CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to identify the basic concepts, definitions, phenomenal research and development on this research topic. Experimental investigations and models developed where in the foundation of the research stand in are needed to be identified. Literature Review is based on the books, research models, experimentation and critically identified findings, growth and application in the field of study. These basics will be helpful for leading the research for identifying the cutting edge knowledge for further progression.

In this chapter, the concept of competency, competency development, and competency framework for PSUs and its significance, Leadership Beahviour competency and competency gap as training need for development interventions are identified through various findings. Also the evaluation of training and development models, identifying behaviour change, role of trainer on facilitation of learning, methods followed for beahviour change evaluation, Big Five model and Leadership competency, research identification of relationship between Competency, behaviour and Big Five Traits, Personality change through training and development interventions are reported for deepening the study for further progression.

Competency and need for its development:

The concept of “competency” was first brought about by Philip Selznick (1957), Robert White (1959), and subsequently David McClelland (1973)
remarkably developed the concept of “competency” as significant predictors of employee performance and success. Competencies emerged in the 1980s as a response to organizational changes and to wider changes in society. Prahalad and Hamel’s (1990) Harvard Business Review article “The core competence of the corporation”, the notion of competence has attracted a great deal of attention. From the standpoint of business studies, the term is related to the so-called resource-based view of companies that had been introduced earlier. Prahalad and Hamel (1990) argue that competitive advantage stems in the long term when a firm builds ‘core competences’ that denote the complex bundles of skills, technologies, resources, capabilities, and processes that make a disproportionate contribution to customer value. In India T.V. Rao learning centre, pioneer in Competency based development in Indian Industry advocating competency movement in PSUs and Private sector. Today widespread acceptance and implementation of competency framework in Indian Industry made it more competitive in the market.

In an effort to provide a complete understanding of the different aspects that the term “competency” incorporates, some of the more frequently cited definitions from the literature include:

- A combination of tacit and explicit knowledge, behaviour and skills that gives someone the potential for effectiveness in task performance [Draganidis and Mentzas (2006)].
- Personal characteristics that contribute to effective managerial performance [Albanese (1989)].
The characteristics of a manager that lead to the demonstration of skills and abilities, which result in effective performance within an occupational area [Hogg (1989)].

The ability to perform effectively the functions associated with management in a work situation [Hornby and Thomas (1989)].

Those characteristics - knowledge, skills, mindsets, thought patterns, and the like - that, when used either singularly or in various combinations, result in successful performance [Dubois (1998)].

Competencies are measurable human capabilities that are required for effective work performance demands [Marrelli (1998)].

A capacity to mobilize diverse cognitive resources to meet a certain type of situation [Perrenaud (2000)].

Sets of behaviours that is instrumental in the delivery of desired results or outcomes [Bartram et al. (2002)].

The skills, knowledge, abilities and other characteristics that someone needs to perform a job effectively [Jackson and Schuler (2003)].

Competency is a cluster of individual behaviour that lead to superior results in one aspect of a job. (Sraban Mukherjee 2011)

Sparrow and Hiltrop. J.M (1994) suggest that competencies fall into three categories: Behavioral, managerial and core. Behavioral competencies are defined as behavioral repertories which employees bring to and input on the job. The level of analysis used is the person and the job and there is a clear specification that these competencies are what employees needs to bring to the role/job to perform to the required level. Managerial competencies tend to be
defined as knowledge, skills and attitude and a small number of personal behaviors. The unit of analysis is the organisation and it is assumed that such competencies are generic; are extremely transferable and there is an entry threshold standard. This contract with the concept of a behavioral competency where the performance criterion is based on characteristics of excellent individual performance

**Prahalad, C.R. and Hamel, G.(1990).** Predicted that the Current and Future success of an organisation depends on the effectiveness of management’s leadership competencies combined with the competencies of the organizations work force. Management and work force competencies should reflect an organization’s current and future needs. This makes the identification of the competencies that will enable organizations to meet the demands of the future of vital importance. Essentially, there are two areas in which Training and development professionals will need to continue increasing their competence using technology and aligning performance goals with the business needs of the organisation.

**National Training policy (2012)** emphasis that, Training has usually be given based on the duties that are to be performed in a particular post. Thus, the issue of whether an individual has the necessary competencies to be able to perform the functions of a post has not been addressed. For moving to a competency-based approach, it would be necessary to classify the distinct types of posts and to indicate the competencies required for performing work in such posts. Once the competencies are laid down, an individual’s development can be more
objectively linked to the competencies needed for the current or future jobs. Career progression and placement need to be based on matching the individual’s competencies to those required for a post. The overarching training framework enunciated in the National Training, Policy (NTP) 2012 is 'Competency Framework'. Implementation of this concept by the Ministries/Departments would bring to light the various 'Competency gaps'; of employees that need to be bridged: through a range of 'Training interventions' to enhance their performance. Competencies encompass knowledge, skills and behaviour, which are required in an individual for effectively performing the functions of a post.

**Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2007).** Annual report reviews that competency management has increased in the last three decades. It is estimated that over 60% of organizations use a competency framework as a fundamental element of their training strategy. A competency can be defined as basic personal characteristic that is a determining factor for acting successfully in a job or situation (McClelland, 1993). A competency framework can be seen as an integrated set of competencies.

**Sushibusan Rath (2004)** In this paper brought out the importance of business theory which has three parts viz. the assumed organizational environment, the core missions of the organizations for which it was established and the abilities, the single minded devotion to achieve the missions of the organization. Organisational efficiency is the topmost priority of any organization. Efficiency is the competencies of the human resource. The competency is the sole knowledge power. It is the foremost asset of an organization. It has overtaken all other assets.
like material, financial and fictitious. It is the knowledge as an asset contribution highly to the organizational efficiency. Nurturing of growth is paramount importance to any organisation which believes in the development of individual and the organisation simultaneously. The employees competencies must be channelized to be used for growth and development creativity is the basis of growth and development. It can be developed through knowledge management. The accompanying process such as innovation could decide the organisation as a learning organisation.

**Norton (1987)** believes that competency-based training should be used as opposed to the “medieval concept of time based learning.” Foyster (1990) argues that using the traditional “school” model for training is inefficient. After in-depth examinations of three competency-based programs, Anthony Watson (1990) concluded that competency-based instruction has tremendous potential for training in Industry. Moreover, in a 1990 study of basic skills education programs in business and industry, Paul Delker found that successful training programs were competency-based.

**Ganesh, Shermon (2004),** described that an assessment centre consists of a standardized evaluation of behaviour based on multiple inputs. Several trained observers and techniques are used. Judgments about behaviour are made by these specially trained observers. At the end of the assessment the assessors get together to share their data which is scientifically recorded on a set of evaluation forms. They come to a consensus on the assessments of each candidate. Most frequently
the approach has been applied to individuals being considered for selection, promotion, placement, or special training and development in management.

_T. V. Rao and Mohit Juneja (2007)_ informing that assessment centers methodology is known to have been used or recommended at least 1500 years ago in India as mentioned in Kautilya’s Arthashastra. Different methods of assessing a candidate for ministerial positions have been spelt out in the Arthashastra including: observation, performance appraisal, assessment by those who knew him, interviewing, and other forms of testing. The assessment centre methodology can be used to measure the abilities of individuals against certain critical criteria and identify their training and developmental needs. Such assessment centre’s are more diagnostic than evaluative and can be termed as development centers. Large number of Asian companies has established assessment centers and many others are exploring. The companies that are trying out include : RPG Group, Escorts, TISCO, Aditya Birla Group, Eicher, Cadburys, Castrol (India), Glaxo, Grindwell Norton, ONGC, Mahindra and Mahindra, SAIL, Siemens, Wipro, Wockhardt, and J and J. Different organizations initiated assessment centers for recruitment, selection, placement, promotion, career development, performance appraisal, and succession planning and development purposes such as identification of training needs, identification high potential managers, create a pool of managerial talent and multifunctional managers that would be available across the business group, employee recognition and fast growth. Philips, Dr. Reddy’s Laboratories, and Global Trust Bank are organizations that have been using assessment centres. Some of these organizations are, in the process of developing Indian managerial
talent and measure it periodically. Ganesh (2004) lists a number of Indian organizations having well defined assessment centres.

_Satya Prakash Medavaram, Dr. Sindhu (2011)_ reporting that major issue is the complexity involved with the nature of behavioural competencies. Like that of an iceberg, it is only a small portion of a competency that is visible and assessable i.e., technical skills and knowledge part, above the water line, as shown in the picture. However, a major portion of it is too difficult to assess i.e., behavioral aspect, below the water line. The tools that are used to assess the ‘visible portion’ would not be as effective to assess the ‘not visible portion.’ Inaccurate techniques of measuring competencies provide input for future plans of competency development and assessment. The regular techniques, after failing to focus on ‘what to measure and how to measure,’ fail further to address the fundamental questions – ‘whom to develop, what to develop, how to develop, and how much to develop.’ Further to development of competency dictionary, each of the stages of Assessment and Development Center can be taken up. The major phases are Collecting Data for conducting Assessment Center, Developing a Competency-Tool Matrix and Assigning Weightages, Developing Exercises, Cases and Assessor Guidelines, Conducting the Assessment Center Generating Report & Providing Feedback to the participants, Action Planning for Individual Development.

_Mulder, M. (2000)_ is explaining that the idea of competitive advantage underlies much of the literature on organisational learning, strategic management, core competence, human resource management and development i.e. competence
development. The competence concept (Norris, 1991; Ellström, 1997; Delamare le Deist & Winterton, 2005) and organisational change. Coping with change and integrating organisational, human resource, and training and development strategies have become popular strategic management themes behind sustaining a competitive advantage and achieving superior organisational performance; competence and competence development have featured highly in this regard. Competence prevails as a research issue and potential organisational practice because of its supposed rational economic evaluation of social and organisational action.

**Hoffmann (1999)** cites two main approaches to competence: the US approach, predicated on the seminal works of McClelland (1971) and Boyatzis (1982), are based around behaviour leading to superior performance; the UK approach is based around outcomes from a job when it is performed properly; to identify the skills, knowledge and personal characteristics required to get a job done. Norris (1991) outlined three approaches or definitions of competence: behaviourist, generic, and cognitive. The behaviourist approach is outcome or product oriented where actions, behaviours or outcomes can be described and achievements in performance are qualities of persons. The generic approach establishes competencies through behavioural event or critical incident interviewing to identify the general abilities associated with expert performers. The cognitive approach sees competence as the potential performance of an actor; the underlying attributes of a person.
Mulder (2001), following a survey of over 200 organizations, identified eight functions of working with competence: 1. strategic, to be able to guide organizations and persons in the right direction; 2. communicative, to make goals and expectations explicit; 3. vertical alignment, to align organisational strategy with other processes such as personnel or training and learning policies; 4. horizontal alignment, the synchronisation of personnel instruments; 5. dynamism, concentration on personal development through competence profiles to bring about continued learning; 6. developmental, the use of the concept of competence to bring about personal development at various levels of the organisation; 7. employability, competence profiles and assessment generally lead to learning projects and thereby employability; 8. and performance improvement, facilitates the development of desired behaviour in line with desired performance.

Boyatzis, R.E. and Saatcioglu, A. (2008), reveal that the specification of a competency comes from the personality theory on which this approach is based. McClelland (1951) originally described a theory of personality as comprised of the relationships among a person’s unconscious motives, self-schema, and observed behavioral patterns. Boyatzis (1982) offered this scheme as an integrated system of concentric circles, with the person’s unconscious motives and trait dispositions at the center. These affected, and were affected by, the next expanding circle of the person’s values and self-image. The surrounding circle was labeled the skill level. The circle surrounding it included observed specific behaviors. The result is a personality theory, that incorporates and predicts the relationship among a person’s: neural circuits and endocrine (i.e. hormonal) processes; unconscious
dispositions called motives and traits; Values and operating philosophy; observed separate competencies; and. Competency clusters.

**Bernadette Allen (2012)** reporting the 5 reasons for competency-based training surpasses more conventional methods.

1. Competency-based training targets skill gaps. Traditional training is often generic, rather than targeted toward specific skill development.

2. Competency-based training is performance-based. This means that it focuses on performance of skills, rather than just the acquisition of knowledge.

3. Competency-based training requires that learners take responsibility for their own learning. Learners are partners in assessing their skill gaps and in selecting the best ways for them to bridge those gaps. Traditional training is often planned by the instructor with little or no input from the learner.

4. Competency-based training builds the training capacity of the organization. In traditional training, the role of the instructor is typically restricted to that of an expert within a classroom setting. With competency-based training, the workplace trainer’s coaching and mentoring role continues on an ongoing basis within the workplace.

5. Competency-based training is customized to meet the specific requirements of your organization and its employees. off-the-shelf programs often yield disappointing results. Implementing customized, competency-based training programs is the best way to ensure a positive return on investment on training expenditures.
Kumari and Sita (2010) observed that the Indian companies have realized the importance of human assets and have started using competency approach towards the human resource management to improve the quality human resources, generating trust & learning, result oriented, empowering employees, analyzing training & development needs, rating the employees, increased satisfaction, increased productivity and strengthening employee engagements has started among the employees and employers.

Thornton and Rupp (2006) argue that developmental assessment centers can be designed to provide more of a training experience in addition to a feedback experience. Such a design can include training on the assessment dimensions; feedback, reflection, coaching, and goal setting at multiple points throughout the center experience; and exercise sequences designed to provide opportunities to practice new behaviors. Rather than being a diagnostic at the start of a development process, learning and development take place during the assessment center. Thornton and Rupp also point out some important differences between traditional assessment centers and those used for development: In developmental assessment centers the focus should be on dimensions that are developable, assessors need to be skilled at coaching and facilitating a learning experience, and more time is spent on in-depth feedback and development planning. Rupp et al. (2006) note that developmental assessment centers vary widely in their design and implementation, and that studies are needed that vary in exercise types, participants, dimensions, target jobs, and industries.
Mulder, M. (2014). Describing that the Use of competency models compels organizations to attend to job-related information and employee skills when constructing training programs. Too often, leadership and management development programs take a topic-driven approach without any coalescing framework. Use of competency models helps to position organizations to change and innovate by focusing not just on topics but also the organization’s desired future state. Leadership competencies are not innate talents but they can be developed through well-designed leadership programs. Competency-based approaches offer three main advantages over a more traditional topic-oriented approach: clarity, consistency, and connectivity. First, they provide clarity by setting clear expectations about the knowledge, skills, and attitudes relevant for a particular job. Second, a competency model offers consistency by articulating a common framework and language for communicating and implementing a leadership development program. Last, competency frameworks supply connectivity to other human resource processes such as job descriptions, training, and performance evaluations.

P. Anitha Kumari a, V. Sita b Kumari and Sita (2010) have revealing that a beginning is thus made in the Indian organizations in the IT and Pharma sectors. It is understood that the competence based Hr functions adds value to the overall organization, helps in better human asset management and helps in better talent management. Competence based functions are advantageous to both the parties involved in the process. The companies in India have realized the importance of the human assets in the company and to have an effective talent management process they are using competency as a tool for managing their talent.
Thus a beginning is seen in terms of competence Management. Organization are implementing competence based Recruitment, Training, Performance Appraisal and Learning. Thus awareness of the competence practices in terms of quality human resources, generating trust & learning, result oriented, empowering employees, analyzing training & development needs, rating the employees, Increased satisfaction, increased productivity and strengthening employee engagements has started among the employees and employers.

**Dr. V. K. Jain (2013)** explaining that HRD aims at constantly assessing competency requirements of different individuals to perform the jobs assigned to them effectively and provide opportunities for developing these competencies to prepare them for future roles in the organization. RXY Laboratories keeps a record of employees’ Job Roles and prepares the Job descriptions accordingly. The present study was undertaken to analyze employee competencies including Attributes, Skills and Knowledge parameters in detail and make a gap analysis in the actual and desired skills and assess the training needs of the employees. It will help to improve the performance of the employees in general and provide information to the company about the skills they possess which will ensure development of promotion strategies within the company. The parameters were derived from the Job roles, HR policies and Key Result Areas (KRAs).

**R. Yuvaraj (2011),** reported that competency Mapping is a process of identifying key competencies for an organization, the jobs and functions within it. Competency mapping is important and is an essential activity. Every well-managed firm should have well defined roles and list of competencies required to perform
each role effectively. Competency mapping identifies an individual’s strengths and weaknesses in order to help them better understand themselves and to show them where career development efforts need to be directed. Competency mapping is not only done for Confirmed employees of an organization and it can also be done for contract workers or for those seeking employment to emphasize the specific skills which would make them valuable to a potential employer. These kinds of skills can be determined, when one is ready to do the work. Competency mapping is one of the most accurate means in identifying the job and behavioral competencies of an individual in an organization. Competency is a set of knowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform a job effectively and efficiently. A Competency is something that describes how a job might be done excellently; a Competence only describes what has to be done, not how. Core competency is something which cannot be copied and it is the pillar upon which individual rest.

**Leadership behaviour competency:**

Leadership of the organisation is the soul of the organisation. Leadership decides the success and failure of the company. Leadership is much discussed, researched, spoken and written topic in the world. People can feel the Leadership in any organisation but yet to derive any definition on the scientific basics is not developed. Hence understanding of the leadership theories will give some insights about it. Leadership theory is an explanation of some aspect of leadership, theories have practical value because they are used to better understand, predict and control the successful leadership.
Trait theory of leadership is outlining the distinctive character responsible for the leadership effectiveness. High Energy level, appearance, aggressiveness, self-reliance, persuasiveness, dominance etc are some of the traits of effective leaders. Process of identifying exact traits of effective leader is endless process.

Behaviour Leadership theory is trying or attempting to describe the distinctive styles or nature of work done by the effective leader. Mintzberg’s 10 managerial roles is the example of the Behaviour Leadership Theory. Although the leadership behaviour theory predicts the best behaviour of the Leader, the behaviour is basically depends up on the traits of the leader.

Since the traits theory and behaviour theory attempts to find the best leadership styles or work nature of the Leadership, both are named as universal theory of Leadership. Next development is contingency theory it attempts to explain the appropriate leadership styles based on the leader, follower and situation. Contingency theory is trying to describe the mangers work in different level, different level and different organisation based on its situation.

The paradigm shift of leadership concept changed into integrative or neo-charismatic theory emerged in 1970’s. The name integrative leadership theory itself reveal that, it integrates the concepts of traits, behaviour and situational or contingency theory of successful influencing leadership and follower relationships. It attempts to distinguish the successful behaviour or traits of leader which influence the behaviour of the follower to perform effectively to meet the organisational objectives.
Leadership traits are the combination of traits, skills, and behaviour leader’s use as they interact with followers. Although leadership styles are based on the traits and skills, the important component is behaviour that characteristic a leader. The dominant of character one exhibit will be termed as autocratic, democratic, charismatic etc. Other developments is transactional, transformational, and strategic leadership also been the influencing behaviour of the leaders on goal accomplishment or meeting objective of the organisation by way the support of the follower.

Behaviour is the function of competency. On strategic leadership, behaviour of the leader has a significant role on long term planning based or the organisational capability. Hence the leadership behaviour competency plays an important role on success of the organizational objective. Some of the research findings and discussion related to this research topic is presented below.

Gardner, W. L. & Schermerhorn, J. R. (2004). Studies of leadership consistently report that leader support and leadership ability are directly linked to subordinate performance, behaviors, and reactions, including job satisfaction, positive mood, affective commitment to the organization, reduced turnover, reduced withdrawal behaviors, improved work performance, pursuit of more challenging goals, goal attainment, perseverance, greater resistance to stress, and value of progress (Bass, 1990; Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1993; Luthans, 2003; Yukl, 1989).

Barlow, C. B., Jordan, M., & Hendrix, W. H. (2003). Explain that Over the years, there have been many conceptualizations of “leadership.” Some have
considered the role of personal characteristics, such as character, as the foundation of leadership; this philosophy is in accordance with the belief that leadership achievements are more shaped by an individual’s collection of attitudes, dispositions, and habits (character) than by his/her skill or education. This conceptualization of leadership may be considered charismatic leadership, whereby leaders are successful due to their emotional appeal, or their ability to motivate followers on a personal/emotional level.

Gray, C., & Mabey, C. (2005). Recommending that the leadership development is studied from a competency perspective. Approaching it from this perspective is not to deny that other, maybe superior, approaches exist. This approach also recognises that leadership development will be at least as complex, if not more so than leadership itself, which is multifaceted, versatile, and trans-disciplinary in nature (Halpern, 2004). Thus no single leadership development approach would be expected to cover all aspects of leadership, adult learning, and developmental theories. Effective leadership and management competencies are now seen as key to successful organisational performance and competitiveness.

Boyatzis, R. E. (2008). Identified three broad competency areas: self-management capabilities, such as self-awareness, ability to balance conflicting demands, ability to learn, and leadership values; social capabilities, such as ability to build and maintain relationships, ability to build effective work groups, communication skills, and ability to develop others; and work facilitation capabilities such as management skills, ability to think and act strategically and creatively, and ability to initiate and implement change. Young and Dulewicz
(2008) highlight conceptualisation, alignment, interaction, and creation of success as important competency clusters to be targeted. Authenticity, agility, resilience, foresight, selfmastery, G-localism (ability to work in both local and global environments), intuition, presence, and creativity, emotional intelligence-related competencies, strategic perspective, analysis and judgment, planning and organising, managing staff, persuasiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, oral communication, resilience and adaptability, energy and initiative, achievement motivation, and business sense, technical ability and people skills, and self-efficacy have all been highlighted as integral to leadership.

**Day, D. V. (2000).** Describing that the structured approach to developing leaders comes in various formats, which may be used independently or combined, depending on the organization’s goals. Individual skill development programs are characterized by the assessment of a leader’s personality, values, and behaviors, oftentimes with a 360-degree feedback assessment to identify the strengths and weaknesses of a leader. Coaches are frequently used to deliver feedback then develop and execute an action-oriented plan to emphasize strengths and improve deficiencies. To maximize development, coaches should deliver feedback at the task level rather than at the person level, meaning that feedback should be specific to relevant task(s) and directed at what a leader does rather than who the leader is.

**T.V. Rao (2007), explaining the India: Actions for Leadership Development as follows**

1. Measure leadership skills through 360-degree feedback.
2. With assistance from external consultants, develop company-specific leadership seminars.

3. Employ external coaches.

4. In the company, develop company-specific leadership seminars.

5. Through external consultants, assess employee leadership skills.

6. Use assessment centers to assess employee leadership skills.

7. Develop country-specific leadership seminars in cooperation with business schools.

8. Have senior executives assess employee leadership skills through action-learning seminars.

9. Develop an internal virtual leadership institute.

10. Develop an internal brick-and-mortar leadership institute.

They need to develop the following:

1. Vision.

2. Continuous learning and learning sensitivity.

3. Self renewal (the fact most managers are still shy of getting 360 degree feedback done for themselves is itself an indicator).

4. Delegation
5. Empowerment.

6. Ability to recognize, empower, and develop juniors.

7. Result orientation

8. Perseverance.

9. Integrating ability.

10. Sense of priority and purpose (focus)

Future management development programmes and management education should focus on developing these competencies. Leadership development and competency building is a complex phenomenon. Indian managers seem to be good specialists. They do their job well and seem to have a good degree of functional knowledge. What they need to be trained however is transformational competencies.

Allen J. Morrison (2000) reporting that during the 1990s, competency-based leadership models have swept the human resource management community. Companies as diverse as IBM, AIG, Citibank, Black & Decker, and Deloitte & Touche have established long term human resource management teams to identify company-specific leadership attributes that apply around-the-world. The objective of identifying these attributes is to create a template for a wide array of internal management selection, assessment, and development programs.

McCauley, C. D. (2008). Organizations invest considerable resources into identifying the “holy grail” of leadership competencies that are needed for success
in their organization. As described by Intagliata “This holy grail, when found, would identify a small set of attributes that successful leaders possess, articulate them in ways that could be transferred across all leaders, and create leadership development experiences to ensure that future leaders possess these attributes.” Indeed, organizations routinely use their leadership competency models not only for leadership development but also for performance management, recruiting and staffing, and succession planning. The challenge, however, is that it is unclear whether there is such a “holy grail,” or even a coherent set of attributes or competencies that are needed for effective leadership.

Day (2000) noted that the “preferred approach is to link leader development with leadership development such that the development of leadership transcends but does not replace the development of individual leaders.” Instead of treating these concepts as independent, future research should provide a more integrative account of how leader and leadership development can be complementary in building the capacity for more effective leadership processes. In particular, an important research question is how organizations can develop effective leader-follower relationships and collective leadership structures, while also cultivating individuals who effectively participate in these leadership processes. The two concepts are interdependent and likely complementary.

Hewitt Associates (2005) studied leadership development among 373 U.S. companies, 20 of Which were labeled “Top 20 Companies for Leaders.” The standout companies for leaders not only all have leadership competencies in place, but successfully integrate the competencies into succession planning, pay formulas,
and performance management. The table below presents the results collected in the study, How the Top 20 Grow Great Leaders.

Table 2.1: Leadership Competency Trends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. no</th>
<th>Competency - Related Characteristic</th>
<th>Top 20 Companies</th>
<th>Other Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Companies with Competencies</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Companies that Integrate Competencies into Succession Planning Process</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Companies that Measure Leader Performance Against Competencies</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Companies that Have Follow-Up Measures to Gauge Progress in Meeting Competencies</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Companies that Use Competencies to Determine Long-Term Incentive Pay</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Companies that Use Competencies to Determine Base Pay</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Companies that Use Competencies to Determine Annual Incentive Pay</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Companies that Use Competencies to Determine Base Pay</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gentry, W., & Leslie, J. (2007). Organizations invest considerable resources into identifying the “holy grail” of leadership competencies that are needed for success in their organization (Alldredge & Nilan, 2000; Intagliata, Ulrich, & Smallwood, 2000). As described by Intagliata et al. (2000, p. 12), “This holy grail, when found, would identify a small set of attributes that successful leaders possess, articulate them in ways that could be transferred across all leaders, and create leadership development experiences to ensure that future leaders possess these attributes.” Indeed, organizations routinely use their leadership
competency models not only for leadership development but also for performance management, recruiting and staffing, and succession planning (Gentry & Leslie, 2007; McCauley, 2008). The challenge, however, is that it is unclear whether there is such a “holy grail,” or even a coherent set of attributes or competencies that are needed for effective leadership.

**Eric John Bergstrom** First, informing leaders about and connecting leaders with the organizational strategy is critical to building the leaders’ confidence in the management team and the leaders’ support in implementing the strategy and cascading it down to the level of transactional action plans. Second, the development of leaders’ future competencies by linking leaders’ personal development plan objectives to specific company growth plans, as opposed to generic competency models, was identified as a best practice among organizations with effective talent management processes and competency models.

**Stephenj. Drotter and Ramcharan. (2001)** A well-defined leadership pipeline delivers important benefits.

1. By establishing appropriate requirements for the six leadership levels, companies can greatly facilitate succession planning, and leadership development and selection processes in their organizations.

2. Individual managers can clearly see the gap between their current performance and the desired performance. They can also see gaps in their training and experience, and where they may have skipped a passage (or parts of a passage) and how that’s hurting their performance.
3. HR can make development decisions based on where people fall short in skills, time application and work values, rather than rely on generalized training and development programs.

Cynthia D. McCauley (2008) reported that the most frequent conceptualization is that leader development is about the development of the leader’s skills and abilities. These skills and abilities are often referred to as leader competencies, and many organizations have articulated a competency model that lists and describes their assessment of the capabilities individuals need to lead effectively in the organization (Bersin, 2007). A wide array of competencies can be included in such models. In their popular development guide for leaders, Lombardo and Eichinger (2000) describe 67 competencies. Success Factors, a fast-growing provider of talent management solutions, uses a library of 51 standardized competencies (Bersin, 2007). This would indicate that leaders develop on a variety of dimensions—at any one point in time an individual leader can be very developed on some dimensions and less developed on others. When leader competencies are the framework for leader development, theories of adult learning and behavior change inform the understanding of the development process (for example, see London, 2002; Peterson & Hicks, 1995), and tools such as goal setting, experiential learning, feedback, and rewards are seen as central to leader development.

Charmaine Brittain & Freda Bernotavicz (2014) Use of competency models compels organizations to attend to job-related information and employee skills when constructing training programs (Campion, et al., 2011). Too often,
leadership and management development programs take a topic-driven approach without any coalescing framework. Use of competency models helps to position organizations to change and innovate by focusing not just on topics but also the organization’s desired future state.

**Shippmann. (2000).** Leadership competencies are not innate talents (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002); but they can be developed through well-designed leadership programs. Competency-based approaches offer three main advantages over a more traditional topic-oriented approach: clarity, consistency, and connectivity (Conger & Ready, 2004). First, they provide clarity by setting clear expectations about the knowledge, skills, and attitudes relevant for a particular job. Second, a competency model offers consistency by articulating a common framework and language for communicating and implementing a leadership development program. Last, competency frameworks supply connectivity to other human resource processes such as job descriptions, training, and performance evaluations.

**Impact of Training on Leadership Behaviour Competency:**

Training is a planned process that facilitates the modification or change in knowledge, skill or Behaviour required performing the job or task effectively. Evaluation is a process of getting to know the value of training intervention. An impact survey is an evaluation tool to measure the extent to which skills and knowledge learned in the program have translated into improved behavior and the final results that occurred because the participants attended the training program. There are various models used for training effectiveness evaluation.
1. Donald L Kirkpatrick’s "Four steps to measuring training effectiveness”

Model:

This model uses four separate stages for the evaluation of the effectiveness of a training program.

- **Reaction:** What they thought and felt about training. Measured through smile sheets.

- **Learning:** Increase in knowledge and capability. Enhanced level of knowledge or skill. Assessment, test or performance test are used for measurement.

- **Behaviour:** Extent of change in behaviour or capability on application of learning. Pretest and post test, 360 degree feedback, questionnaire are used.

- **Results:** The effects of training on quality, performance, profit and cultural modification obtained.

    Evaluation of results in terms of Return on Investment (ROI) is additional version of Kirkpatrick model developed by the researcher Phillips (1996) for measuring the performance in money value.

**Input–Output Approach Model:**

David S Bushnell reported a model where in mapping out the competences required to perform a job and to linking these competences to the delivery of training interventions are identified.(David S Bushnell(1990) "Input, Process, and Output: A model for Evaluating Training” Training and Development Journal.)
WARR’S FRAME WORK OF EVALUATION:

Peter Warr had recommended C.I.P.O Model of evolution. It considers evaluation is the process and it should be done prior, during and after training.

Context evaluation (C) it deals about the training need in terms of performance deficiency, organisational deficiency and identifying the need of the training.

Input Evaluation (I): Determine the training resources like what type of training inputs need to be given, internal or external training agencies to be engaged, training design and methods of training to be selected are dealt with this process.

Process Evaluation (P): it is monitoring the training arrangement, conduction or facilitation and on the job feedback from the trainee about the training intervention.

Outcome evaluation: (O): Measuring the training progression and continuous evaluation of learning and its outcomes. it consist of immediate, intermediate and
long term outcome. Immediate means the learning and skill updating or enhancement due to training. Intermediate means change in behaviour of the participants in the on the job environment and long term means the performance or result obtained or financial outcome.

VIRMANI AND PERMILA’S MODEL (P.C.P Model):

This model constitutes a three stage evaluation, namely Pre-Training, context and Input and Post-Training evaluation.

**Pre -Training evaluation (P):** It ensures the objectives of the training should meet the needs of the trainee and organisational or system requirement.

**Context and Input Evaluation(C):** it ensures that, the trainers understanding about the trainee’s needs and organisational needs. It also ensures the content part of training and training methods to be employed to ensure the objectives of training.

**Post training evaluation (P):** it consist of Reaction evaluation, Learning, job improvement plan Evaluating the transfer of training to the job, and follow up evaluation.

Reaction Evaluation is the trainee’s impression about the training learning evaluation is the degree of learning about the content of training.

Job improvement plan is the action plan for implementing the off the job learning into the on the job work implementation and its relevance on job application.
Evaluating transfer of Training to the Job: in this process evaluating the transfer of learning in to the real world application. Follow up of Evaluation means evaluation of this steps focus on the performance improvement, work or quality improvement and cost benefit analysis of training intervention.

**BARMELY EVALUATION METHOD:**

According to Barmely, if the intension of training is performance improvement and behaviour change, evaluation is to be carried out before learning activity is designed and conducted.

- Whether training is necessary or performance management will achieve the desired change
- How learning is integrated with the organisational system and process
- What level of support required from the supervisor and superior to implement the learning in to real job environment

**Evaluation during Event:** whether the trainee and trainer understood the objective, quality of the event or activity, whether the objective meet the organisational objective, evaluating through the questionnaire about the content, nature of learning experience.

Evaluation after the event: This is difficulty part of measuring ie. changes in organisational level, team level and Individual level.

i. **Changes in Behavior:** Barmely measure the behaviour of the trainee in terms of work role. It measures the improved level of competence. Also it
measures the required level of change in behaviour is obtained in organisational level, team level and individual level.

ii. **Changes in Learning: there are three level of change like**, Level of increase in knowledge, Improvement in skill level of trainee, Change in Attitude through critical question/incident method.

**Espejo.R. Schuchmann W, Schwaninger M, Bilello U (1996)**. Inform that Competence development is about an enhancement in any field of Competence. If the increased competence is used in the organisation, it can be seen as organisational learning. Education or learning itself ia an action, but that the increase of competence is not valuable to the company until the individual in it takes an action that benefits the company. Competence development is not about the individual’s competence; on the contrary it is necessary to see to the organizational competence as a whole

**Nadler and Nadler (1989)** have defined three human resource development (HRD) areas. According to them training results in learning that is focused on the present job of the learner. Education is learning focused on a future job for the learner. Development is learning that is not focused or referenced to any Particular job. Training and education components as a part of professional competence development are emphasized

**Mclagan,P.A (1996)**, describe that the purpose of training and development, a competency is a cluster of related knowledge, skills and attitudes that correlates with effective job performance, can be measured and evaluated, and that can be improved through training and development. This definition of
competence includes only what seems to be trainable and desirable. By trainable we mean competencies in training and development can be affected by training effort, as compared with a trait, that cannot be trained. A trait is a relatively enduring characteristics of an individual’s behaviour that cannot be easily changed through training. By desirable we mean that it does not seen politically incorrect or as being manipulative, such as it may if an attempt is made to change a group of employees’ values using training.

Giber, D., Carter, L. L., & Goldsmith, M. (Eds.). (2000). Emphasis that the goal in mind competencies have been identified and taught which target both people skills like communication, inspiration, motivation, and team building, and knowledge-based skills, such as reasoning, logical thinking, Creativity, and problem solving. Giber found that the top leadership competencies taught in leadership programs included individual, team, and organizational aspects such as building teamwork, understanding the business, conceptual thinking, and emotional intelligence in many programs leadership development is a process of self development”

Xiangmin L.V. Batt, Rosemary (2007) in an empirical study examines the relationship between informal training and job performance. The primary data were collected from 2803 telephone operators in a large U.S. telecommunications company. The analysis of the primary data shows that the implementation of informal training was associated with higher productivity over time. The study shows that the employees with low level of pre-training competency were able to show greater improvements than those employees with high level of pre-training
competency. The study also establishes the importance of trainers viz, Peer or supervisors. The study reveals that the below average pre-training competency workers show greater results through supervisor training. The average pre-training competency employees gain much from peer training.

Johnson Stefanie K & Garrison Laurien L (2012) have, in an empirical survey examined the relationship between goal setting and transfer of training in a leadership development programme. They found that leaders set personal goals for behaviour change during training. For the competencies of developing others, building and maintaining relationships it was found that those who set more than one goal were perceived as having improved more on competencies than those who set only one goal.

Jacobson, W, Rubin, E.V., & Selden, S.C. (2002) inform that the Literature accords tremendous need of training of the public managers, as they have often been criticized for their bureaucratic, and impersonal and reactive attitude. The knowledge as a critical factor of competitiveness in the public sector. And a well-trained civil service is an imperative for sustainable development. So, there is a great need of their training to accomplish upgraded roles and responsibilities. Moreover, continuing education is needed also to avert obsolescence in the public sector organizations. Hence training infrastructure of a government is an important predictor of its performance

Collins & Holton (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of the benefits of managerial leadership development programs including 83 studies published between 1982 and 2001 (see also Cullen & Turnbull 2005). They found that mean
ds (comparing training with no training) ranged from 0.96 to 1.37 for knowledge outcomes and from 0.35 to 1.01 for expertise/behavioral outcomes. Knowledge was defined as principles, facts, attitudes, and skills measured using both subjective (e.g., self-reports) and objective (e.g., standardized tests) measures. Expertise/behavioral outcomes were defined as changes in on-the-job behavior and were also assessed using both subjective (e.g., peer ratings) and objective (e.g., behavioral) measures.

**Day, D. V. (2012)** discussing that When implementing a leadership development program, it is essential to begin by forming a leadership competency model or a framework of relevant knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) particular to the organization. Not surprisingly, leadership scholars emphasize the multifaceted nature of leadership skills, which can involve cognitive, interpersonal, business, and strategic skills, each of which may be necessary at different levels of the organizational hierarchy. Therefore, recognizing that the same KSAOs may not be relevant for all leaders across the organization and that identifying the KSAOs relevant to a particular leader at a given level is essential.

**Delahoussaye (2001a & 2001b)** reported on research conducted by Training magazine and the American Management Association on leadership development programs used by U.S. corporations. The study wanted to find how successful leadership development was in preparing people for increased managerial responsibility and how well it did in raising leadership competencies. Survey respondents were asked to rank skills in regard to their importance to the
organization, then to rank them as they were currently demonstrated in the organization. The most important were Communication skills, Managing change, Strategic visioning and Developing others. The survey then asked how successful their organization’s leadership development program was in addressing the identified skills. Almost half said they were satisfied that their program targeted the required skills and abilities. Interestingly fewer than 10% said that participation in leadership development “highly” effected future employment decisions, yet more than half got salary increases or promotions within two years of attendance in the program.

**Zenger, J., D. Ulrich & N. Smallwood. (2000).** A common method of leadership development has been the lecture delivered in the classroom, where groups sit in the same room listening to and observing instructors. Other group methods also use the classroom or meeting setting where groups are engaged in discussion, or view videotapes or films, or listen to guest speakers who tell stories and give examples of leadership.

**Seth, P. 1984 explaining that** the process of assessing and finding the gap between standard competence and existing competence in terms of knowledge, skill and attitude are called as identification of training needs. These views have taken a comprehensive process of identifying training needs assessment and have described the process of identifying training under the two situations—ideal and less than ideal. Training programs for its employees to enhance their abilities and competencies that are needed at the workplace.
**Rajeev, P., Madan, M.S., and Jayarajan, K. (2009).** Explaining that the Reaction is trainee’s response to training activities, which is based on his/her opinions, observations, judgments, perceptions, and understanding about the training program as well as his/her performance. It clarify that this response is post-training. This level of evaluation focuses on the key stakeholder, i.e., the trainee who responds only by showing his/her behavior towards training, and therefore, researchers prefer the aspects of authenticity and usefulness of measuring trainees’ reactions so that accuracy is ensured (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006). Learning is the second level of TE model. It is measured by assessing whether there is a positive change in the level of trainees’ knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) happened.

**Collins DB, Holton EF III. (2004)** reveal that there are also documented benefits of training for managers and leaders. Collins&Holton (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of the benefits of managerial leadership development programs including 83 studies published between 1982 and 2001. They found that mean ds (comparing training with no training) ranged from 0.96 to 1.37 for knowledge outcomes and from 0.35 to 1.01 for expertise/behavioral outcomes. Knowledge was defined as principles, facts, attitudes, and skills measured using both subjective (e.g., self-reports) and objective (e.g., standardized tests) measures. Expertise/behavioral outcomes were defined as changes in on-the-job behavior and were also assessed using both subjective (e.g., peer ratings) and objective (e.g., behavioral) measures.
**Martineau.J, & Hannum.K (2004)** reported that the retrospective pretest and posttest assessment require two ratings: One rating focuses on the individual before the program, and the other rating assesses the person’s skill and behaviour after the program is complete. Response Shift bias is avoided when participants rate themselves a single frame of reference. A researcher stated that retrospective designs produce a more legitimate assessment of program outcomes than traditional pretest-posttest methodology. They suggest that collecting outcome information at the end of the program can respond to the dynamic, evolving needs of the participants to reflect the actual program content as it evolved over time.

**Alice M.Black, Garee W.Earnest (2009)** informing that the strength of the individual outcomes varied according to the individual. All, however, had some type of outcomes on the individual level from their programme participation. Eighty-eight percent of the participants described ways in which they personality changed due to their leadership Programme Experience. At the individual level, outcomes occurred in the areas of personal growth, self-confidence, personal power, and creative thinking, valuing of time, business skill building, and modeling behaviors. Patterns that emerged on this level from the open-ended questions were increased confidence, increased communications skills, better ability to network, and more awareness of cultural factors.

**Stefanie K. Johnson, Lauren L. Garrison, Gina Hernez-Broome, John W. Fleenor and Judith L. Steed (2012)** describing that Leaders set personal goals for behavior change during the program. For two of the three competencies measured (developing others, building and maintaining relationships), leaders who
set a goal for change on a competency were perceived as having improved more on that competency than those who did not. Those who set more than one goal were perceived as having improved more across competencies than those who set only one goal.

Oribabor (2000) submitted that training and development aim at developing competences such as technical, human, conceptual and managerial for the furtherance of individual and organization growth, also Isyaku (2000) postulated that the process of training and development is a continuous one. Man is dynamic in nature, the need to be current and relevant in all spheres of human endeavor makes staff development a necessity, to keep track with current event and methods.

According to Wright and Geroy (2001), employee competencies changes through effective training programs. It not only improves the overall performance of the employees to effectively perform the current job but also enhance the knowledge, skills an attitude of the workers necessary for the future job, thus contributing to superior organizational performance. Through training the employee competencies are developed and enable them to implement the job related work efficiently, and achieve firm objectives in a competitive manner. Effective training programs helps employees to get acquaintance with the desired new technological advancement, also gaining full command on the competencies and skills required to perform at a particular job and to void on the job errors and mistakes (Robert, 2006).
Ramachandran (2010) has made an analytical study on effectiveness of training programme of different cadre of employees working in a public sector organization. The result reveals that employees differed in effectiveness of training programme on the basis of demographic characters. It is also inferred that experience and education of the employees of the organization is predominating and determining factor in training programme.

Hunt & Baruch (2003) highlighted that some organizations invest a great deal of time and effort in elaborate training programmes designed to improve the so-called soft skills of managing. Yet assessing the effectiveness of such initiatives has been rare. Recent developments in the use of survey feedback have provided a technique for pre and post training assessment. A study, at a leading business school, was designed to assess the impact of interpersonal skills training on top managers. The evaluation of training was based on subordinate feedback conducted before, and six months after training programme took place. The result indicates significant impact on some but not all of the competencies and skill under study.

Srivastava. ET. al. (2001) evaluated the effectiveness of various training, programme offered by the in-house training centre of Tata Steel, Shavak Nanavati Training Institute (SNTI), India. Effectiveness of training was measured in terms of various outcomes such as satisfaction level, reaction and feedback of participants, and change in performance and behaviour as perceived by participants, their immediate supervisors, and departmental heads. It was found that the satisfaction level of participants, their superiors and divisional heads were
above average for all types of programmes. The participants were benefited from the programme but transfer of learning was not as expected from the supervisors.

**Peter Senge (2004)** starts with the striking fact that in less than 15 years, one third of the fortune 500 companies have disappeared, and the average lifetime for the largest enterprises is less than 40 years. So how can companies that have excelled and reached the top just sky dive, and on the contrary, why do other companies stay on the top? The answer to the dilemma is that the companies that survive have somewhat succeeded in creating a “learning organization”. The definition of a learning organization is “an organization where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together”

**Joshua C. Laguerre (2010)** Can leadership be developed using a leadership theory-based approach? I believe the evidence says it can, as I originally suspected at the beginning of this process. However, there are many issues to consider before attempting to develop leadership. First you must know what definition of leadership you are seeking to develop. Second, if you are following a model of leadership, I recommend that the theory has been well researched, has received widespread support for what it predicts, and has a framework that can the basis of an leadership development intervention.

**Draganidis, Mentzas (2006)** emphasis that the Competency gap analysis can identify the needed competencies; these competencies can be linked with the equivalent learning objects Researchers have offered a discussion on the
competency based practice done by organizations, for example, ford financial uses a skill and competency based learning program that affords employee an opportunity to view information such as the skills and competencies needed for positions.

Shefali Sachdeva explain the Challenges in the Field of training and development that to find the best way to go about training and developing employees. Organisations improvement and development requires enhancing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSAs) or abilities of the workforce. Of all these areas Behaviour modification is drawing attention increasingly in shaping behaviour of people in the organisation. If behaviour of employees is not positive, productive and supportive, the attainment of organisational goal will suffer. Behaviour modification involves encouraging others to behave in a desired way, while discouraging the undesirable behaviour. Behaviour modification has a prominent role to play in all workplace interactions, to produce more satisfied workers and increase employer's profitability. The evaluation process is not carried out with a sense of purpose, pride, and direction.

Schultz, Duane; Schultz, Sydney Ellen (2010). Elaborate that the use of positive reinforcement to change behavior has many applications to organizational training. An assessment called performance audit is conducted first, to determine the problems or behaviors that can be modified for more efficient job performance. A program of positive reinforcement is then introduced to reward employees for displaying the desired behaviors, such as reducing errors or production time per unit. Punishment or reprimands are not used: although these may temporarily
eliminate an undesirable behavior, they may leave in its place anxiety, hostility and anger. Providing positive reinforcement is much more effective in improving employee productivity and behavior.

**Yadapadithaya, P.S. (2001).** Has studied the current practices of evaluating training and development programmes in the Indian corporate sector on the basis of data collected from written questionnaires mailed to 252 respondent companies – 127 private, 99 public, and 26 multinational corporations (MNCs). The major findings of his study include the following:

- High pressure for increased quality, innovation, and productivity acts as a major driving force for the Indian corporate training and development programmes.

- Most of the key result areas of training and development function are related to the measurement and evaluation of training effectiveness.

- Absence of transfer of learning from the place of training to the workplace has been a major perceived deficiency of the corporate training and development system.

- Indian corporate sector is currently facing the challenge of designing and developing more valid, reliable and operational measures to evaluate the effectiveness of training and development.

**Srivastava, K.B.L., Deb, S., & Prasad, A.P. (2001).** Evaluated the effectiveness of various training programmes offered by the in-house training centre of Tata Steel, Shavak Nanavati Training Institute (SNTI), India.
Effectiveness of training was measured in terms of various outcomes such as satisfaction level; reaction and feedback of participants; and change in performance and behavior as perceived by participants, their immediate supervisors, and departmental heads. The sample consisted of sixty departmental heads, fourteen hundred participants and thirteen hundred immediate supervisors from various departments. The data were collected through structured interview schedule. It was found that the satisfaction levels of participants, their superiors, and divisional heads were above average for all types of programmes. The participants were benefited from the programmes, but transfer of learning was not as expected from their supervisors. There were changes in the post-training performance ranging from 10 to 37 per cent. Training programmes could meet the objectives only to a limited extent

Stefani Sachdeva (2014) explaining that depending on the nature, purpose, design and objective of the behavioural training and development programme various designs and methodologies may be practiced to evaluate its effectiveness. Written evaluation: This allows for more meaningful questions and responses (i.e., what part of the training have you used and how? or what language used in the training has become part of your regular vocabulary at work? or what part of training have you discussed with your peers, supervisors after the programme and why? Such questions suggest the application of the learning and its extent and thereby signify degree of effectiveness of the programme. Self reporting of participants: Participants may share their experiences to include the contents or address the needs and issues which remained uncovered by the programme they have undergone. Enhanced individual performance: When training is targeted at
improving individual performance in some area, measuring individual performance post training relative to a baseline or pre training performance level will provide a good measure of effectiveness. Increased organisational savings/production: This process involves pre and post assessments of participants involved and/or the production levels or expenditures within the areas where participants work. A serious problem in using this approach is that the enhanced saving can be a result of some other factor operating in the work environment. This again takes us to the unanswered question of isolating the impact of such programmes. Reduced grievances: This involves comparing post training grievance levels with baseline or pre training grievance levels. Lowered legal costs pertaining to employee issues: In a similar fashion to measuring reductions in grievances, legal costs associated with employee issues may also be compared with a baseline to post-training method. In both the cases however, sufficient time for impact should be considered. Improved or new work procedures: This is an outcome evaluated for assessing effectiveness of programmes conducted to encourage initiative or participation on the part of employees, cooperation amongst employees, team work etc. Pre and post comparisons of productivity, initiatives, team performance may serve the purpose of evaluation here to some extent but are not absolute measures which recognize the impact of the programme quite objectively. Attitude surveys: Typical problems in this case involve poor question design and the lack of conclusive results leading to inability to develop specific responses or action plans. However, correctly designed surveys will provide good insight into the effectiveness of such training. Fact Sheet: Various success factors can be listed in fact sheets to define and assess desired behaviours and behaviour modification sought. A response to the same by
the immediate supervisor as observed by him at the workplace may be used to measure the effectiveness of the programme. Group Interviews (Focus Groups): This may consist of people with similar characteristic, location, training need. Organisational Continuous Improvement Assessment (OCIA) Tool: This includes assessment of current state, desired state, critical gaps, root causes of the gaps, and key priorities for addressing those root causes to improve organisational performance. This assessment tool is designed to guide the user through continuous improvement process—linking improvement efforts, professional development, behavioural support and training to the organisations strategy and desired outcomes.

Stephen Blakemore (2008) Conventional training courses are designed to achieve a series of learning objectives that will be met (or not met) within a given timeframe—usually this is by the end of the course. The objectives are based on an often broad assessment of learning needs. Learning is then measured against these objectives and tested during the course. At the end of the training, participants might receive a certificate of attendance and complete an action plan for further learning and development. Competency based training is more rigorous and more flexible. Rigorous because the emphasis is on performance not on the recall of knowledge; flexible because competencies are independent of the learning process and can, therefore, be achieved through any mode. Learning is self-paced. For example, participants will enter the training already competent in certain areas. These can be demonstrated and assessed before or during the training and the participant will focus on what he or she needs to learn. At the end of the training,
new competencies are recorded. There is no reference to scores, grades or a failure to achieve. Only what has been attained is noted.

Taylor, P. J., Russ-Eft, D. F., & Chan, D. W. L. (2005). Explaining that behavioral role modeling. Behavioral role modeling has been used to train a variety of psychomotor and interpersonal skills. This training strategy is based on social learning theory. Specifically, trainees learn new skills by watching others perform those skills. First, Trainees are provided with a set of behaviors (skills) to be learned. These learning objectives are most effective when presented as rule codes (Taylor et al., 2005). Second, targeted behaviors are demonstrated by behavioral models, usually through audio and/or video media. The demonstration component is most effective when both positive and negative models are shown rather than positive models only third, trainees practice using the targeted behaviors. Practice opportunities are most effective when they include some scenarios that are generated by the trainees themselves during training (Taylor et al., 2005). Finally, trainees are provided with feedback on their performance and reinforcement for transferring their newly learned skills. In this regard, instructing trainees to set their own goals for transfer facilitates behavior change (Taylor et al., 2005). Thus, we recommend demonstrating effective workplace behaviors based on demonstrated behavioral modeling practices.

Role of Trainer in competency development:

Traditional training is trainer centered. Competency based training is trainee centered. The level of understanding of training needs, training objectives, trainees entry behaviour, need of training, performance problem, competency gap,
skills of applying training methods and techniques, trainer attitude towards the process of felicitation are important in the trainee centered competency based training. In the competency based training the trainer is required to act as coach, designer, mentor, problem solver, councilor, guide and demonstrator for enhancing the knowledge, skill and change in behaviour of the trainees. Hence different literature review related to role of trainer in training is discussed below.

Alan Hooper (2005) describe that training facilitator must empathies well with their group. Second, skilled facilitators are good at emotional intelligence. Third, and linked with the second, effective facilitators are extremely good at observation, they choose their words carefully (to ensure precise meaning). The fourth characteristic is associated with the size of the group. In discussions with facilitators about the ‘ideal group size’, invariably the answer is: “between 10 and 12”. last is the ability of the facilitator to move from a ‘parent/child’ to an ‘adult/adult’ relationship.

Ye, R.(2000) identified that the effectiveness of trainers who deliver the resource is known to be significant in the final return on training investment. Despite the critical role of the trainer in the delivery of this expensive resource, the research evidence to sustentative what qualifications and competence an effective trainer should hold is lacking and it is “still difficult to predict” what these qualifications and competences should be.

Gauld, Darryl; Miller. Peter (2004), reported that, 73 percent of trainers with less than two years of experience and 60 percent of trainers with less than five years of experience in training positions thoght that an excellent knoeledge of the
subject was needed, in order for them to be effective at their role. Whereas, 43 percent of trainers with over 15 years of experience and 31 percent of trainers with over ten years of experience in training positions believed that an excellent knowledge of the subject was not needed, in order for them to be effective at their role.

Walter, D. (2002), discussing that, a question also arises for employers. There is an abundance of literature that supports the view that effectiveness as a trainer is contingent upon having trainers who are suitably qualified and experienced for the role. Despite this, employers often prefer workplace trainers who do not have educational qualifications and experience, how can employers be sure that they are receiving the best return on their training dollar and that quality training outcomes are being achieved when it is known that trainers who are not professionally qualified are less effective?

Galbraith (1998) regards questioning as the single most influential teaching competency, because of its potential to impact learning. In contrast other researcher considers listening to be the most important trainer skill, because it allows the trainer to redirect the learner's attention or to deepen their thinking. Whereas, Wlodkowski (1993), considers feedback to be perhaps the most powerful trainer competency. The effectiveness of trainers who deliver the resource is known to be significant in the final return on training investment. Despite the critical role of the trainer in the delivery of this expensive resource, the research evidence to substantiate what qualifications and competencies an effective trainer
should hold is lacking and it is “still difficult to predict” what these qualifications and competencies should be.

**Caudron, Shari (2001),** believes that the trainers should:

- Use collaborative interaction to plan and organise learning experiences;

- Foster a climate for learning in which learners and instructors support each other in the learning process, in and out of formal learning situations;

- Use and encourage a cooperative communication style; and

- Recognize that people’s feelings are critical to fostering relationships in any learning experience. Most significant thing about training is that if trainers have good knowledge, experience, confidence and the ability to motivate trainees then it brings out great result which helps in development of individual as well as the organizational

*(Hashim, J. (2001). Reporting that* the trainer standardizes the Training effectiveness in a positive manner; because s/he is the main contributor towards success of training. S/he also encourages and motivates the trainees towards learning that further enhances the effectiveness of the training program by formulating performance standards for trainees during training. Therefore, the trainer is predicted to have positive influence on reaction and learning of the trainees.

**Phillip Seamen. Anita Eves. (2005)** explain that the Delivery style is a very important part of Training and Development. Employees are very conscious
about the delivery style. If someone is not delivering the training in an impressive style and he is not capturing the attention of the audience it is means he is wasting the time. It is very necessary for a trainer to engage its audience during the training session. Delivery style means so much in the Training and Development.

**Rama, M. Janaki. and Vaishnavi. R. (2012).** found that trainers must have awareness and understanding of individual’s style to achieve desired outcomes of training. The study shows the role of trainer’s awareness in making flourish a training programme. Rama & Vaishnavi (2012) identified that to increase or maximize the effectiveness of training programme, an organization needs to use ongoing assessments to establish learning outcomes and link those outcomes to a performance plan.

**BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS:**

The Big Five are, collectively, a taxonomy of personality trait: a coordinate system that maps which traits go together in people's descriptions or ratings of one another. The Big Five are an empirically based phenomenon, not a theory of personality. The Big Five factors were discovered through a statistical procedure called factor analysis, which was used to analyze how ratings of various personality traits are correlated in humans.

One starting place for a shared taxonomy is the natural language of personality description. Beginning with Klages (1926), Baumgarten (1933), and Allport and Odbert (1936), various psychologists have turned to the natural language as a source of attributes for a scientific taxonomy. This work, beginning
with the extraction of all personality-relevant terms from the dictionary, has generally been guided by the lexical approach (see John et al., 1988; Saucier & Goldberg, 1996a). After decades of research, the field is approaching consensus on a general taxonomy of personality traits, the “Big Five” personality dimensions. These dimensions do not represent a particular theoretical perspective but were derived from analyses of the natural-language terms people use to describe themselves and others. Rather than replacing all previous systems, the Big Five taxonomy serves an integrative function because it can represent the various and diverse systems of personality description in a common framework.

The purpose of the Big Five is to reliably categories’, into one of five dimensions, most if not all of the traits can be used to describe anyone else. The Big five model has universal applications across cultures. The Big-Five trait Indicator (BFI) John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999), has broad five domains and 30 facets. Successful leaders have a range of stronger and weaker dimensions of Big Five.

Hardani Widhiastuti (2013) reveal that there was a positive influence among Extraversion, Agreeableness, work value, and compensation satisfaction toward job performance of behavior. Conscientiousness seems to be the personality trait with the most positive influence on work outcomes. Neuroticism negatively influences on the work outcomes, and openness to experience influences positively on the behavior performance.

Oliver P. John and Sanjay Srivastava (1999) There are five replicable, broad dimensions of personality, and they can be summarized by the broad
concepts of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to experience. In our view, the Big Five structure is a major step ahead, a long-due extension and improvement over earlier factor systems that tended to compete with each other, rather than establish commonalities and convergences. The Big Five structure captures, at a broad level of abstraction, the commonalities among most of the existing systems of personality description, and provides an integrative descriptive model for personality research.

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). In the meta-analysis of personality and leadership provided both a qualitative and a quantitative review of the trait approach to leadership. This study meta-analyzed 73 empirical articles that used a five-factor model (FFM) of personality. Overall, personality had a multiple correlation of .48 with leadership. Extraversion (r = .31) had the strongest correlation with leadership emergence and effectiveness. This review also concluded that there was strong support for both the trait perspective and the use of the FFM in the study of leadership effectiveness. Overall, the findings suggest that personality traits are important in the differences in personality are evident when measured using a five-factor model of agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness. Across three different leader effectiveness trajectories, personality was significantly associated with leadership effectiveness.

McCauley & E. Van Velsor (2010). Personality has been linked to leadership, leadership style, work behaviour, global leadership skills, and performance across many levels, and achievement. Hogan and Kaiser (2005) found
that personality predicts leadership style. Judge et al. (2002) found significant correlations between the Big Five and leadership. Judge and Bono (2000) and Bono and Judge (2004) found that some of the Big Five were specifically related to transformational leadership. Four of the Big Five were found to be related to charismatic and transactional leadership (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005). Dalton and Ernst (2004) also found that all five factors are related to different aspects of global leadership. Personality was also linked to leadership effectiveness and performance (Atwater, Dionne, Avolio, Camobreco, & Lau, 1999). Hypothesis 6 posited a direct relationship between personality and competencies. All personality dispositions were significantly related to competencies, except for Neuroticism. Personality has been linked to leadership (c.f. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Judge et al., 2002) as well as to skill acquisition (Hough & Oswald, 2008), so this is consistent with theoretical and empirical findings in the literature.

Raelin JA (2004) stating that the big five model has universal application across cultures studies have shown that people from Asian, western European, Middle Eastern, Eastern European and north and south American cultures seen to use the same five personality dimensions. It is the best predictors of job performance and success. Successful leaders have a range of stronger and weaker dimensions in the Big Five. However, as our definitions of leadership indicators, they are relatively strong on all five dimensions and avoid derailment.

Donna Ladkin (2005) find that Psychometric instruments can be a useful element of leader development in a number of ways. Firstly, they can provide a quick way of ascertaining information about people which would be difficult to
deduce merely through observation. In particular, they can point to the factors underlying certain behaviours, thereby providing additional insight into how behaviours might be effectively altered or developed. Secondly, psychometrics can provide a ‘neutral’ language for discussing aspects of individual personality and behaviour.

Hogan and Shelton (2006) pointed out that the personality theories examine the variances and similarities in a person. The similarities can be used to predict one’s performance and behaviour, as they provide the collective attributes of human nature. Whereas, the variances provide the measures of individual’s performance and are used to describe human performances and behaviours. Experts in the field of personality are of the view that personality predicts their job performance.

Rohan Chopra study (2015) says that psychometric instruments are significant in playing a pivotal role to measure the behavior and attitude of the individuals to transit from one passage to another. Organizations now recognize these needs to address these behaviors and traits to assess and make leaders in the organization. This will help them hire the best and the most competent pool of workers while hiring, developing, promoting and succession in the planning stage. Psychometric instruments have gained importance from the perspective of moving away from judgments and subjectivity towards an objective-driven approach to make people related decisions, Using the psychometric instruments will help them evaluate the talent management strategy which will align to these goals and integrate the framework of competency and the psychometric instruments will help them tie back in line with these efforts. It states, "There are a large number of
organizations that have not yet been exposed to the importance and benefits of measuring behavior. While these organizations recognize the need to create leaders in organizations, the need to support the behavioral transition is limited.

Table 2.2: Prototypical characteristics and adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl no</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Prototypical Characteristics</th>
<th>Illustrative Adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Responsible, dependable, able to plan, organized, persistent, need for achievement, persistence, scrupulousness</td>
<td>Organized, systematic, thorough, hardworking, planful, neat, dependable, (careless), (inefficient), (sloppy), (impulsive), (irresponsible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Extraversion, Surgency, Sociability</td>
<td>Sociable, talkative, assertive, ambitious, active, dominance, tendency to experience positive emotions</td>
<td>Extroverted, talkative, assertive, gregarious, energetic, self-dramatizing, (reserved), (introverted), (quiet), (shy), (unassertive), (withdrawn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>Good-natured, cooperative, trusting, sympathy, altruism, (hostility), (unsociability)</td>
<td>Sympathetic, cooperative, warm, tactful, considerate, trustful, (cold), (rude), (unkind), (independent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Emotional Stability, Adjustment, (Neuroticism)</td>
<td>Calm, secure, not nervous; (predisposition to experience anxiety, anger, depression, emotional instability)</td>
<td>Unenvious, relaxed, calm, stable, confident, effective, (moody), (touchy), (nervous), (moody), (self doubting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Openness to Experience, Intellectance, Culture</td>
<td>Imaginative, artistically sensitive, aesthetically sensitive, intellectual, depth of feeling, curiosity, need for variety</td>
<td>Intellectual, creative, artistic, imaginative, curious, original, (unimaginative), (conventional), (simple), (dull), (literal-minded)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

McCrae and Costa (1989), Mount et al. (1994), and Hogan (1991); describe the Prototypical characteristics and adjectives as follows
Personality Trait Change:

Personality traits are defined as the relatively enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that distinguish individuals from one another. Researchers often fail to clarify what they mean when they describe personality as consistent or changeable. Personality traits are developmental constructs, even in adulthood. That personality traits change in adulthood and do so in a positive direction should not be taken as the final statement on personality development in adulthood. Personality traits are indisputably consistent across time and age, it is common to believe that if a construct demonstrates temporal consistency, it does not change. Unfortunately, this conclusion is often premature and sometimes simply incorrect. The results from our meta-analysis demonstrate that the patterns of personality trait change are intrinsically positive. People tend to become more socially dominant, conscientious, and emotionally stable through midlife. Moreover, the period of young adulthood rather than adolescence is the primary period of mean-level personality trait development.

A study examined personality trait changes in a sample of 910 German high school students during their transition from school to adult life. Despite the short observation period of three semiannual measurements, growth curve analyses revealed significant mean-level changes in personality traits. These changes occurred primarily in a positive direction, were strongest for the trait of conscientiousness, and most pronounced in those students who were directly confronted with this transitional experience.
Whether the personality is plastic or elastic?. May the behaviour competency can be nurtured or nature is a difficult question. Is it trainable and create change in behaviour through learning and development Intervention. Many studies are advocating the concept of personality can be changed based on need and situation.

Thornton, G. and Rupp, D. (2006) research is based on the assumption that generic competencies – i.e. competencies useful for different positions in different organizations – can be found our second assumption is that there exist competencies that are based on personal traits. Such competencies are ‘stable’ in the sense that they have taken a long time to develop in adult individuals and will likely take a long time to change. They may have two important advantages for the identification of potential successful leaders. Firstly, generic competencies could be used to select leaders for different positions in different organizations and also for leading different teams. Secondly, it can be expected that ‘stable competencies’ have higher predictive validity than competencies which can be quickly changed. Thus, we decided to examine whether generic and stable competencies are associated with leader effectiveness.

Costa P.T.,Jr & McCrae. R.R (1992) emphasis that personality theory has been applied to study individual success across a variety of organisational settings, and is also suggested to explain the influence of these personality dimensions in predicting training transfer in cross-cultural settings. According to this perspective, personality characteristics are dispositional traits that predispose individuals to behave in certain ways given a goal or the specific context of a
situation. Situations with unclear social norms, or “weak” situations, allow for personality tendencies to manifest as expectations are unclear and consequently, behaviours tend to be determined by individual predispositions. Personality has been shown to have a direct influence on workplace behaviours, as behavior is a function of a person’s personality and the situation.

Bandura (1977) discuss that learning is affected by both observation and experience, in that people must first notice under behavior. Remember the modeled behavior, practice performing the behaviour, and then get positive feedback, in order to continue using and therefore fully learning a new skill. In the 3C training context, developing 3C therefore depends on the attention of the trainee of the new competence, the ability to remember the competence, the opportunity to practice 3C, and positive feedback the environment after using what was learned. The more similar the trained modeled behavior is to what has been experienced in the past, the easier the new behavior will be to reproduce in a foreign contest, as the process of observing and practicing the KSAOs has already taken place in the training setting, making the application of the competency the only step that needs to take place. Pervious foreign experience in the past would therefore help an individual more readily apply training concepts for this reason.

(Bandura, A (1977). Social learning theory. New York General Learning Press. Brent W. Roberts1 and Daniel Mroczek2 (2008) inform that recent longitudinal and cross-sectional aging research has shown that personality traits continue to change in adulthood. In this article, we review the evidence for mean-level change in personality traits, as well as for individual differences in
change across the life span. In terms of mean-level change, people show increased self confidence, warmth, self-control, and emotional stability with age. These changes predominate in young adulthood (age 20–40). Moreover, mean level change in personality traits occurs in middle and old age, showing that personality traits can change at any age. In terms of individual differences in personality change, people demonstrate unique patterns of development at all stages of the life course, and these patterns appear to be the result of specific life experiences that pertain to a person’s stage of life.

Srivastava, S., John, O. P., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2003). States that a more differentiated perspective has emerged recently from both cross-sectional studies and two new narrative overviews of the evidence for personality trait change in adulthood. First, Mc-Crae et al. (1999) reported cross-sectional mean-level differences across the Big Five in five different cultures. In contrast to earlier reports, McCrae et al. reported mean-level differences between individuals over the age of 30 and younger people in several cultures for neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Specifically, older individuals scored higher on agreeableness and conscientiousness and lower on extraversion, neuroticism, and openness. Change is complex and ongoing, owing to the many factors that can affect personality traits. Big Five personality measure on the Internet. Conscientiousness and Agreeableness increased throughout early and middle adulthood at varying rates; Neuroticism declined among women but did not change among men. The variety in patterns of change suggests that the Big Five traits are complex phenomena subject to a variety of developmental influences.
Barrick and Mount (2006) investigated the relation of the Big Five personality dimensions (Extraversion, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience) to three job performance criteria (job proficiency, training proficiency and personnel data) for five occupational groups (professionals, police, managers, sales and skilled/semi-skilled). Results indicated that one dimension of personality, Conscientiousness, showed consistent relations with all job performance criteria for all occupational groups. For the remaining personality dimensions, the estimated true score correlations varied by occupational group and criterion type. Extraversion was a valid predictor for two occupations involving social interaction, managers and sales (across criterion types). Also, both Openness to Experience and Extraversion were valid predictors of the training proficiency criterion (across occupations). Other personality dimensions were also found to be valid predictors for some occupations and some criterion types, but the magnitude of the estimated true score correlations was small ($\rho < .10$). The findings have numerous implications for research and practice in personnel psychology, especially in the subfields of personnel selection, training and development, and performance appraisal.

Singh (2009) examined the impact of personality traits on leadership effectiveness. The study was conducted on 140 IT professionals working in firms located in northern India. The findings revealed that openness to experience emerged as best predictor of leadership effectiveness followed by conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness. Overall, the findings suggest that personality traits are significant predictors of leadership effectiveness.
Rodutti and Swierczek (2002) identify the key relationships of organizational effectiveness and leadership in southeast Asia. Managers from 1,065 multinational companies based in Thailand and representing 31 different nationalities participated in this study. International leader characteristics and organizational culture are found to determine an appropriate multicultural management style. Executive motivation is strongly influenced by this multicultural management style. Different dimensions of organizational effectiveness, including return on assets, most admired, job satisfaction and personal satisfaction are related to specific aspects of leader characteristics, organizational culture and multicultural management style.

Hogan and Benson (2009) examined the effect of personality and leadership to global organizational effectiveness and on their basis formed four principal assertions likewise (1) leadership is a function of personality, (2) leadership is a determinant of organizational effectiveness, (3) principles of leadership are formal and (4) using the leadership value chain, one can trace the links from personality to leadership to organizational effectiveness.

Roberts, Robins, Caspi, and Trzesniewski (2003) reviewed a more comprehensive list of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies than previously captured in narrative reviews. According to their interpretation of the data, there is evidence for increases in social dominance and decreases in social vitality, as Helson and Kwan (2000) proposed. They also argued that measures of agreeableness and conscientiousness increase across the life course from age 18 to over age 60 and that neuroticism tends to decrease with age, possibly reaching a
plateau in old age. Finally, they found a complex pattern of change for measures of openness, with some evidence for increases in early young adulthood and contradictory evidence for later portions of the life course.

**Openness to experience Vs Trainability:**

The domain trait openness to experience of Big five have the facts of Ideas (curious), Fantasy (imaginative), Aesthetics (artistic), Actions (wide interests), Feelings (excitable), Values (Unconventional). This personality dimension includes traits related to being willing to change and try new things. Change and trying new things is directly related to learning and experiencing. Openness is the degree to which a person is curious, original, intellectual, creative, and open to new ideas. People high in openness seem to thrive in situations that require being flexible and learning new things. The person having high level in openness to experience may have the quality of trainability or learnability.

Dean, M. A., Conte, J. M., & Blankenhorn, T. R. (2006). Reported that the Conscientiousness, openness to experience, and extraversion were linked to training performance and openness to experience and extraversion were linked to training proficiency and performance. Openness to experience explores the new learning and experimentation.

Fischer & Ronald (2011) stated that open-mindedness is also a significant moderator of training effectiveness. It has been found that training become more successful if the participant’s and trainer work with open-mindedness. Open-minded is the behavior of open to experience in Big five traits.
Herold, D.M. Davis, W & Fedor D.B (2002) informing that indeed, researchers have found significant relationships between the personality dimensions of openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity in training settings. Study examined the influence of openness to experience on training transfer reported that openness to experience allows trainees to better capitalize on earlier learning successes and to acquire necessary skills faster. This suggests intellectual curiosity enables trainees to explore flexibility accept and adopt new skills, although more research on this was requested.

Gully SM, Payne SC, Kiechel Koles KL, Whiteman JA (2002) found that openness to experience moderated the error training in several important training outcomes. Individual high in openness to experience more curies, imaginative and brad minded they also more interested in engage new approach of learning which may explain why openness to experience have a positive impact on training proficiency. Also found that openness to experience is positively related to the trainees self efficacy, knowledge and performance and positive outcome of openness to experience and training is strong when training encouraged errors. When error disappears it is discouraged. The fact that, the error training is encourages exploration. The trainee more in openness is likely to be engage in exploratory behaviors.

Murray R. Barrick, Michael K. Mount (2006) reported that both Openness to Experience and Extraversion were valid predictors of the training proficiency criterion (across occupations). Other personality dimensions were also found to be valid predictors for some occupations and some criterion types, but the
magnitude of the estimated true score correlations was small ($\rho < .10$). Overall, the results illustrate the benefits of using the 5-factor model of personality to accumulate and communicate empirical findings. The findings have numerous implications for research and practice in PERSONNEL PSYCHOLOGY, especially in the subfields of personnel selection, training and development, and performance appraisal.

**Milan Pagon; Emanuel Banutai; Uroš Bizjak (2011)** examined the effects of on-the-job management training on the incumbent public administration managers' multicultural skills as a function of the managers' openness to experience. Two hundred eighty four public administration managers from the European Commission and 26 member states participated in the study. The results indicate that on-the-job training (including the initial training, informal training, mentoring, coaching, and the availability of resources) improve the incumbent managers' multicultural skills, but only when the managers are moderate or high in openness to experience. The multicultural skills of the managers who are high in openness to experience benefit from on-the-job training the most, followed by the skills of the managers who are moderate in openness to experience. When the managers are low in openness to experience, the increased amounts of on-the-job training actually decrease their level of multicultural skills.

**Farsides, T., & Woodfield, R. (2003)** discussing the findings that Openness has been connected to creativity in the workplace. 1. There may be an unknown connection between creativity and job performance. 2. For instance, the creative individual may unintentionally improve productivity through unique and
innovative methods. Openness to experience has also been positively related to successful training activities. The open individual’s optimistic attitude toward and enjoyment of learning may positively impact the outcome of the training.

3. Academic Findings Openness has been shown to have a positive correlation with standardized measures of knowledge and achievement. and is modestly correlated with cognitive ability. Of the Big Five, it has the highest correlations with the SAT® verbal score (although, interestingly, not with math scores).

4. Openness has been positively associated with final grades, even when controlling for intelligence. Openness also may facilitate the use of efficient learning strategies which, in turn, affects academic success.

**Roberts, Brent W.; Walton, Kate E.; Viechtbauer, Wolfgang (2006)** informing that our current understanding and assessment of life experiences and key developmental environments is impoverished, relying too heavily on simple demographic variables. The field of personality development desperately needs a greater understanding of the developmental experiences that are consequential for personality traits across the life course. Finally, these findings open the door for research identifying the causal mechanisms responsible for why personality-trait change occurs. Life experiences, genes, and other constructs such as cognitive ability and life goals may all be important mechanisms.

**Ravenna Helson, Constance Jones, Virginia S. Y. Kwan (2002).** Normative personality change over 40 years was shown in 2 longitudinal cohorts with hierarchical linear modeling of California Psychological Inventory data obtained at multiple times between ages 21–75. Although themes of change and
the paucity of differences attributable to gender and cohort largely supported findings of multiethnic cross-sectional samples, the authors also found much quadratic change and much individual variability. The form of quadratic change supported predictions about the influence of period of life and social climate as factors in change over the adult years: Scores on Dominance and Independence peaked in the middle age of both cohorts, and scores on Responsibility were lowest during peak years of the culture of individualism. The idea that personality change is most pronounced before age 30 and then reaches a plateau received no support. Whether and how personality is related to age over the adult years has been a controversial topic over the last 2 decades. Diverse views have been asserted and defended empirically. Researchers stated that personality is primarily influenced by current context and constructed personal narrative. In the midst of this diversity, an important development is a convergence of findings in several recent personality inventory studies using cross-sectional multinational samples.