or performance of new tasks.

Broad and Newstrom (1992) defined the transfer of training to the work-place as "the effective and continuing application by trainees to their jobs, of the knowledge and skills gained in training both on and off the job". Baldwin and Ford (1988), Taylor (1997) define transfer of learning in the workplace "as the effective application, by trainees to their jobs of the knowledge and skills gained as a result of attending an
educational program”. In addition, Broad (1997) defined it as the constant and effective application of knowledge and abilities acquired by the trainee during training activities, in the context of the execution of tasks which are part of their individual, organisational or community responsibilities.

The theoretical framework for the transfer concept did not begin in education, but the field of psychology in the 1800's. Today application of this concept to training brings it into the realm of organisations and particularly, corporate business. Broad and Newstrom (1992) stated that, in their experience with a wide range of organisations, transfer problems nearly always occurred when training employees. Other authors have suggested that as little as ten percent of training is transferred to the workplace (Georgensen, 1982), although this level may be higher immediately after training and decline over time (Newstrom, 1986). In 1997, organisations with more than 100 employees were estimated to have spent $58.6 billion in direct cost on formal training. However, the rate of transfer of their new skills and knowledge has been estimated at between 10% problem in organisational training. It is estimated that while North America industries annually spend over one hundred billion dollars in training and development not more than ten percent of these expenditures actually result in transfer to the job. Researchers have similarly concluded that there is little evidence that training programs transfer to the job and result in changed behaviours in the workplace (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Gist, Bavetta and Steven, 1990).

Although concern about transfer of learning has grown enormously during recent years, the transfer problem has been addressed for more than thirty five years. As early as 1957, J. Mosel pointed to the mounting evidence that every often showed that training makes little or no difference in job-behaviour. He identifies three conditions for transfer: training content must be applicable to the job, the trainee must learn the content and the trainee must be motivated to
change job behaviour to apply what was reamed. In 1971, L. Nadler discussed the notion of support system into categories relating to level of management actions to support transfer. Basically, he organised the support system into timing of actions. In 1982, M. Broad presented research identifying over 50 actions that managers can take to support transfer in several time categories. As well, other writers have discussed typical transfer situations where instructions put all their efforts into the needs analysis, design and delivery of training which results in a relatively low level of voluntary or unsupported transfer.

Performance technologists and trainees are obviously reluctant to estimate transfer failure rates, but they are equally unable to estimate with any degree of certainty what percentage of training actually transfers. Many believe it is extremely low and much of it is extinguished over time (Broad and Newstrom, 1992; George, 1988; Grabowski, 1983; Kelly, 1982). Based on the research of Marx (1986) concluded that transfer failure may be as high as 90% for some training courses. From surveys of American, British and Indian managers, who had attended management education programs, Baumgartel, Reynolds and Pathan (1984) reported that no more than 50% reported any significant attempt to transfer the training to the job environment. In a study by Huczynski and Lewis (1980) only 35% of the trainees attempted to apply the learning on the job.

FACTORS INHIBITING TRAINING TRANSFER:

A number of reasons have been identified to explain why employees either do or do not apply what they have learned, as a result of attending workplace programs. Newstrom (1986) reported that the most significant barrier, in the eyes of Instructor was the lack of reinforcement on the job to support trainees in applying training to their jobs. In effect, the instructors were saying that trainees didn’t expend the energy to do something new because no one around them cared. The
second most powerful impediment to workplace learning transfer mentioned by Newstrom was interference by immediate environment. Such factors include working with time pressure, insufficient authority, inefficient work process or inadequate equipment. This implies that even if trainees are willing to change, they may not be able to use their new skills because of obstacles (real or imaged) placed in their way. The third most important barrier was lack of active support by the organisation climate for the transfer of the program's content or skills to the workplace.

Foxon (1993) conducted a course content analysis of more than thirty such articles citing factors believed to inhabit transfer and identified 128 inhabiting factors, which can be grouped into four major categories. Organisational climate factors, training design factors, individual learner characteristics and training delivery factors.

Organisational climate factors include failure of supervisors (and to a lesser degree, these-workers) to encourage and reinforce application of the training on-the-job and other factors include the organisation demands and pressures that inhibit application, the lack of opportunity to apply the learning and the failure to provide the resources or technology necessary for application.

Training design factors: refers to course content which is too theoretical, not practical enough that is perceived to be in conflict with the values of the organisation, or which is presented out of sync with on-the-job requirements.

Individual learner characteristics: the major inhibitor is the low level of learner motivation to apply the training. Other factors refer to the learner's difficulty with skill or knowledge mastery, and an inability to see the relevance of the training to the job requirements.

Training delivery factors: inappropriate methods, media and delivery style, low and of trainer, credibility is also mentioned as a factors inhibiting transfer.
EVALUATION OF TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS:

For every organisation, it is but logical to find out how effective the training has been. It serves to provide feedback to trainers, data to prove that training has met the set objectives, and the expenditure on training is justified.

Evaluating a training programme is the responsibility of HRD system in the organisation. Lynton and Parekh (1990) opines that HR system must have the capability to assess and evaluate the various aspects of the entire training process-starting with need identification to the transfer of learning on the job.

Srivastava, Dev, Prasad (2001) state - HR department must determine the tangible and intangible outcomes of the training, and this can be accomplished only when the system adopts a proper evaluation strategy with the objectives of achieving individual and organisational growth and development. Evaluation of training should not be treated as a corrective measure for existing training programmes offered by the training division, but also as a proactive measure for future training programmes.

Goldsmith (1986) defines evaluation as 'The systematic collection of descriptive and judgemental information necessary to make effective decisions related to the selection, adoption, value and modification of various instructional activities'. The limitation with this definition, however, is that it restricts evaluation to the training process and implicitly excludes the importance of the application, working environment and seeing the individual participant as a trainee rather than a trainee and employee/worker. A somewhat wider definition is provided by John Patrick (1992), who, recognizing that training has an instrumental significance, that is, it is means to end, defines evaluation as, 'any attempt to obtain information concerning the effect or value of training in order to make decisions about any aspect of the training programme, the persons that have been trained and the organisations
(local, national or international) responsible for providing that training'. Tyler (1950) reflects evaluation as The process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the education objectives are actually being realized ....... however, since educational objectives are essentially change in human beings, that is, the objectives aimed at are to produce certain desirable changes in the behaviour of students, when evaluation is the process for determining the degree to which these changes in behaviour are actually taking place.

'This approach to evaluate lays emphasis on what has been learnt and what should have been learnt. It may be more appropriate here to use the term assessment rather than evaluation, where the primary focus is on the learning process within an educational training or developmental programme' stated by Megginson, Banfield, Mathews (1999).

Definitions of evaluation can be inclusive or exclusive; outcome oriented or process led. It is important to recognise that while the definition can be useful, they have to be treated with caution, they can be seen as starting point rather than a prescription.

Evaluation uses certain assessment and validation tools for measuring the practical results of the training, are met or not. Goldstein (1978) has discussed three validity issues related to evaluation of training-namely, internal validity (did training make a difference), training activity (did they reap), performance validity (are they transferring the learning?).

The basis of evaluation and the mode of collection of information necessarily should be determined at the beginning of any training and development programme. The time of evaluation, aspects on which the evaluation should be concentrated may require a great deal of attention from the training head (Krishna, 1998). Evaluation may be internal focussing on the instructional process and measuring the learning outcomes, and excludes transfer of learning on to the job situation, and
getting feedback from participants (Srivastava, Deb, prasad, 2001). The purpose of evaluation includes feedback, control, research, intervention and power games (Bramley and Newby, 1984, 1989). Various factors which influence the outcome of evaluation are the nature and type of organisation; trainer's understanding of evaluation; conduct of evaluation; methodology for evaluation and availability of resources such as time, money and personnel. Burgoyne and Copper (1975) revealed that very few practitioners were assessing other than trainee's reactions. Smith and Tanton (1985) observed that much current practices is only a ritual. In many cases the evaluation that counts is done before the course is ever given. Past course data merely confirms judgement that the training is satisfactory. Faxon (1989) in his review of training and development programmes evaluation found that trainers had a firm belief in principle of evaluation but was limited to measure only the reaction of the trainees. A research study by Nazimuddin (1983) conveyed that the General Manager of a leading engineering company wanted to know the pay off of efforts and resources that had gone into the training of its managers, so the company's Management Training Centre (MTC) carried out a study to find out the extent of impact that training had made on the individual managers and organisations. “Market research” approach was adopted to evaluate training in an organisation: and Foundry Division unit was selected for the study. 200 questionnaires were distributed and only 60% responded. The survey data clearly established that training had a high impact on their individual effectiveness and competencies on the job, with regard to Foundry Division's performance training had low impact on interpersonal trust across departments, relieving work tension and on owing responsibility for mistakes.

Meggison, Banfield Mathews (1999) state 'investing more time in extending and improving what and how we evaluate is not necessarily always productive and beneficial, the contribution training and
development can make to the individual and organization, is one that needs to be very carefully considered. Training Trends report of the Industrial Society (1993) noted that ‘Most organisations either fail altogether to evaluate the effectiveness of the training they pay for, or believe that the checks that do carry out are, at least, badly flawed ....’. The evaluation stage is arguably the most problematic part of the training process (Reid and Barrington, 1997). Thus even though the bottom line for most training and development programmes is an improvement in overall organisational performance, organisations often devote little attention to evaluating training effectiveness. In 1989, for example, only 3 per cent of UK establishments undertook any cost-benefit analysis of their training (Deloitte Haskins and Sells, 1989). Trainers spend time on training, not evaluating. A survey conducted in (1997) by Krishnajee in a bank revealed that there was neither system for evaluation nor any criteria. Therefore the evaluation function was subjected to varied judgments as per the perception of individuals. Spilsbury (1995) points out: Evaluation can be a time consuming process and time spent on evaluation is time that cannot be spent elsewhere'. Kirkpatrick (1994) noted that many training departments think about "doing more" but not do so for several reasons, including these: more thorough evaluation is not considered important or urgent, they do not know how to do it. In their survey of evaluation practices for technical training, Twitchell, Holton and Trott (2001) collected data on perceived impediments to evaluation. The top reasons offered for not conducting evaluation was that it was not required by the organisation. Additional costs associated with evaluation and lacks of training in evaluation methods were also primary reasons. Finally, lack of time was an important reason for not conducting evaluation of learning; a similar finding for on-the-job measures was reported in a survey of performance improvement specialists by Moller and Mallin (1996). Morrow, Jarrett and Rupinski (1997) evaluated results of 18 training programmes in a
Fortune 500 Pharmaceutical company. It was found that great variation existed between the effectiveness of the programmes. Managerial training was found to have less effect and utility (mean ROI=45 per cent) than sales and technical training (mean ROI= 418 per cent).

The intention in evaluation is to improve the training effectiveness, like Xerox retrained over 1,10,000 employees worldwide in early 1980’s and soon regained market share in its industry. General Motors is another firm that used training to help recover market share. Banifeild (1999) says companies are now taking much more seriously the importance of undertaking training, employer commitment to training and development is more positive than before Spilbury (1995) in his IES study, finding that: ‘There are signs that there is a changing mood in the UK with regard to measuring the effectiveness of training’. Industrial Society Publication (1996), claim that. ‘There is now an almost complete consensus on the importance of training evaluation.’

TRAINING EVALUATION MODELS:

Several authors and researchers have proposed models of evaluation. Srivastava (2001) views “models can be categorized into formative and summative evaluation. Formative model reviews and revise all parts of the instructional design process and evaluation is done on the basis of reviews, observations, pilot and field tests Summative evaluation measures the extent to which training has solved identified problems in the need assessment’.

Evaluation takes place through questionnaires, interviews, tests, performance and business data. Hamblin (1974) has used four levels of evaluation, ‘Reaction level, learning level, job-behaviour level and organisational level. A further level could be developed which may be called ultimate level. Warr et at (1978), propounds that the evaluation exercise be carried out covering the context, Input, Reaction and outcome of a training programme. Krikpatrick (1994) has suggested four
levels of evaluation, which consists of reaction, learning, behaviour and results. Model of Easterby-Smith (1994) is also based on four primary aims of evaluation. Proving, improving, learning and control.

Hamblin (1974) says “The purpose of evaluation is control ... A well controlled training Programme is one in which weaknesses and failures are identified and corrected by means of negative feedback, and strengths and successes are identified by means of positive feedback’.

Brinkorhoff and Brown (1997) have suggested three zones for evaluation of training and after training. Input process and output model talks about three stages of evaluation that is input, process and output and the evaluation is conducted at critical points at all the three stages.

Return on investment (ROI) model developed by Phillips (1997) consists of five stages. The first four stages are similar to that of Krikpatrick’s model but the fifth one is return on investment, which focuses on benefits-cost comparison.

Most of these models focus on the extent to which training objectives have been met, and try to see whether transfer of learning has taken place.

**CONCLUDING REMARKS:**

Training and development programs have “traditionally been a short term change strategy” (Rothwell and Khazans, 1994). Yet long term benefits are increasingly being viewed as a more important achievement of training and development systems, as organisations “......through out the world ....are Realising that development that development of their human resource is the key not only to business survival, but also to business success” (Johnston and McClelland, 1994). In an age where the focus is on improving the bottom line, controlling costs, leveraging technology, enhancing productivity and paying for performance, training and development has assumed a critical role in enabling
organisations to manage competition.

The increasing faith in training is backed by the evidence generated through countless surveys conducted world over in all types of enterprises which amply demonstrate that training properly planned conducted and evaluated contributes substantially to improving rational economic performance, enhancing organisational productivity and profitability, freeing management time, shortening the time required to reach maximum efficiency; reducing wastage labour turnover and accident rate; increasing personnel versatility and flexibility, and providing them better promotional prospects and greater job security (Ashton and Green, 1994; Durra, 1990; Grass and Jones, 1992, Kenney et al, 1990) and even in Indian context various research studies have been conducted regarding the effectiveness of training and development programmes, but as far as service industry is concerned not much has been done in the State of J&K. Few research studies as Riyaz (2003) has studied HRD practices in banks. Mushtaq (2006) has checked quality of services in banks and Tanveer (2003) has measured satisfaction level of customers regarding computerization in banks, but no exclusive study has been so far conducted within the state of Jammu & Kashmir to measure the effectiveness of training and development mechanism, which is of pivotal importance.