TRAINING FOR TRANSFORMATION

BY

ELROY EUGENE SMITH

Submitted to the Faculty of Management
in accordance with the requirements of the degree

PHILOSOPHIAE DOCTOR COMMERCII

in the Department of Business Management
at Vista University

Promotor: Professor F.W. Struwig

Joint Promotor: Mr D.J.L. Venter

January 1999

0371606 7

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The list of names of various people to whom I am indebted for having contributed to the preparation and completion of this study is very long. I am not able to mention everyone, but I am grateful. I would, however, like to express my appreciation for guidance and assistance to the following people and organisations in particular:

* Professor F.W. Struwig for her guidance and advice in completion of the study. Her expertise and dedication to student development was an inspiration throughout the study.

* Professor A.P. du Plessis for his assistance, especially with regard to the planning of the empirical research and questionnaire construction.

* Doctor D. Venter for his assistance and guidance with regard to the statistical analysis of the data.

* The financial assistance of the Centre for Science Development (Human Sciences Research Council) towards this research project is hereby acknowledge. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and not necessarily to be attributed to the Centre for Science Development.

* Vista University for financial assistance and the opportunity for taking study leave.

* The South African Board for Personnel Practices for providing a data base for the empirical survey.

* Library personnel at Vista University, Port Elizabeth and the University of Port Elizabeth for their assistance in the finding relevant secondary sources.

* Carrol York for language editing of the thesis.

* The respondents of the survey for the completion of the questionnaire.

* My wife, family and friends for their understanding and support throughout the study.

* My colleagues at Vista University for their encouragement and assistance.

* To God who gave me the strength, health and ability to complete this study.

PORT ELIZABETH

January 1999

DECLARATION

I declare that TRAINING FOR TRANSFORMATION is my own work, that all the sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this thesis was not previously submitted by me for a degree at another university.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

TRAINING FOR TRANSFORMATION

BY

ELROY EUGENE SMITH

Philosophiae Doctor Commercii

Department of Business Management

Vista University

Promotor: Professor F.W. Struwig

Joint Promotor: Mr D.J.L. Venter

ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to investigate the interactive role between training and organisational change. Organisations are faced with changes in the environment which could have major implications for the organisation's survival and growth in a competitive situation. Transformation of the organisation is high on the agenda of most organisations. The question arises, however, whether South African managers are able to face and cope with fundamental organisational change.

Various plans and strategies are devised to deal with these changes in the organisation - quite often without success. This study focuses on an important tool or mechanism which could facilitate organisational change, namely training. It is proposed that training in the organisation

could be used to initiate and facilitate the transformation of the organisation. The traditional role of training is viewed by many organisations as improving knowledge, skills and attitudes of employees. In order for training to facilitate change, a shift in emphasis is required. Training should be placed at the centre of human resources planning programmes and strategic plans of the organisation. The study is intended to provide management with a model and some guidelines on how to deal with transformation and the facilitating role of training.

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a literature study and empirical research was conducted. During the empirical survey, a self-administered questionnaire was sent to 365 training specialists registered with the South African Board for Personnel Practices. Organisational change made, manifest through organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership, was analysed. The role of training in managing organisational change and the application of a model of training for transformation were investigated as well. Descriptive statistics and advanced statistical methods were used to analyse the data and to test the stated hypotheses. The relationship between training and organisational change was empirically assessed. The results showed highly significant relationships between training and organisational change.

Based on a training model and a change model, developed during the literature study, a training for transformation model was developed. It is concluded that organisations should implement the model of training for transformation to ensure that training is used to facilitate organisational change. Organisations need to develop training programmes which are conducive to the implementation of change strategies in the organisation. The traditional role of training needs to be expanded to make provision for inclusion in the implementation of the strategic plans of the organisation. Delivering training which is focused on and linked to the change strategies of the organisation provides a basis for dealing with uncertainty and change in the environment.

"No business can survive if its managers try merely to reform it; they must aim at nothing less than total transformation."

Manning (1988:1)

"If we know the laws of change, we can precalculate in regard to them, and freedom of action thereupon becomes possible."

(Mahoney, 1991:3)

"Many attempts ... have failed, because intentions to change are organised around a theory or idea ... a fundamental change in the role of training involves a shift in attitudes from a traditional view of training towards the more radical view of enabling learning ... this shift involves truly recognising the implications of a transformation ...

(Harri-Augstein & Webb, 1995:146)

TABLE OF CONTENTS PAGE

TABLE OF CONTENTS i

LIST OF TABLES ix

LIST OF FIGURES xvi

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION 1

1.2 PROBLEM OF THE STUDY 2

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY 4

1.3.1 Secondary Goals 4

1.4 HYPOTHESES 4

1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY 8

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 8

1.6.1 Data Collection 8
1.6.2 Research Design 9

1.7 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS 10

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS 11

1.8.1 Training 11
1.8.2 Transformation 13
1.8.3 Change 13
1.8.4 Human Resources Management 14

1.9 CONCLUSION 15

CHAPTER 2

A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF TRAINING

2.1	INTRODUCTION	16
2.2	TRAINING IN HISTORICAL CONTEXT	17
2.3	TRAINING TRENDS AND ISSUES	20
2.4	TRAINING: STATUTORY INSTITUTIONS AND LEGISLATION	25
2.4.1	International Labour Organisation Conventions	25
2.4.2	The Department of Labour	26
2.4.3	The National Training Board	26
2.4.4	National Economic Development and Labour Council	27
2.4.5	The Manpower Training Act	27
2.4.6	An Integrated National Training Strategy	28
2.5	REASONS FOR AND BENEFITS OF TRAINING	29
2.6	TRAINING'S RELATIONSHIP WITH LEARNING	32
2.6.1	Learning Theories	32
2.6.2	Learning Principles	38
2.6.3	Key Features of a Learning Culture	42
2.6.4	Learning and Training: Managerial Implications	43
2.7	STRATEGIC TRAINING MANAGEMENT IN AN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT	45
2.8	CONCLUSION	49

CHAPTER 3

THE TRAINING PROCESS

3.1	INTRODUCTION	51
3.2	A SYSTEMS MODEL OF THE TRAINING PROCESS	52
3.3	ANALYSING THE TRAINING ENVIRONMENT	54
3.3.1	Attitudes and Behaviour of Top Management	56
3.3.2	Attitudes and Behaviour of Line Managers	56

3.3.3	Compensation Structure	56
3.3.4	Organisational Culture	57
3.3.5	Profitability of the Organisation	57
3.3.6	Objectives and Goals of the Organisation	57
3.3.7	Economy	58
3.3.8	Government Action	58
3.3.9	Training Activities of Other Organisations	58
3.3.10	Social/Cultural Factors	59
3.3.11	Technology	59
3.4	ESTABLISHING TRAINING PREMISES	59
3.4.1	Developing a Training Philosophy	60
3.4.2	Setting a Training Policy	61
3.5	DATA GATHERING AND DIAGNOSIS	64
3.5.1	Identify Organisational Training Needs	64
3.5.2	Performance of a Task Analysis	65
3.5.3	Execute a Knowledge, Skills and Attitude Analysis	66
3.6	IDENTIFY TRAINING NEEDS	68
3.6.1	Appoint a Responsible Person	71
3.6.2	Plan the Assessment of Training Needs	71
3.6.3	Collect and Analyse Information to Determine Performance Problems	71
3.6.4	Generate and Evaluate Solutions	72
3.6.5	Identify and Prioritise Training Needs	72
3.6.6	Report the Results	73
3.7	SET TRAINING OBJECTIVES	77
3.8	ATTEND TO PRE-TRAINING PROGRAMME DESIGN ASPECTS	84
3.8.1	Formulate a Training Budget	84
3.8.2	Obtain Instructional Resources	85
3.8.3	Select Trainees	86
3.8.4	Determine the Role of Trainers	90
3.8.5	Consider Learning Principles	93
3.9	DESIGN THE TRAINING PROGRAMME	94
3.9.1	Analysis of Constraints	94
3.9.2	Identify Learning Content and Sequence	95
3.9.3	Facilitate the Learning Process	97
3.9.4	Account for Determinants of Learning	100

3.9.5 Selection of Training Methods 101
3.9.6 The Development of a Lesson Plan 104

3.10 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TRAINING 106

3.11 THE MAINTENANCE OF TRAINING 107

3.12 DATA GATHERING AND EVALUATION 108

3.12.1 Reasons and Benefits of Training Evaluation 109
3.12.2 Evaluation Topics 110
3.12.3 Evaluation Levels 112
3.12.4 Types of Evaluation 116
3.12.5 Methods of Evaluation 118
3.12.6 Cost-benefit Analysis of Training 119

3.13 CONCLUSION 120

CHAPTER 4

MANAGING CHANGE: AN ORGANISATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

4.1 INTRODUCTION 123

4.2 THE NATURE OF CHANGE 124

4.3 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CHANGE 127

4.3.1 The Individual Perspective School 127
4.3.2 The Group Dynamics School 128
4.3.3 The Open Systems School 128

4.4 REASONS FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE 130

4.4.1 Internal Factors 131
4.4.2 External Factors 132

4.5 PREPARING FOR CHANGE 135

4.6 AREAS OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE 142

4.6.1 Changing Strategy 143
4.6.2 Changing Structure and Design 143
4.6.3 Changing Technology 143
4.6.4 Changing People 144

4.7	CHANGE STRATEGIES	145
4.7.1	Change Strategies Proposed by Dunphy and Stace	146
4.7.2	Change Strategies Proposed by Gould	148
4.7.3	Change Strategies Proposed by Calori and Atamer	153
4.8	RESISTANCE TO CHANGE	157
4.9	COPING WITH CHANGE	159
4.9.1	Model Proposed by Carnall	162
4.9.2	Model Proposed by Lovell	164
4.9.3	Model Proposed by Human and Horwitz	165
4.10	DANGERS AND PITFALLS IN ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE	168
4.11	THE CHANGE AGENT	171
4.12	A MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE	174
4.13	CONCLUSION	179

CHAPTER 5

TRAINING AND TRANSFORMATION: AN INTERACTION ANALYSIS

5.1	INTRODUCTION	181
5.2	THE COMPOSITION OF TRAINING AND TRANSFORMATION INTERACTION	182
5.2.1	Organisational Development	183
5.2.2	The Learning Organisation	190
5.2.3	Transformational Leadership	200
5.3	THE ROLE OF TRAINING IN MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE	209
5.4	THE INTERACTION OF TRAINING AND TRANSFORMATION IN PRACTICE: A CASE STUDY APPROACH	220
5.4.1	Training and Change at Motorola	220
5.4.2	Learning to Achieve Transformation in the National Health Service	224
5.4.3	Continuous Change and Improvement at Avis Europe Car Rental	229

5.5 A MODEL OF TRAINING FOR TRANSFORMATION 234

5.6 CONCLUSION 238

CHAPTER 6

THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: SCOPE AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION 241

6.2 THE RESEARCH APPROACH 241

6.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN 243

6.3.1 The Design of the Sample 244
6.3.2 Survey Design 248

6.4 CONCLUSION 255

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

7.1 INTRODUCTION 257

7.2 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS 258

7.2.1 Section A: Organisational Transformation 259
7.2.2 Section B: Training in the Organisation 274
7.2.3 Section C: Classification Data 288

7.3 FACTOR ANALYSIS 301

7.4 THE SEARCH FOR RELATIONSHIPS 306

7.4.1 Analysis of Variance for Organisational Development and the Independent Variables (Section C) 311
7.4.2 Analysis of Variance for the Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables (Section C) 314
7.4.3 Analysis of Variance for Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables (Section C) 316

7.4.4	Analysis of Variance for the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change and the Independent Variables (Section C)	319
7.4.5	Analysis of Variance for the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change and the Independent Variables (Section C)	322
7.4.6	Analysis of Variance for the Application of a Training for Transformation Model and the Independent Variables (Section C)	324
7.4.7	Tests to Investigate the Relationship Between Organisational Change (Section A) and Training in the Organisation (Section B)	328
7.4.8	Analysis of Variance for Organisational Development and the Independent Variables (Section B)	335
7.4.9	Analysis of Variance for the Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables (Section B)	338
7.4.10	Analysis of Variance for Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables (Section B)	341
7.5	CONCLUSION	345

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1	SUMMARY	347
8.2	FINAL CONCLUSIONS	349
8.2.1	Conclusions Drawn From the Literature Study: Training	349
8.2.2	Conclusions Drawn From the Literature Study: Organisational Change	352
8.2.3	Conclusions Drawn From the Literature Study: Interaction Between Training and Organisational Change	355
8.2.4	Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Organisational Change	359
8.2.5	Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Training	360
8.2.6	Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Classification Data	361
8.2.7	Conclusions Drawn From Factor Analysis	364
8.2.8	Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: RelationshipBetween Organisational Change and the Independent Variables (Classification Data)	365
8.2.9	Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Relationship Between Training and the Independent Variables (Classification Data)	367
8.2.10	Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Relationship Between Training and Organisational Change	369

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS 371

8.3.1 Training in the Organisation 371
8.3.2 Organisational Transformation 376
8.3.3 The Interaction Between Training and Organisational Change 380

8.4 SHORTCOMINGS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY 390

8.5 FURTHER RESEARCH PROPOSALS 390

BIBLIOGRAPHY 392

APPENDIXES

A A COPY OF THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE 424
B A COPY OF THE COVERING LETTER 431
C A COPY OF THE REMINDER POSTCARD 433

LIST OF TABLES

		PAGE
Table 1.1:	Components of Training	12
Table 2.1:	International Developments in Training	18
Table 2.2:	Historical Evolution of Training Legislation in South Africa	19
Table 2.3:	Reasons for Increased Training Expenditure	22
Table 2.4:	Modern Approaches to Training	24
Table 2.5:	Aspects Covered by the Manpower Training Act	28
Table 2.6:	A Checklist of Reasons for Training	30
Table 2.7:	Key Features of a Learning Culture	42
Table 2.8:	Management Actions to Support Transfer of Learning and Training	44
Table 3.1:	Possible Training Policy Options for South Africa	63
Table 3.2:	Areas of a Person Analysis	67
Table 3.3:	Example of the Layout of a Training Objective	81
Table 3.4:	Elements of a Training Budget	85
Table 3.5:	Training Resources	86
Table 3.6:	The Role of the Trainer	90
Table 3.7:	Training Methods	102
Table 3.8:	Conducting a Summative Evaluation	118
Table 3.9:	Training Evaluation Methods	119
Table 4.1:	Theories of Change	129
Table 4.2:	IBM: Rapid and Radical Change in the Business Environment	134
Table 4.3:	Organisational Philosophy Principles	136
Table 4.4:	Creating a Positive Need for Change	138
Table 4.5:	Processes for Change	152

Table 4.6:	Transformation Stages	156
Table 4.7:	Guidelines to Reduce Resistance to Change	159
Table 4.8:	Approaches for Reducing Resistance to Change	161
Table 4.9:	Coping Strategies	162
Table 4.10:	Errors in Change Programmes	168
Table 4.11:	Reasons for Failure of Transformation Efforts	170
Table 5.1:	Characteristics of Organisational Development	185
Table 5.2:	Traditional versus Learning Organisations	195
Table 5.3:	Characteristics of Transformational Leadership	202
Table 5.4:	Critical Skills and Management Development Challenges Facing Transformational Leaders	203
Table 5.5:	Rank Order of Human Resources Activities in Terms of Importance	218
Table 6.1:	Research Design Perspectives of this Study	244
Table 6.2:	Survey Design	249
Table 6.3:	Questionnaire Content	250
Table 6.4:	Return of Questionnaires	254
Table 7.1:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section A of the Questionnaire: Organisational Development	260
Table 7.2:	Frequency Distribution Results for Section A of the Questionnaire: Organisational Development	261
Table 7.3:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section A of the Questionnaire: The Learning Organisation	266
Table 7.4:	Frequency Distribution Results for Section A of the Questionnaire: The Learning Organisation	267
Table 7.5:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section A of the Questionnaire: Transformational Leadership	270

Table 7.6:	Frequency Distribution Results for Section A of the Questionnaire: Transformational Leadership	272
Table 7.7:	A Summary of the Ranking Order of Mean Values of Variables in Section A of the Questionnaire	274
Table 7.8:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership	275
Table 7.9:	Frequency Distribution Results for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership	277
Table 7.10:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation	279
Table 7.11:	Frequency Distribution Results for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation	281
Table 7.12:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model	283
Table 7.13:	Frequency Distribution Results for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model	284
Table 7.14:	A Summary of the Ranking Order of Mean Values of Variables in Section B of the Questionnaire	287
Table 7.15:	Cronbach's Alpha for Section A and B of the Questionnaire	301
Table 7.16:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics of the Factor Analysis	302
Table 7.17:	Frequency Distribution Results of the Factor Analysis	303
Table 7.18:	A Summary of the Variables Contained in the Various Sections of the Questionnaire	307

Table 7.19:	Frequency Distribution Results of the Group Structure Indicating the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Section C)	309
Table 7.20:	A Summary of Analysis of Variance Tests Conducted: Section A and B (Dependent Variables) and Section C (Independent Variables)	310
Table 7.21:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Organisational Development	311
Table 7.22:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Organisational Development and the Independent Variables	313
Table 7.23:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Learning Organisation	314
Table 7.24:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables	315
Table 7.25:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Transformational Leadership	316
Table 7.26:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables	317
Table 7.27:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change	320
Table 7.28:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change and the Independent Variables	321
Table 7.29:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change	322

Table 7.30:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change and the Independent Variables	323
Table 7.31:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Application of a Training for Transformation Model	324
Table 7.32:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model and the Independent Variables	325
Table 7.33:	A Summary of the Non-rejection and Rejection of the Null Hypotheses: Section A and B (Dependent Variables) and Section C (Independent Variables)	327
Table 7.34:	Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients: Section A and B of the Questionnaire	329
Table 7.35:	Chi-Square Frequency Distribution Results and Test Statistics: The Relationship Between the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change and the Independent Variables	331
Table 7.36:	Chi-Square Frequency Distribution Results and Test Statistics: The Relationship Between the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change and the Independent Variables	332
Table 7.37:	Chi-Square Frequency Distribution Results and Test Statistics: The Relationship Between the Application of a Training for Transformation Model and the Independent Variables	333
Table 7.38:	A Summary of the Correlation and Chi-Square Results: Relationships Between Training (Independent Variables) and Organisational Change (Dependent Variables)	334
Table 7.39:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Organisational Development	335

Table 7.40:	Results of Scheffé's Test: Individual Group Differences Between the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change (B1) and the Dependent Variables	336
Table 7.41:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Organisational Development and the Independent Variables	337
Table 7.42:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Learning Organisation	338
Table 7.43:	Results of Scheffé's Test: Individual Group Differences Between the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change (B2) and the Dependent Variables	339
Table 7.44:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables	340
Table 7.45:	Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Transformational Leadership	341
Table 7.46:	Results of Scheffé's Test: Individual Group Differences Between the Application of a Training for Transformation Model (B3) and the Dependent Variables	342
Table 7.47:	A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables	343
Table 7.48:	A Summary of the Rejection of the Null Hypotheses: Training (Independent Variables) and Organisational Change (Dependent Variables)	345
Table 8.1:	Guidelines and Recommendations for the Implementation of Organisational Development	381
Table 8.2:	Guidelines and Recommendations for Building the Learning Organisation	383
Table 8.3:	Guidelines and Recommendations for Promoting Transformational Leadership	385

Table 8.4: Guidelines and Recommendations which Highlight the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change 388

Table 8.5: Guidelines and Recommendations for Implementing a Training for Transformation Model 389

LIST OF FIGURES

		PAGE
Figure 1.1:	Change Vocabulary	14
Figure 2.1:	Training Trends	21
Figure 2.2:	Management Development Status and Competences	23
Figure 2.3:	Learning Theories in a Training Context	33
Figure 2.4:	The Relationship Between Organisational, Human Resources Management and Human Resources Development Strategy	47
Figure 2.5:	A Simplified Model of the Strategic Human Resources Development Process	48
Figure 3.1:	A Systems Training Approach	54
Figure 3.2:	The Training Environment	55
Figure 3.3:	Identify the Training Gap	69
Figure 3.4:	Identify Training Needs	70
Figure 3.5:	The Role of Training Objectives	78
Figure 3.6:	Training Objectives and Outcomes	78
Figure 3.7:	Testing Training and Performance Objectives	82
Figure 3.8:	The Balance Between Trainer's and Learner's Contribution	91
Figure 3.9:	Constraints in Training Design	94
Figure 3.10:	Sequencing of Learning Content	97
Figure 3.11:	An Analysis of the Learning Process	98
Figure 3.12:	The Layout of a Lesson Plan	105
Figure 3.13:	A Model of Training Evaluation	110
Figure 3.14:	Training Evaluation Levels	113
Figure 3.15:	Considerations in Formative Evaluation	117

Figure 4.1:	Aspects Illustrating the Nature of Change	126
Figure 4.2:	Factors which Necessitate Change	131
Figure 4.3:	Broadening of the Ownership and Management Base	137
Figure 4.4:	Building Support for Change	139
Figure 4.5:	Management of Organisational and Culture Change	140
Figure 4.6:	Areas of Organisational Change	142
Figure 4.7:	How to Change People	144
Figure 4.8:	Change Strategies	146
Figure 4.9:	The Change Wheel	149
Figure 4.10:	A Problem-solving, Action Orientated Approach to Change	153
Figure 4.11:	Sources of Resistance to Change	158
Figure 4.12:	Stimulants that Condition Acceptance of Change	160
Figure 4.13:	The Coping Cycle	163
Figure 4.14:	The Communicating Manager Model	164
Figure 4.15:	Coping with Change: A Basic Model	166
Figure 4.16:	Coping with Change: An Interaction Model	167
Figure 4.17:	Characteristics of a Successful Change Agent	172
Figure 4.18:	Roles of the Change Agent	173
Figure 4.19:	A Processual Framework of Organisational Change	175
Figure 4.20:	An Organisational Change Model	177
Figure 5.1:	The Composition of Training and Transformation Interaction	183
Figure 5.2:	Characteristics of a Learning Organisation	194
Figure 5.3:	Formula for Creating a Learning Organisation	197
Figure 5.4:	Development Phases of a Learning Organisation	198

Figure 5.5:	Transformational Leadership Behaviours	204
Figure 5.6:	Transformational Leadership Model	207
Figure 5.7:	Determinants of the Role of Training	211
Figure 5.8:	Relationship Between Strategic Choice and Environmental Determinants in Organisational Adaptation	212
Figure 5.9:	The Role of Training in Managing Strategic Change	213
Figure 5.10:	The Role of Training in Planning the Change	214
Figure 5.11:	The Learning Change Process Model	216
Figure 5.12:	The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change	219
Figure 5.13:	The Interrelationship Between Individual and Organisational Change	226
Figure 5.14:	Avis's Management and Organisational Processes	231
Figure 5.15:	A Model of Training for Transformation	235
Figure 6.1:	The Research Approach	243
Figure 7.1:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section A of the Questionnaire: Organisational Development	262
Figure 7.2:	Extent to which Organisational Development Techniques are Implemented	263
Figure 7.3:	Types of Organisational Development Techniques Implemented by Organisations	264
Figure 7.4:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section A of the Questionnaire: The Learning Organisation	268
Figure 7.5:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section A of the Questionnaire: Transformational Leadership	273
Figure 7.6:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section B of the Questionnaire: The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership	278

Figure 7.7:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section B of the Questionnaire: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation	282
Figure 7.8:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section B of the Questionnaire: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model	285
Figure 7.9:	Extent to which Attention is given to Pre-training Programme Design Aspects	286
Figure 7.10:	Main Activity of Organisations	289
Figure 7.11:	Number of Employees	290
Figure 7.12:	Annual Gross Revenue in Rand	292
Figure 7.13:	Existence of a Training Department	293
Figure 7.14:	Organisational Structure: Post for a Change Agent	294
Figure 7.15:	Type of Environment	295
Figure 7.16:	Degree of Organisational Transformation	296
Figure 7.17:	Research Variables: Personal Viewpoints of Respondents	298
Figure 7.18:	Designation of Respondents	300
Figure 7.19:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of the Factor Analysis: Section A of the Questionnaire	304
Figure 7.20:	Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of the Factor Analysis: Section B of the Questionnaire	305
Figure 7.21:	A Summary of the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Classification Data) and Dependent Variables (Organisational Change)	318
Figure 7.22:	A Summary of the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Classification Data) and the Dependent Variables (Training in the Organisation)	326
Figure 7.23:	A Summary of the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Training in the Organisation) and the Dependent Variables (Organisational Change)	344

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The accelerating rate of change is producing a business world in which customary managerial habits in organisations are becoming increasingly inadequate. In the light of worldwide changes, organisations will be required to undergo major, strategic reorientations (Tichy, 1983:3). Most researchers (see for example Charlton 1994, Consultive Business Movement 1993, Madi 1995, Mahoney 1991 and Nutt 1992) concur that these changes are so fundamental that they are transforming just about every aspect of life. Society, including South Africa, is undergoing fundamental and rapid transformation in all spheres of life.

Manning (1988:184) maintains that change must be built into the psyche of every organisation, so that it becomes an ongoing process rather than a cause for periodic upheaval. Every organisation should therefore respond to it's continually changing environment. Wilson (1994:xi) stresses that organisations should not only change when facing a catastrophe or possible destruction, but should be able to understand and conceptualise change as a total process that has many facets. Ferguson (1986:355) advocates that the power of the transformative experience "must shake our values and, therefore the total economy - the marketplace, the factory, corporations, the professions, small business and social welfare."

Van der Merwe (1995:79) states that, at some time or another, all organisations must go through transformation and this process needs to be market-focussed. Kotter (1995:59) states, however, that although the goal of most organisations is to effect fundamental change and turnaround, few of these corporate change efforts have been successful, due to the fact that managers have little experience in renewing organisations.

These complex situations which managers face, require managers to be trained in a variety of skills. Although Drennan (1992:110) asserts that the training needs of an organisation should explain why the organisation wishes to change, Bramham (1994:28) is of the opinion that insufficient attention is given to training in the organisation. This is inappropriate in an environment of rapid change. Bolt, Bures and Banks (1985:62) emphasise the fact that training and development activities, aimed at changing managerial behaviour, are not a luxury, but a necessity.

Researchers (refer to Drucker 1995, Kubr & Prokopenko 1991, Motala 1991 and Tichy 1983) contend that managers are not automatically attracted to new ideologies and changes. Quite often the manager's reaction is to revert to the practices found to be successful in the past. Jeffries, Evans and Reynolds (1992:73) propose that if carried out properly, training enables both people and organisations to create more opportunities for change through learning. Harri-Augstein and Webb (1995:xxii) maintain that "in order to cope with the pressures that often arise, we have to learn new ways of mentally tackling situations, which frequently involve change ... as people find themselves deeply threatened by a future in which they have no strategy to cope let alone to survive and grow... the answer that frequently emerges is to encourage all those involved in change to undergo training."

The aim of this chapter is to state the problem of the study and to provide an overview of the scope of the study. Aspects which are highlighted are the following: problem statement, objectives, hypotheses, demarcation, research methodology, division of chapters and clarification of concepts. All these aspects provide a framework for conducting the literature study and empirical research.

1.2 PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

Because technology, organisations, communities and life in general is changing at an ever-increasing pace, individuals and all forms of social and work groups have to be able to develop strategies for change (Nutt, 1992:4). Price (1997:324) argues that at an organisational level, organisations need people with appropriate skills, abilities and experience which can either be bought from outside the

organisation through recruitment, consultancy and subcontracting or grown by training and developing existing employees. This study focuses on the second approach (training and development) and views human capital as investing in people as organisational assets. Mulder, Nijhof and Brinkerhoff (1995:1) also state that for organisations to continue their existence in the future, they require constant adaptation to new circumstances and that learning plays a crucial role which can be facilitated by organisational training. According to Jerling (1997:12), one of the areas of greatest concern in South Africa is the extremely low level of education of the majority of the population and lack of organisational training. Price (1997:334), however, asserts that because of organisational change, the traditional role of training has become obsolete. Training can not only be used to improve knowledge, skills and attitudes. A change in emphasis is required in which training is placed at the centre of human resources planning programmes and the strategic plans of the organisation.

The question arises whether South African managers are ready and equipped to face and deal with these fundamental changes. Presently the buzzword in corporate circles is "transformation", but how must management deal with this concept? The following are some of the questions which need to be answered:

* What aspects should be considered in developing a training programme for the organisation?
* Are the training programmes of an organisation conducive to the implementation of change strategies?
* How should an organisation deal with transformation or change in the organisation?
* What is the relationship between training and organisational change?
* How could a training for transformation model be implemented in an organisation?

Although various measures could be taken and strategies implemented to deal with transformation in the organisation, the focal point of this research project is to investigate the relationship between training and organisational change. The intention is to provide management, through this study, with a model and some guidelines on how to deal with transformation in the modern organisation and the

facilitating role of training. The reason for this is because "management are not given a handful or briefcase full of change to deal with in some predetermined way" (Wilson, 1994:xi).

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective is to investigate the interactive role between training and transformation or change in the organisation.

1.3.1 Secondary Goals

To help achieve the main objective, the secondary goals of the study are:

(a) To analyse the role and function of training in the organisation.

(b) To examine the nature and extent of organisational change.

(c) To investigate the facilitating role of training in organisational change.

(d) To develop a model of training for transformation.

(e) To provide guidelines on how to prepare and train managers for transformation.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

In order to investigate the relationship between variables or factors, various null hypotheses are tested. $H0_1$ to $H0_9$ deal with the relationship between organisational change (dependent variables)

and the classification data (independent variables). $H0_{10}$ to $H0_{18}$ highlight the relationship between training (dependent variables) and the classification data (independent variables). $H0_{19}$ to $H0_{27}$ investigate the relationship between organisational change (dependent variables) and training (independent variables). The null hypotheses, addressed in this study, are the following:

$H0_1$ The number of employees (size of organisation) is not related to organisational development.

$H0_2$ There is no relationship between an organisation who has a fully developed training department and organisational development.

$H0_3$ There is no relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and organisational development.

$H0_4$ The number of employees (size of organisation) is not related to the learning organisation.

$H0_5$ There is no relationship between an organisation who has a fully developed training department and the learning organisation.

$H0_6$ There is no relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the learning organisation.

$H0_7$ The number of employees (size of an organisation) is not related to transformational leadership.

$H0_8$ There is no relationship between an organisation who has a fully developed training department and transformational leadership.

$H0_9$ There is no relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and transformational leadership.

$H0_{10}$ There is no relationship between the number of employees (size of organisation) and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change.

$H0_{11}$ There is no relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change.

$H0_{12}$ There is no relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change.

$H0_{13}$ The number of employees (size of organisation) is not related to the role of training in managing organisational change.

$H0_{14}$ There is no relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the role of training in managing organisational change.

$H0_{15}$ There is no relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the role of training in managing organisational change.

$H0_{16}$ The number of employees (size of organisation) is not related to the application of a training for transformation model.

$H0_{17}$ There is no relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the application of a training for transformation model.

$H0_{18}$ There is no relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the application of a training for transformation model.

$H0_{19}$ The facilitating role of training is not related to the application of organisational development.

$H0_{20}$ There is no relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and organisational development.

$H0_{21}$ There is no relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and organisational development.

$H0_{22}$ The facilitating role of training is not related to the learning organisation.

$H0_{23}$ There is no relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and the learning organisation.

$H0_{24}$ There is no relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and the learning organisation.

$H0_{25}$ The facilitating role of training is not related to transformational leadership.

$H0_{26}$ There is no relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and transformational leadership.

$H0_{27}$ There is no relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and transformational leadership.

The research hypotheses, H_1 to H_{27}, can be stated as the exact opposite of the above null hypotheses, indicating that there are relationships between the independent and dependent variables (eg. H_1 states that the number of employees (size of organisation) is related to organisational development). The testing of the null and research hypotheses is conducted in Chapter 7.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The main aim of this study is to investigate the interactive role between training and organisational change. To this end, the target population was chosen from South African organisations with a training department or section. The ideal would have been to include all training practitioners in South Africa in the sample, but this is not possible. The probability sample selected for this study consists of 365 training practitioners registered with the South African Board for Personnel Practices. It was felt that these training specialists would be able to provide an objective and expert opinion with regard to the facilitating role of training in organisational change, because they are involved with training in South African organisations. These training specialists are employed in organisations from various industries.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A layout and discussion of the research methodology are provided in Chapter 6 and are only briefly highlighted in this section.

1.6.1 Data Collection

Information was acquired from both secondary and primary sources. An in-depth analysis is made of all relevant secondary literature sources. This includes publications such as text books, journals and previous related studies, which provide a theoretical foundation and framework to conceptualise training for transformation.

Additional information will be gathered by means of an empirical study. A self-administered questionnaire was used and mailed to the selected sample. Data gathered by this survey is analysed thereafter.

1.6.2 Research Design

To investigate the relationship between training and organisational change, an empirical study is undertaken. The research design developed is highlighted in the subsequent paragraphs.

(a) The Design of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire consisting of three sections is used, namely, organisational change, training and classification data. A five-point Likert-type scale is mainly used in Section A and B of the questionnaire (except for one open-ended question and one nominal scale type of question). Section C of the questionnaire consists of close-ended questions, using a nominal type scale.

(b) The Sampling Technique

A probability sample was drawn by the South African Board of Personnel Practices (SABPP). All training specialists or practitioners (a total of 365) registered with the SABPP were included in the sample (refer to Section 6.3.1 (b) for a discussion on sample selection).

(c) Analysis of data

In order to prove the stated hypotheses and to test a model of training for transformation, advanced statistical methods are used, namely, analysis of variance, correlation coefficients, Chi-square and factor analysis. In addition, descriptive statistics and frequency distributions are used.

1.7 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

The study is divided into the following 8 Chapters:

* **Chapter 1** indicates the scope of the study and methods used. Aspects included are: introduction, problem statement, hypotheses, demarcation of the study, research methodology and a clarification of concepts.

* **Chapter 2** provides an overview of training and include aspects such as the history of training, trends and issues in training, learning, training legislature, reasons for training and strategic aspects of training.

* **Chapter 3** highlights the phases of the training process according to a training model.

* **Chapter 4** analyses the nature and extent of organisational change, namely, theories of change, reasons for organisational change, preparing for change, areas of change, change strategies, resistance to change, coping with change, dangers and pitfalls in change and a model of organisational change.

* **Chapter 5** investigates the interactive role between training and organisational change by focussing on the composition of training and transformation interaction, the role of training in managing organisational change and the development of a training for transformation model.

* **Chapter 6** provides an overview of the research methodology of the study and discusses aspects such as the research approach and research design.

* **Chapter 7** provides a layout of the data analysis, and most importantly, the survey results.

* **Chapter 8** presents a summary of the most important findings, conclusions and managerial implications of the study, the shortcomings of the study and suggestions for future research.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

This section highlights the core concepts used in this study. The intention is to conceptualise "training for transformation" and to place these concepts in the correct perspective.

1.8.1 Training

Stammers and Patrick (1975:10) maintain that most textbooks on training embark without a definition of training, assuming the reader knows the meaning of training. Tyson and York (1996:141) concur by stating that related vocabulary such as learning, education and development are sometimes similarly used in training and that this can lead to confusion. Attempts are made by some authors (see for example Buckley & Caple 1992; Ivancevich & Glueck 1983 and Truelove 1995) to separate these terms by differential definitions. Definitions of this kind, however, oversimplify a very complicated process and engage in debates regarding semantic differences.

According to DeCenzo and Robbins (1988:240), training is basically a learning experience which seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual's skills, knowledge, attitudes or social behaviour. Halloran (1986:128) also advocates that training is the "process of transmitting and receiving information related to problem solving or practical situations". In an organisational context, training refers to those experiences which are designed to enhance the learning of behaviours that will contribute to organisational and individual goals (French, 1986:313).

For the purpose of this study, training should be viewed as an activity which accomodates the learning process which changes the individual's skills, knowledge and attitudes towards certain aspects and

conditions within the environment and organisation. Table 1.1 illustrates the fundamental building blocks or components of training.

Table 1.1: Components of Training

Learning	**TRAINING**
Education	
Development	

The three most important components of training, namely, learning, education and development are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

(a) Learning

Haber and Runyon (1983:34) indicate that learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour which results from experience or practice. Training is therefore a learning experience in order to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes.

(b) Education

According to Cronje, Hugo, Neuland and van Reenen (1993:343), education can be defined as the "development of knowledge, moral values and understanding, which are required in all areas of life". Education is therefore aimed at preparing the individual for life and is a continuous process. Within a training context, one can assume that employees receive some or other form of education.

(c) Development

Traditionally, it was assumed that employees at lower levels were "trained", while employees at higher levels (managers) were "developed". Cascio (1992:232) argues that this distinction has

become too blurry to be useful in practice. Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (1995:400) concur that flattening of organisational structures and elimination of levels of management has eroded some of the traditional boundaries between management and non-management personnel. The terms "training" and "development" are, therefore, sometimes used interchangeably.

1.8.2 Transformation

According to Ferguson (1986:71), a transformation is, literally, a forming over or restructuring. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1989:1362) defines transformation as the "act or operation of changing the form, appearance, character, or to give a new form to". Transformation within an organisation can therefore be seen as the act of changing an entire organisation in form, appearance, character and disposition. The end result of transformation should be a departure from past experiences, practices and behaviour. In this study, transformation is therefore seen as part of the change process in an organisation. By changing the organisation, transformation will take place.

1.8.3 Change

Schein (cited in Tichy, 1983:17) views organisational change as the "induction of new patterns of action, belief and attitudes among substantial segments of a population." The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982:154) refers to change as making or becoming different or a substitution of one for another. Certo (1989:287) and Hodge and Anthony (1984:484) concur that change is any alteration of the status quo. Change in its broadest sense, therefore, means to become different - the altering of existing behavioural practices.

Some authors (see for example Brammer 1991 and Watzlavick, Weakland & Fisch 1974) view transformation as part of the change process. In describing the one term, the other term is used. In this study, transformation and change concepts are used interchangeably.

Figure 1.1 indicates some of the most important change vocabulary, which helps to describe the actual meaning of change or transformation in an organisational context.

Figure 1.1: Change Vocabulary

* Transition	* Modifying
* Metamorphosis	* Altering
* Converting	* Give up
* Adapting	* Get rid of
* Turnaround	* Make suitable
* Adjustment	* Transformation
CHANGE	CHANGE

The concepts mentioned in Figure 1.1 differ in scope and degree but are, however, an indication of what is meant by change or transformation in the organisation.

1.8.4 Human Resources Management

The training practices in any organisation, fall within the boundaries of human resources management. Gerber, Nel and van Dyk (1995:9) refer to human resources management as "activities, policies, beliefs and the general function that relates to employees or the personnel department". The main focus of this study, with regard to Business Management, will therefore fall within the scope of human resources management.

1.9 CONCLUSION

It appears that organisations are pressurised to adapt to changes in the environment. These large scale changes facing organisations need to be planned and managed. It is proposed that training can play an important role in facilitating organisational change. There seems to be significant relationships between training and organisational change.

A brief outline of the importance and scope of the study was given. Aspects such as the problem statement, objectives, hypotheses, demarcation of the study and research methodology were highlighted. This chapter provides a framework for conducting the study.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of training.

CHAPTER 2

A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF TRAINING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The important role of training in an organisation is highlighted by Eagar (1996:61) and Nasser (1984:105) who contend that there is a growing need to develop an adequate quantity and quality of managerial and supervisory talent. The challenge of achieving higher productivity and skills levels places increasing demands on the capacity to educate and train large numbers of people in South Africa.

Research literature on the topic of training appears to be quite extensive (see the contributions of Bellis 1994; Huysamen 1995; Mülder 1991 and Wallace 1991). Adonisi (1991:27) maintains that "the rapidly changing socio-economic and political climate in South Africa poses formidable challenges to management in general and human resources managers in particular." What is of importance is the challenge facing organisational leaders to create self-renewing organisations that will provide the capacity to handle the tide of change. Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:vxii) concur that one of the crucial challenges facing South African organisations is how to manage change. Only people who are trained and developed in organisations can be productive and can contribute to the challenges facing South African organisations. Teke (1997:24) further emphasises the important role of training in empowering the workforce to be creative and innovative in meaningful business activities. Manning (1996:10) also stresses that of all tasks facing contemporary organisations, training and development of people is the most crucial - there is no other way to productivity, profitability or survival in the new business arena.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a brief overview of training. A point of departure will be to look at training in a historical context. Different developments in the field of training are scrutinised. The next section will highlight the contemporary trends and issues in training. Various statutory institutions and legislation involved in training will also be discussed. An outline will be given of the potential benefits to be gained from well-planned and effective training programmes. Another aspect that will be analysed is training's relationship to learning.

Various theories and principles of learning and key features of a learning culture are also highlighted. The last aspect of this chapter deals with the strategic nature of training management. A brief overview will be given of the incorporation of training in the overall strategy of the organisation.

2.2 TRAINING IN HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Craig (1976:1-3) asserts that "as man invented tools, weapons, clothing, shelter and language, the need for training became an essential ingredient in the march of civilisation." Robinson (1981:12) concurs by stating that early man speedily learned to acquire skills in order to survive in a hostile environment. It is generally believed that man began assimilating knowledge at the beginning of the stone age.

According to Craig (1987:4), the roots of training can be traced back to archaeological excavations that unearthed clay or brick tablets on which is inscribed information about the lives of people who lived more than 6000 years ago. The Sumerian Palace at Kish in Mesopotamia was built around 3500 years before Christ and exemplifies the ancient use of brick - which could not have been accomplished without training or transfer of knowledge.

The skills and knowledge were only transmitted by direct instruction. An apprenticeship system developed whereby an experienced person passed along his knowledge and skill to the novice who became a journeyman. Provisions for governing apprenticeship were instituted as early as 2100 years before Christ. The apprenticeship system was not restricted to artisanship alone, but also applied to instruction in medicine, law and education. A further development was the formation of guilds (between the twelfth and thirteen centuries). These guilds acted as associations of people whose interests and pursuits were the same and became the forerunners of labour unions. There has been a constant developing emphasis on quality training of workers. Vocational education emerges in the form of craft training in areas such as gardening and carpentry (1745). The increased growth in training started in the industrial sector. In 1809 vocational training facilities were established and by 1886, private manual training schools were established. With

the growth of industry, a new form of training emerged - the factory schools. Besides studying, students worked in a factory for additional practical experience (Craig, 1976:1-4).

The development of training as a profession during this century has been influenced by behavioural scientists. It is assumed that the first documented behavioural work of importance to the training profession was that of Taylor and the Gilbreths at the turn of the century (Robinson, 1981:12). Table 2.1 indicates the further development of training during the twentieth century (an international perspective).

Table 2.1: International Developments in Training

DATE	DEVELOPMENT OR CONTRIBUTION
1892	Key influence by the YMCA - offered a course in freehand drawing, pattern making, tool making and cabinetry.
1906	National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education
1913	National Association of Corporation Schools
1917	Industrial training programmes World War 1 training problems
1920's	Federal Board of Vocational Education Correspondence Schools emerged. Sales training in door-to-door selling.
1930's	Great Depression - top mangement decided that training was not a necessity. Internal training programmes were halted. Unemployed people occupied their time by learning handcrafts. Audio-visual technologies (sound motion pictures) were used as a training tool.
1940's	National Society of Sales Training Executives Training function of supervisor became important and the training director was a common title. Job instruction training developed. American Society for Training and Development
1950's	Business games emerged. Television and videotape technology were used for instruction. Attention was given to the evaluation of training.
1960's	Assessment centres were used. Training laboratory and sensitivity training, programmed instruction and computers emerged. The need for management training was high. Training and Development Handbook introduced.

1970's	Training of the disadvantaged and other minority groups began. Trainers became professional. Organisational development gained acceptance. Competency-based learning was popular. International training activities. Improvements in training hardware.
1980's	Quality Circle Movement Trainers became conscious of their expenditures. Popularity of personal computers increased. Behaviour modelling was used extensively. Renewed emphasis on career development.

Source: Adapted from Craig (1987:9-16)

Craig (1987:16) postulates that it is difficult to analyse the present or resent past in the perspective of history, because it is not well documented. According to Robinson (1981:20), the acceptance of training as valid means of contributing to the achievement of objectives gave rise to the establishment of a new profession. Cumming (1994:200) concurs by stressing the growing role of training in the modern world.

Viewed from a South African context, one needs to have a sound knowledge of the historical development of the country's labour force and training practices. However, this seems to be not well documented. Van Dyk, Nel, Loedolff and Haasbroek (1997:54) argue that the basic structures, according to which the Department of Labour functions, were established in 1924. Rapid industrial growth resulted in an increase in the demand for skilled labour. Recommendations of the Wiehahn and Riekert Commissions changed South Africa's human resources policy dramatically. Table 2.2 briefly highlights the historical evolution of training legislation in South Africa.

Table 2.2: Historical Evolution of Training Legislation in South Africa

DATE	DEVELOPMENT OR CONTRIBUTION
1922	Apprenticeship Act No.26
1944	Apprenticeship Act No.37
1951	Training of Artisans Act No.38

1963	Apprenticeship Amendment Act No.46
1970	Wiehahn Commission - Inquiry into Labour Legislation Riekert Commission - Inquiry into Utilisation of Manpower
1979	National Manpower Commission
1981	National Training Board Manpower Act No. 56
1985	Investigation into Training of Artisans
1990	Manpower Amendment Act

Source: Adapted from Van Dyk, et al., (1997:87)

An overview of relevant training legislation are given in Section 2.4. The following section highlights the major trends in the field of training.

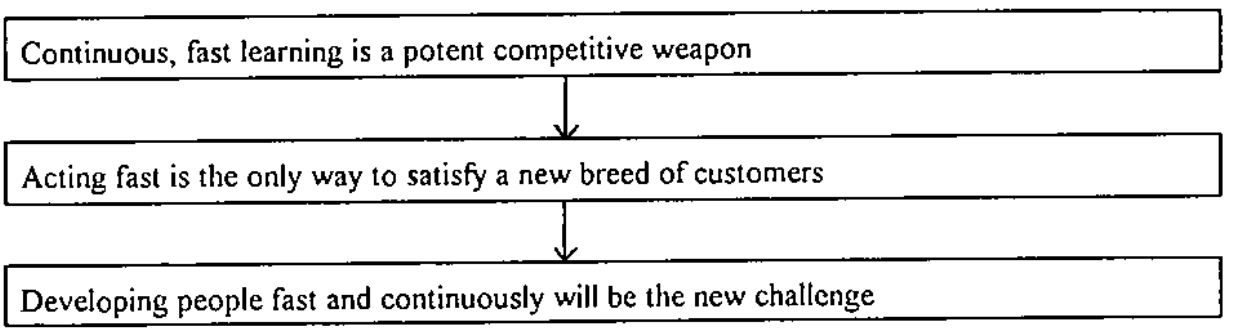
2.3 TRAINING TRENDS AND ISSUES

Osbaldeston and Barham (1992:20) stress that it is important to understand the changing picture of the world in which organisations operate, as this provides the context in which to consider the future of training management. Buckley and Caple (1992:229), however, argue that many of the ideas and beliefs about training "represent a Utopian world of training" which they cannot imagine ever being realised. Despite this notion, this section will provide an overview of contemporary trends and issues in training.

According to Manning (1989:16), any organisation that attempts to be competitive must have access to knowledge, because knowledge is power. Knowledge needs to be obtained about customers, competitors, products, markets, technologies and processes. Continuous fast learning must become a priority. Keeping up with new methods, changing trends and advanced technology is vital. A new sense of urgency is necessary to satisfy customers. People need to be developed fast and continuously. To meet these new requirements, training will have to undergo some kind of transformation. A major challenge is to develop a new style of

management and a new breed of worker. Figure 2.1 illustrates the major training trends, according to Manning's (1989:16) classification.

Figure 2.1: Training Trends



Source: Adapted from Manning (1989:16-17)

Andrews and Crow (1993:23) assert that technological advancement can be achieved within a relatively short time-span. The upgrading of management skills, however, takes much longer. The following are important directions in training:

(a) A shift from rote, passive learning to active and experiential learning.
(b) A move from being teacher-dependent to teacher-guided.
(c) A need for a problem-solving, practical orientation, instead of a textbook orientation.
(d) The content of development programmes must be pertinent to the manager's environment.
(e) The focus on empowerment has become crucial.
(f) An increased emphasis on using knowledge as opposed to acquiring knowledge.
(g) A shift from rigid training programmes to more flexible schedules.

These directions have certain implications for training. The motivation of learners to excel is probably the most important function that the developer of management can fulfil. The solution to a lack of global competitiveness and human resources problems is to create a desire and ability to excel at all levels. Table 2.3 provides some reasons why the time and money budget for training has increased.

Table 2.3: Reasons for Increased Training Expenditure

1.	The number of unskilled and undereducated youth needed for entry-level jobs.
2.	Increasingly sophisticated technological systems impose training and retraining. requirements on the existing workforce.
3.	The need to train underutilised groups of minorities, women and older workers.
4.	Training needs to be stimulated by the internationally competitive environment.

Source: Adapted from Cascio (1992:233)

In analysing the abovementioned trends, it appears that training should position itself as a strategic tool (refers to Section 2.7). The challenge is to provide a vision of the future, which is meaningful for employees at all levels in the organisation.

Obsbaldeston and Barham (1992:20) further postulate that the "international manager" must be able to act locally and to think and plan strategically and globally. Cultural sensitivity, and the ability to manage change in different cultural contexts, makes heavy demands on training. Organisations should identify and develop the competent manager of the future, who will possess the skills and abilities to manage the changing demands of organisations. The "learning organisation" (refer to Section 5.2.2) should have a philosophy of continuous development as a way of life and is activated by collective growth (not individual development). Management development should be at the heart of the organisation (not on the periphery). This scenario is depicted in Figure 2.2. The development of managers is important, as they are the ones who often act as change agents in the organisation. Mondy and Premeaux (1995:500) define management development as "formal efforts to improve skills and attitudes of present and prospective managers."

An important objective of management development is therefore to assist managers to cope with changing conditions in the environment.

Figure 2.2: Management Development Status and Competences

Collective

Management development status	Peripheral	2	4	Strategic
		1	3	

Individual

Competence focus

Source: Osbaldeston and Barham (1992:21)

Quadrant one in Figure 2.2 indicates a situation where there is little formal management development in the organisation. The learning organisation is depicted in Quadrant 4. The top left area (Quadrant 2) illustrates a situation where there is little connection between management development and the strategy of the organisation. Quadrant three focuses on the growth of the individual, but relates it to the meeting of organisational goals. The ultimate goal of the organisation should be to get to the top right quadrant - the learning organisation. This could be accomplished with a focussed approach to training, where training is intrinsic to the organisation (as opposed to the fragmented and formalised approach). The different approaches to training are analysed in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Modern Approaches to Training

APPROACH	CHARACTERISTICS: TRAINING IS ...
Fragmented	* a cost not an investment * not linked to organisational goals * perceived as a luxury * directive oriented * taking place in the training department only * primarily knowledge-based courses
Formalised	* systematic (part of planned career development) * linked to human resources needs * linked to appraisal/individual needs * knowledge-based courses and focussing on skills * linked to career development * carried out by trainers and line managers * linked to the job by means of course work
Focussed	* a continuous learning process * essential for organisational survival * a competitive weapon * linked to organisational strategy and individual goals * on-the-job and specialist courses * self-selected * usually non-directive * line manager's responsibility

Source: Osbaldeston and Barham (1992:22)

The focussed approach depicted in Table 2.4 views training and continuous learning by individuals as a necessity for survival and fosters the flexibility needed to keep pace with change in a competitive environment. It should therefore be clear that training should be viewed as a strategic tool that links training to organisational strategy. Organisations should promote learning as an organisational value and as a career and lifeline process. Managers will need counselling and mentoring skills to fulfil their growing role as developers of people.

Baird, Schneier and Laird (1983:286) attest to the fact that "employees will see training as a right rather than an amusing and interesting sideline... this will produce a maturity and professionalism

in training never realised in the past." The subsequent paragraphs will indicate the most important legislation pertaining to training.

2.4 TRAINING: STATUTORY INSTITUTIONS AND LEGISLATION

The total body of legislative matter which bears upon the field of training is wide. Gerber et al., (1995:462) concur that various state institutions and legislation are involved with training in South Africa to some extent. This section aims to provide a brief overview of relevant statutory institutions and legislation involved with training.

2.4.1 International Labour Organisation Conventions

In order to understand the present legislative structure within which training functions in South Africa, it is necessary to review the influence of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) conventions relating to training (Van Dyk et al.,1997:82). South Africa became a member of the ILO after 30 years of isolation. The ILO has a tripartite approach to the state, employers and employees' organisations and covers most aspects of working conditions, industrial relations, human rights, employment and vocational training. ILO training initiatives attempt to improve living and working conditions, to increase employment possibilities and to promote fundamental rights of all members. In 1975 the ILO adopted Convention 142 on the development of human resources (concerning vocational guidance and training) whereby each member country must adopt and develop policies and programmes in conjunction with employers' and workers' organisations.

The ILO also attempts to promote appropriate national policies on training matters and to expand the capabilities of the labour market. It further plays the role of training adviser and it is in this respect that South Africa can benefit from its expertise (Van Dyk et al., 1997:82-84). It is therefore crucial that South Africa takes note of these global guidelines and adjusts its own policies and legislation to be in line with the rest of the world.

2.4.2 The Department of Labour

According to the Constitution (Van Dyk et al., 1997:62), training within a labour market perspective, is the responsibility of the Minister of Labour. After the elections in 1994, the Department of Labour came about and replaced the former Department of Manpower. One of the main focus points of this department is the development of human resource's capacity by means of strengthened and refocussed training and education policies and practices.

Two statutory bodies, attached to the Ministry of Labour, that have a direct impact on the development of training policies, are highlighted below.

2.4.3 The National Training Board

The National Training Board was established by the promulgation of the Manpower Training Act of 1981 (Section 3(1)) for the purposes of advising the Minister with regard to matters of policy arising from the Act, and any other aspects of human resources training. The National Training Board was fundamentally restructured in 1996 to make it more representative of the State, employers, employees, providers and comminity-based organisations (Van Dyk et al., 1997:66). According to the National Training Board Annual Report (1993:6), the main tasks and activities of the Board include the following:

* Advising the Minister on training policies.
* Undertaking research on human resources training.
* Co-operating with government and other statutory bodies on matters relating to training.
* Taking steps to establish uniform standards of training.
* Maintaining direct liaison with the training community.

The National Training Board (1990:v) states that "traditionally, management believed that people would simply be available on the labour market when needed, with the right skills and qualifications." However, contemporary organisations that experience changes in technology,

markets and products, are dependent on skilled staff in order to cope with their dynamic situations. It is therefore important that all organisations which develop training policies must base it on the guidelines and perspectives of the National Training Board, in order to be in line with the national strategy of the government.

2.4.4 National Economic Development and Labour Council

According to Baker (1995:188), the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) was formed early in 1995 to facilitate co-operation and to seek the consensus between organised business, labour and government on economic, labour and development policy issues. This statutory body incorporates the National Manpower Commission and the National Economic Forum. The central features of NEDLAC are the four chambers: development/training, finance and monetary, trade and industry and the labour market. The incorporation of the Development Chamber is to ensure that the socially excluded can influence national policy formulation. It considers proposed labour legislation and legislation affecting economic and development policy prior to it being introduced into Parliament. The reform programme in South Africa is therefore formulated and implemented as a result of political influence by member organisations inside NEDLAC.

2.4.5 The Manpower Training Act

The Manpower Training Act (No.56 of 1981) governs all training in South Africa and consolidates all other training legislation. Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:9) maintain that the Act is important to all employers and trainers. It provides an institutional framework within which the training needs of all employees can be met.

Training legislation in South Africa changed dramatically with the promulgation of the Manpower Training Amendment Act (No.39 of 1990). The most important changes to the Act were:

* Establishment and accreditation of training boards
* Setting up of an advisory committee for regional training centres
* Establishment of a fund for training unemployed persons
* A changeover of existing time-based training systems to a competence-based, modular system (Gerber et al., 1995:474).

Table 2.5 indicates the major aspects covered by the Act.

Table 2.5: Aspects Covered by the Manpower Training Act

CHAPTER	TOPIC
1	National Training Board, committees and related matters
2	Registrars of Manpower training, training boards and apprentices and attainment of artisan status
3	Training of trainees
4	Training centres and schemes
5	Manpower Development Fund
6	General Provisions

Source: Adapted from Van Dyk et al., (1997:92)

Training practitioners need to familiarise themselves with the application of the Act, in order to provide training and to make trained labour available to meet the country's needs.

2.4.6 An Integrated National Training Strategy

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:17) allege that a country that wishes to experience economic growth and to utilise its people as effectively as possible, needs a national training programme. In 1991 the National Training Board developed a provisional training strategy for South Africa, which was broadened in 1993.

A preliminary report by the National Training Board (1994:86) emphasised the vision of a national training strategy that provides a human resource development system with an integrated approach to education and training. This vision requires a paradigm shift from thinking of education and training as two separate entities, to viewing learning as a lifelong process. The core strategy is defined as follows: "Education and training must, by means of a national qualification framework, empower individuals, improve their quality of life and contribute to the development targets in the national economic plan" (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1996:18). The essential elements of this strategy are:

* The point of departure is a national qualification framework that specifies learning in terms of outputs.
* A nationally recognised qualification can be obtained at a number of education and training institutions.
* The national qualification framework provides a method of satisfying needs of various stakeholders.

Gerber et al., (1995:471) advocate that many of the recommendations and concepts in the proposed strategy may appear to be revolutionary, but are vital components of the future development of South Africa and its people. It should therefore be clear that the National Training Strategy has a crucial role to play in the development of the educated and trained workforce of this country. A discussion on the White Paper of education introduced in Parliament, which was an outflow of the National Training Strategy, falls beyond the scope of this section of the study.

Section 2.5 provides a brief overview of the reasons for and benefits of training.

2.5 REASONS FOR AND BENEFITS OF TRAINING

Watson (1982:5) stresses that although development and training is a prerequisite for the long-term survival of the organisation, the underlying reasons for training and development are not

widely understood. Zaccarelli (1992:13) concurs that training is not a luxury, but a necessity. Glueck (1982:413) goes further by stating that training should be done not only as a strategy for the organisation to achieve organisational goals, but also as a responsibility to employees. Training could also be a strategy used by individuals, to make them "inflation-proof" to maintain their own wealth-providing capacity (skills and knowledge). Table 2.6 provides a profile or checklist of reasons why training is necessary.

Table 2.6: A checklist of Reasons for Training

NO.	DESCRIPTION OF REASON FOR TRAINING
1.	Technological changes, which require changes in strategy, structure and management style
2.	Changes in availability and sources of raw materials
3.	Changing public attitudes and demands
4.	Changes in organisational strategies and structures
5.	Changes in employees' values, life styles and educational levels
6.	To develop technical specialists to become general managers
7.	To develop younger managers sooner
8.	To develop professional managers for all sectors of the economy
9.	To prevent managerial obsolescence
10.	To broaden the manager's vision and understanding in preparation for additional authority
11.	To provide the manager with the latest information on business theory and practice
12.	To stimulate a more creative and innovative approach to problem-solving and decision-making
13.	To allow the manager to assess his/her career development and work role
14.	To widen the business perspective of the manager
15.	To expose a competent manager to new avenues of management thought
16.	To permit managers interacting and comparing problems/solutions with managers in other areas
17.	To check competency of a potential successor

18.	To orientate new employees
19.	To improve and maintain performance standards
20.	To prepare people for new posts/jobs

Given the reasons in Table 2.6, it should be apparent that the maintenance and improvement of mental ability is possible. The crucial role of training in facilitating changes in the organisation is also paramount. Organisations can utilise this checklist to identify the need for training in an organisation.

Having identified the reasons for training in an organisation (which could also be possible advantages), the literature (see Buckley and Caple 1992; Kirkpatrick 1983 and Marx 1986) spells out more specific benefits of training. Halloran (1986:129) asserts that training promotes good human relations, can assist one in advancing one's own career by training others, promotes health and safety in the work place and can teach one to use time more effectively.

Buckley and Caple (1992:21) emphasise the contribution of effective training in achieving organisational objectives, but also highlight a more long-term strategic role of training. Marx (1986:146) clearly states that training is important and could provide the following benefits for the organisation:

* Increased efficiency and productivity
* Meeting personnel needs of an organisation
* Adapting to changes and developments
* Decreasing problems between older and younger employees
* The motivational value of training
* Increasing independent work and reducing supervision
* Fewer personnel replacement problems

It appears that there are numerous potential benefits to be gained by individuals and organisations from well-planned and effective training programmes. It should, however, be mentioned that

many training experiences lack positive results because of unrealistic expectations. It is unrealistic to expect training to alter personalities or habits overnight.

The following section provides an outline of the most important theories and principles of learning. The reason for including this section is to indicate the relationship between training and learning. The overall purpose of training is to effect change in employee behaviour and learning must occur if change is to take place.

2.6 TRAINING'S RELATIONSHIP WITH LEARNING

Most literature on training (see Camp, Blanchard & Huszczo 1986; Goldstein 1986 and Ribler 1983) include aspects of learning theories and principles. Gerber et al., 1995:482 is of the opinion that an understanding of learning theories and principles is essential for the design, development and evaluation of effective training programmes. Sherman, Bohlander and Snell (1996:251) concur that the success of a training programme is determined not only by the organisation's ability to identify training needs and careful development of the training programme, but also by whether trainees learned what they were supposed to learn. Developers of training programmes therefore need to attend to the basic psychological principles of learning to ensure its success. Learning is defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour, resulting from experience or practice (refer to Section 1.8.1 (a)).

This section highlights the most important theories and principles of learning, key features of a learning culture and its implication for training management. All of this should provide a theoretical framework for understanding how actual training takes place.

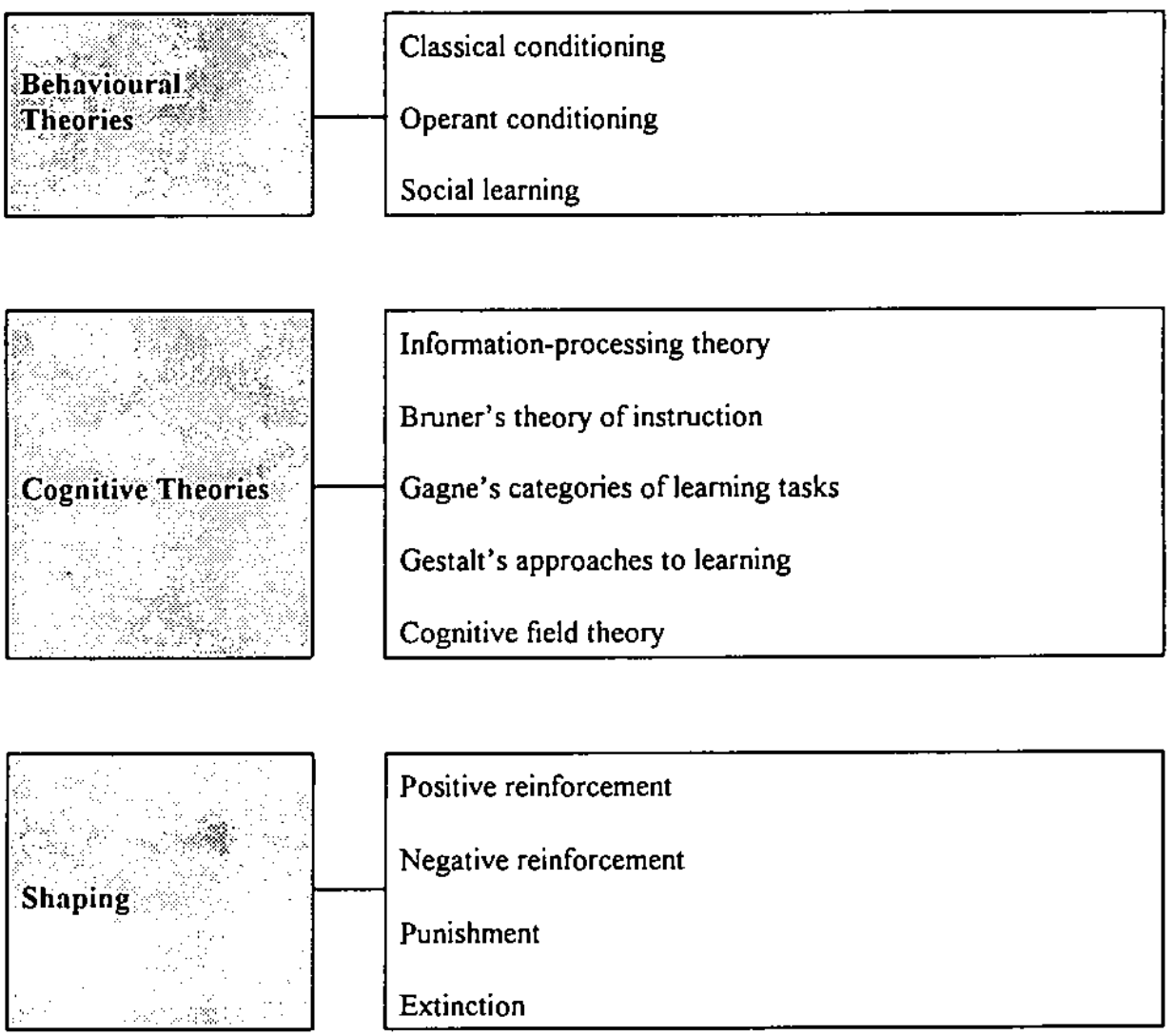
2.6.1 Learning Theories

Tyson and York (1996:145) allege that there is no need for training practitioners to become too deeply involved in the literature of learning theory. However, from the wealth of practical

experience, it is possible to highlight some basic and general truths about learning which are fundamentally important to those involved in training.

Figure 2.3 illustrates the most important theories of learning which are appropriate and applicable in a training context. This classification should not be seen as exhaustive, but as a foundation in conceptualising the learning process, based on learning theories developed by various researchers.

Figure 2.3: Learning Theories in a Training Context



These theories are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs. An in-depth discussion of these learning theories is beyond the scope of this study.

(a) Behavioural Theories of Learning

The following behavioural theories are briefly discussed: classical and operant conditioning and social learning.

(i) Classical Conditioning

This type of learning occurs when behaviour that originally followed an event is made to follow a different event. Harber and Runyon (1983:37) define classical conditioning as "a type of learning in which a previously neutral stimulus, through repeated parings with an unconditioned stimulus, acquires the capacity to evoke the response originally made to the unconditioned stimulus." The event is the stimulus and the behaviour that follows is called the response. This theory is based on research mainly done on animals. Human learners, however, also learn to respond to signals, alarms and signs through classical conditioning. This type of learning is quite common inside and outside the workplace.

(ii) Operant Conditioning

In this type of conditioning, behaviour is viewed as a function of its consequences (also referred to as instrumental learning/conditioning). A person who works overtime receives praise from the supervisor and this behaviour (overtime) will be repeated later. Operant conditioning does not involve a comparable stimulus, but has a broader application to almost any human behaviour (Smit & Cronje, 1992:279).

(iii) Social Learning Theory

DeCenzo and Robbins (1988:241) view learning as a continuous interaction between the individual and the environment. Behaviour is seen as a function of external factors and consequences and internal needs. The individual uses modelling to acquire behaviour by observing and imitating others. The model may be a manager or co-worker who demonstrates desired behaviour. Social learning theory provides insights into what a training exercise should include:

a model, capturing of trainees' attention, motivational properties, storing of what has been learned for later use and the transfer thereof onto the job.

(b) Cognitive Learning Theories

Cognitive learning is "a form of learning achieved by thinking about the perceived relationship between events and individual goals and expectations (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1997:198). It is therefore assumed that individuals engage in acquiring, memorising and relaying information. Some of the better known and more applicable cognitive learning theories will be discussed.

(i) Information-Processing Theory

This learning theory views human thinking as information processing that begins with experiences in the form of sensations, perceptions and information, which enters the human mind through the senses. These experiences are combined in a scientific manner, so that a person can think and interpret them in a certain way. The retained information can be stored for short or longer periods of time. Information-processing can be applied to the learning situation in the workplace, for example, by getting and keeping attention by offering a variety of meaningful and properly structured information, in the presentation of learning material (Van Dyk et al., 1997:204).

(ii) Bruner's Theory of Instruction

According to this theory, instruction prescribes rules for the most effective gaining of knowledge and attaining of skills. Learning is viewed as a combination of acquisition, transformation and testing. The theory also provides criteria for evaluating teaching practices and instruction. It depicts guidelines on how interest can be generated and how to organise and sequence knowledge to facilitate training (Van Dyk et al., 1997:205).

(iii) Gagne's Categories of Learning Tasks

According to Gagne (1977:26), learning is viewed as a change in human disposition or capability

which takes place in the learner's brain. Five major classes of learned capabilities were identified: intellectual skills, verbal information, cognitive strategies, motor skills and attitudes. The Gagne-model makes important contributions with regard to the analysis of learning objectives. The hierarchical structure focuses the attention of the trainer on prerequisite learning which must take place. The model also contributes to the formulation of learning objectives and provides useful methods for analysing tasks in the learning situation (Dorfling, 1989:112).

(iv) Gestalt Approaches to Learning

Freedman, Sears and Carlsmith (1981:11) state that according to the Gestalt approach, learning takes place through insight. The main point of focus is that people are not passive agents in dealing with the environment. Instead, people organise their perceptions, thoughts and beliefs into simple, meaningful forms. One does not observe objects individually, but sees them as standing out (figure) with some being in the background (ground). When related to training, the learning situation is perceived as a whole and the learner organises the stimuli into a pattern or whole that has meaning. Learning is seen as a process whereby problems are solved through a series of discoveries or previous experiences.

(v) Cognitive Field Theory

Van Dyk et al., (1997:207) maintain that "learning is the action carried out by a person in order, ultimately to know or can." Everything between the two extremes of "does not know" (can not) and "knows" (can) is regarded as learning. According to this theory, learning takes place through the following steps:

* Motivation - the learner must have the will or motivation to learn.
* Types of learning - the learning requirement can be achieved in a variety of ways, depending on the type of learning involved.
* Initial learning success - when the learner gains insight for the first time.
* Reinforcement - successful acts need to be repeated.

* Retention and actualisation - memorisation and ability to recall the new knowledge that has been acquired.
* Application of transfer - transfer is the final proof of successful learning (acquired knowledge can be applied in different situations).

(c) Shaping

This refers to a manager's effort in attempting to shape an employee's behaviour to the benefit of the organisation (Smit & Cronje, 1992:279). Employees' behaviour can be shaped in the following ways:

(i) Positive Reinforcement

Reinforcement is based on the law of effect - that behaviour resulting in a pleasant outcome is likely to be repeated, while behaviour resulting in an unpleasant outcome is unlikely to be repeated. Positive reinforcement is therefore the application of positive consequences that tend to increase the likelihood of repeating the behaviour (Camp et al., 1986:68). An example of positive reinforcement is when a manager praises a subordinate's efforts.

(ii) Negative Reinforcement

Harber and Runyon (1983:52) view negative reinforcement as an event that strengthens the response that precedes it, by virtue of its removal or termination (a response followed by something pleasant being held back). An example is when a student studies to avoid the unpleasantness of obtaining a D- or F-symbol.

(iii) Punishment

This form of shaping tells learners that something was done incorrectly. An unpleasant situation is created to eliminate undesirable behaviour. An example of punishment is when a manager

assigns a tardy worker an unpleasant job, such as cleaning the rest rooms (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1988:243).

(iv) Extinction

Extinction refers to the withdrawal of the reinforcing consequences for a given behaviour. The goal of extinction is to weaken and eliminate undesirable behaviour. This form of shaping is illustrated when a manager instructs the co-workers of a latecomer not to cover for that person (Schermerhorn et al., 1997:206).

This overview of learning theories provides a theoretical foundation for the identification of principles of learning and training design. The most important learning principles are highlighted in the following section.

2.6.2 Learning Principles

Cascio (1992:242) postulates that in order to promote efficient learning and long-term retention, training programmes should incorporate principles of learning which developed over the past century. This section gives an outline of the most important principles of learning as applied in the training situation.

(a) Principles of Learning Proposed by Goldstein

According to Goldstein (1986:80) the following are the most important learning principles:

(i) Trainee Readiness

People will not learn if they are not ready to do so. An effective training programme must comprise individuals who are ready to learn. The trainee must therefore possess the skills and

qualifications that are considered as prerequisites for the proposed training. Another aspect of readiness is whether the trainee has the desire to upgrade old skills and knowledge.

(ii) Motivation

Motivation can be viewed as behaviour that is active, purposeful and goal-directed (an inner state that activates or moves). Motivational levels can affect performance through an energising function. Training practitioners must realise that there are a variety of factors that influence motivational levels in human beings. It is therefore important to use as many motivational variables in the instructional situation as possible, in order to enhance learning.

(iii) Whole versus Part Learning

This principle refers to the size of the units practised during a training session. The learner can practice the task as a single unit or break the task into components that are practised separately. Determining the most effective manner for completing each part, provides a basis for giving specific instruction. Trainers need to consider the nature of the task to be learned, before deciding on whole or part learning.

(iv) Massed versus Spaced Practice

It is essential to determine whether the learner will gain more from as little rest as possible until the task has been learned, or from rest periods within practice sessions. Retention of learned material in the transfer process is important and space practice appears to be more effective. Massed practice, however, takes less time than spaced practice.

(v) Over learning

The intent of the over learning concept is to ensure thorough learning of the task, especially when the task is not likely to be practised often. Over learning needs to be implemented in those situations where performance needs to be maintained over longer periods without much practice.

(vi) Knowledge of Results

This variable in the learning process refers to feedback on the employee's training progress. The application of feedback requires sensitivity towards the task and the learner. The reason why knowledge of results improves performance can be ascribed to motivational and informational functions.

(vii) Retention

The application of previously learned materials indicates that the learner has been able to retain acquired skills and knowledge (the learner has not forgotten). People, however, can not remember that which was not learned and do forget over a period of time.

(viii) Meaningfulness of material and presentation

The more meaningful the learning material, the more easily it is retained. The material should be arranged so that each experience builds upon preceding ones. The trainee must be able to integrate the experiences into a useable pattern of knowledge and skills.

(b) Principles of Learning Proposed by Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk

The following are the most important learning principles identified by Gerber et al., (1995:482):

* Guidance early in the learning process.
* Reinforcement is based on the idea that behaviour is fairly easily learned and repeated if it leads to reward or satisfies a need.
* Learning by doing.
* Learning of concepts and attitudes is more difficult than learning motorised skills.
* Learning curves and plateaus - learning does not always progress at the same rate during a training programme.

* Transfer of training takes place when the learner can apply a learning activity to a new situation.
* Trainees learn best at their own pace.
* Different kinds of learning require different training processes.

(c) Principles of Learning Proposed by Mondy and Noe

The following general learning principles are proposed by Mondy and Noe (1987:261):

* Behaviour that is rewarded or reinforced is more likely to recur.
* More repetition without reinforcement is an ineffective approach to training.
* The sense of satisfaction derived from achievement is the type of reward which has the greatest transfer value to other situations.
* Learners progress in an area of learning only as far as needed in order to achieve their goals.
* Individuals are more likely to be enthusiastic about a learning situation if they have participated in the planning of the training.
* People who experienced little success and continual failure are not apt to be in the mood to learn.
* Learning from reading is aided more by time spent recalling what has been read, than by rereading itself.
* Individuals recall new information that confirms their previous attitudes better than those that do not confirm previous attitudes.
* The best time to learn is when learning can be useful - motivation is then at its peak.
* The best way to help people form a general concept is to present an idea in numerous and varied situations.

In analysing the literature on learning principles (also see Halloran 1986; King 1968 and Mumford 1993) it appears that most researchers concur that the training practitioner must have an understanding of basic learning principles. These researchers all highlight the most common learning principles that should be incorporated into training programmes. The meaningful

application of these learning principles is essential if the trainer wishes to be effective in the learning situation. The next section highlights the important features of a learning culture and management actions that supports transfer of training.

2.6.3 Key Features of a Learning Culture

Human (1991:199) alleges that the presence of a learning culture in an organisation is not indicated by the size of its training budget. A learning culture is woven into the value and belief system of the organisation's members. This notion is also maintained by Kirkpatrick (1983:34) who indicates that learning is a process of change over time. For learning to take place, a change in values and attitudes is sometimes necessary. Table 2.7 sets out to examine the most important key features of a learning culture.

Table 2.7: Key Features of a Learning Culture

NO.	KEY FEATURE
1.	Change is not seen as a threat, but rather as an opportunity for learning and development.
2.	People at all levels understand the need for lifelong learning and develop the capacity to become lifelong learners.
3.	People acquire new knowledge and learn new skills without necessarily attending formal training courses (for example by learning from peers).
4.	Any person well-placed to give training, do so (for example an operator who learned how to fix something because he needed to).
5.	Blockages to learning in the organisation are identified and removed.
6.	Trainees change their roles from course-runners to facilitators of learning.
7.	Managers play an effective role as change agents in creating a productive learning culture.

Source: Adapted from Human (1991:199)

It is therefore important that managers and trainers create a learning culture within the organisation. These managers, trainers and learners play significant and responsible roles which may be different from the roles they currently play. Support from all stakeholders in the organisation is necessary when creating a learning culture that is essential if the benefits of training programmes are to be maximised. In this way, learning in the workplace can be implemented in a direct and practical manner.

What can management do to ensure that effective learning takes place? This question is answered in the subsequent section.

2.6.4 Learning and Training: Managerial Implications

One of the key roles of a manager is that of a trainer or coach, which places the manager in a powerful and critical position in terms of the learning process. Broad (1982:124) professes that the desired results of training are generally achieved in those organisations in which management demonstrates support for the transfer of training.

Human (1991:204) highlights the following actions of managers that can instill a learning culture:

* Ensure that staff members understand that everyone has a responsibility to help others to learn.
* Appreciate new ideas and suggestions, assess and implement if beneficial.
* Value people for contributions and do not discriminate.
* Listen to and learn from subordinates at lower levels in the organisation.
* Set and agree on clear performance standards.
* Provide people with frequent, constructive and practical feedback.
* Treat mistakes as opportunities for learning.

* Discuss learning obstacles openly with staff members.
* Explain the application of new learning activities to the work situation.

Table 2.8 highlights further important management actions that support transfer of training to the job situation.

Table 2.8: Management Actions to Support Transfer of Learning and Training

NO.	TOP MANAGEMENT INVOLVEMENT: ACTIONS
1.	Allocate appropriate personnel to a training design committee.
2.	Participate in previews of a training programme.
3.	Prepare in advance by briefing managers on training programmes.
4.	Issue statements on new performance levels expected, following the training exercise.
5.	Require attendance at training for certain groups of employees.
6.	Authorise release time or change work hours to facilitate training.
7.	Provide appropriate physical facilities for training.
8.	Notify the employee in writing of selection for training.
9.	Participate in one or more training sessions.
10.	Meet with trainees to discuss ways to apply new behaviours.
11.	Give preference to trainees for promotion, following training.

NO.	PREPARATION FOR TRAINING: ACTIONS
1.	Actively participate in assessment of training needs, development of instructional objectives, design of training programmes and selection of instructors.
2.	Select trainees on the basis of training plans for each employee.
3.	Contribute to development of selection criteria for training.
4.	Discuss training plans with union officials.
5.	Confer with employees on reasons for selection of trainees.
6.	Allow involvement by trainees in the planning of training programmes.
7.	Arrange to have trainees' work covered during the training programme.
8.	Review instructional material for technical accuracy.
9.	Assure attendance by trainees at all training sessions.
10.	Allow trainees preparation time before training.
11.	Assist trainees with regard to training assignments.
12.	Authorise the cost of training.

Source: Adapted from Broad (1982:126)

The abovementioned support actions can be used as guidelines to indicate the role and responsibilities of trainers and managers in supporting the transfer of learning and training. In playing a more active role, management can increase the impact of training and improve the image of the training function in organisations.

The strategic nature of training management are outlined in the following section.

2.7 STRATEGIC TRAINING MANAGEMENT IN AN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

Rothwell and Kazanas (1988:307) criticise the traditional approach to training in which the future is ignored and the main focus is only on past performance, data and competencies. To reorientate

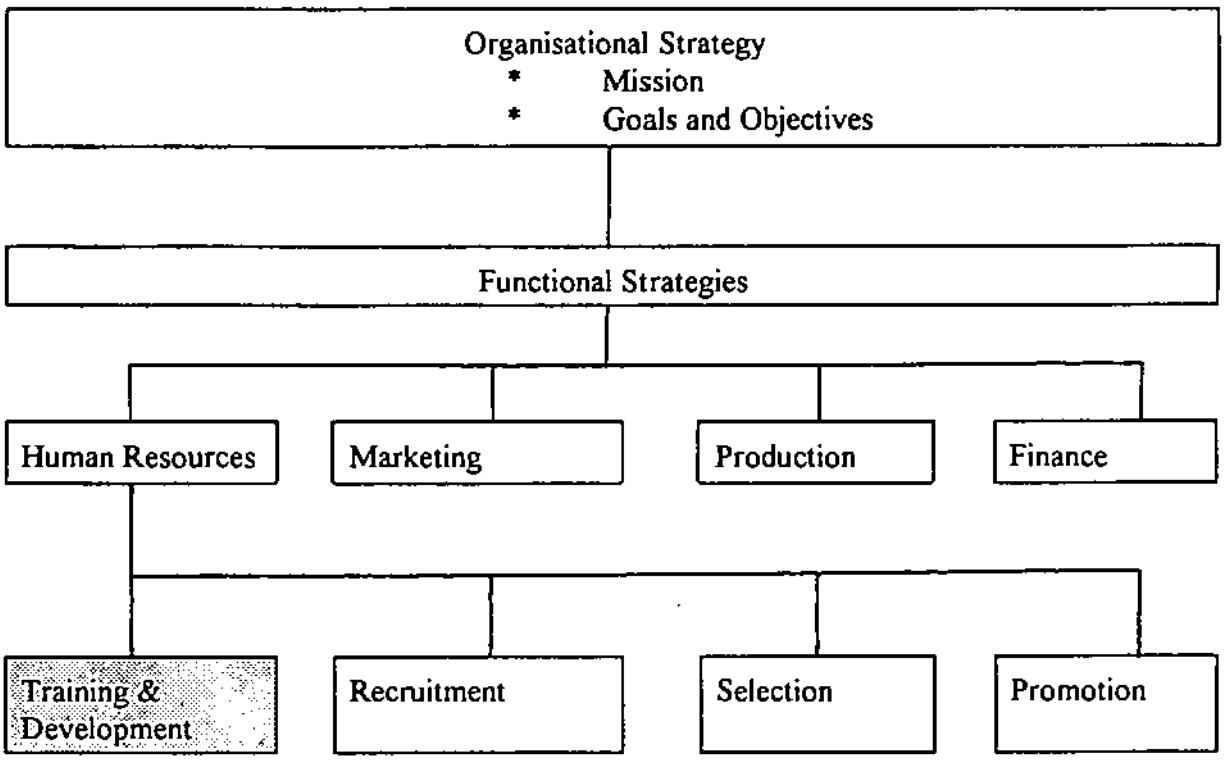
training to a strategic approach (which is consistent with human resources' grand strategy), training practitioners must become familiar with the organisation's strategic plans.

Rue and Holland (1986:5) define strategic management as "those top management activities which determine the long-run direction and performance of the organisation, by ensuring that careful formulation, proper implementation and continuous evaluation of the strategy take place." Weeks (1988:28) concurs that the strategic management process optimally positions the organisation in the competitive environment, to ensure both the survival and growth of the organisation.

The need to integrate human resources planning (and therefore training as well) into the organisation's strategic planning process has been advocated by several authors (see for example Buckley & Caple 1992; Erasmus & Van Dyk 1996 and McMahon & Carter 1990). Camp et al., (1986:325) contend that the success of training efforts is experienced if training is not only managed professionally, but also linked to the organisation's mission and goals.

Strategic human resources' development is geared to implement the human resources' strategy of the organisation, by improving the knowledge and skills of employees - hence the need to view training in a strategic management context. Figure 2.4 illustrates the position of training in relationship to the organisation's and human resource's management strategy.

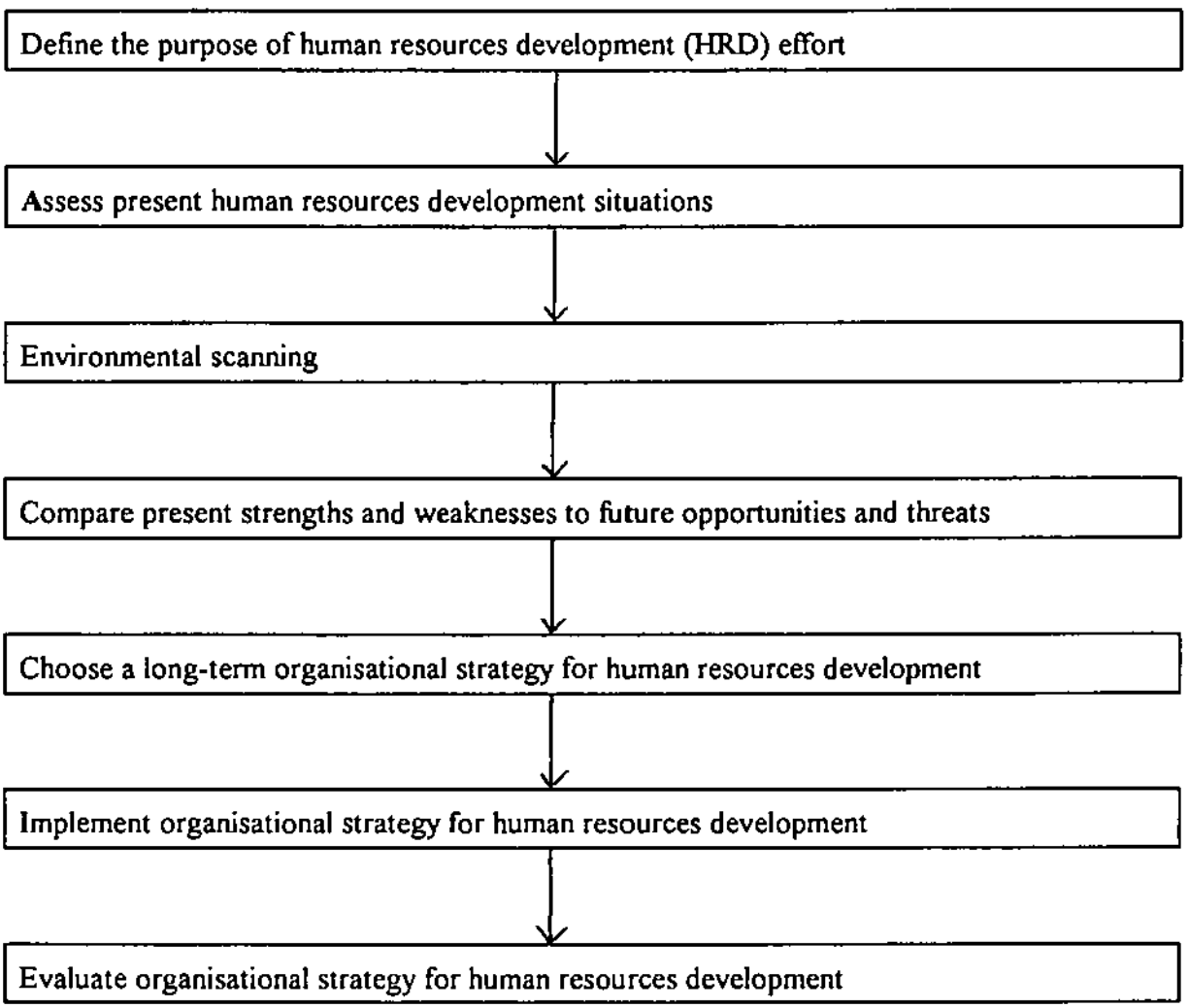
Figure 2.4: The Relationship Between Organisational, Human Resources Management and Human Resources Development Strategy



The training and development strategy of the organisation (which forms part of the human resources strategy) must purposefully be linked to the organisation's overall strategy, mission, goals and objectives.

Figure 2.5 depicts a simplified model of strategic human resources' development. Van Dyk et al., (1997:181) believe that the human resources' development strategy must be aligned with the overall corporate strategy. The human resources' development strategy is seen as an enabling strategy, which empowers management and subordinates through training, education and development to pursue organisational goals.

Figure 2.5: A Simplified Model of the Strategic Human Resources Development Process



Source: Adapted from Rothwell and Kazanas (1988:19)

According to Rothwell and Kazanas (1988:296), training has several strategic roles in the implementation of a human resources strategy. It is a potential tool for creating a supply of talent within the organisation. Training also serves as a tool for equipping individuals with knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to implement the organisation's strategy. A further strategic role of training is that it stimulates conditions which may be experienced as the organisation implements a new strategy in a changing environment. Training also provides individuals with the necessary skills to think strategically.

It should be clear that training is a powerful tool in the implementation of a human resources strategy. Gerber et al., (1995:590) emphasise the following main strategic benefits of integrating strategic planning and human resources management:

* Improved understanding of the implications of strategic organisational planning for human resources.
* Pro active recruitment of required and experienced human resources.
* Improved human resources development activities.
* Improved analysis and control of costs related to human resources.

This section focussed on strategic training and development. It emphasised that training should be incorporated into the corporate structure of the organisation and linked it to the overall strategy of the organisation. It should be noted that the training model developed in Chapter 3 should also be viewed and analysed from a strategic approach.

2.8 CONCLUSION

Although Baird et al., (1983:4) argue that training has not always received adequate attention in the human resources function, from what has been said in this chapter it should be clear that training constitutes one of the most significant functions of human resources management.

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a brief overview of training. Various aspects related to training were analysed in an organisational context. The historical development of training revealed its roots dating back more than 6000 years. Various developments highlight the existence of the training profession. The most important trends and issues in the field of training were also discussed. Training trends by Mannning (1989:16-17), reasons for increased training expenditure, a scenario for management development status and competences and modern approaches (fragmented, formalised and focussed) towards training are among topics which were discussed.

The next section in this chapter provided a brief overview of relevant statutory institutions and legislation involved with training. The total body of legislative matter dealing with training appears to be wide. The Department of Labour, National Training Board, National Economic Development and Labour Council and the Manpower Training Act were discussed as the most important statutory institutions and legislation pertaining to training. It was stated that there are numerous potential benefits to be gained from effective training programmes. Training should not be regarded as a luxury, but seen as a necessity. A checklist of reasons for training was also identified.

It appears that most training management literature includes aspects of learning theories and principles. Three main learning theories were highlighted: behavioural, cognitive and shaping. Training programmes should promote efficient learning and long-term retention by incorporating principles of learning. Learning principles proposed by Goldstein (1986:80), Gerber et al., (1995:482) and Mondy and Noe (1987:261) were discussed. It was further stressed that a learning culture should be woven into the value and belief system of organisational members. Key features of a learning culture were identified as well as management actions that support transfer of training.

The last section of this chapter outlined the strategic nature of training management. It was advocated that training and development should be incorporated into the organisation's strategic planning process. The human resources development strategy must be aligned with the overall corporate strategy. From all that was said, it should be clear that "the desire to remain in step with economic and technical change and competitiveness in the marketplace, has turned training into paramount issues for employers and employees" (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1996:1). Employers are increasingly recognising the need for continual development of knowledge and skills of the workforce as essential to organisational success - hence the need for training.

Chapter 3 provides an exposition of a systems model of the training process.

CHAPTER 3

THE TRAINING PROCESS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with a brief overview of various aspects related to training. The main aim of this chapter is to provide a practical, hands-on approach to training. The actual training process is depicted in a model. Van Dyk et al., (1997:239) argue that the designer of training programmes has a variety of conceptual models which can be explored in the development of training programmes. Buckley and Caple (1992:26) contend that the trainer needs to adopt a wider, macro perspective, which includes training as an integral part of the organisation's system.

The primary goal of training is to contribute to the organisations' overall goals. Training programmes should be developed focussing on the strategies of the organisation (Sherman et al., 1996:233). A comprehensive training model will be developed from this perspective, illustrating the training process.

For the purpose of this study, various training models (refer to Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & Van der Schyf 1998; Ivancevich & Glueck 1983; McMahon & Carter 1990 and Quick 1991) were studied and analysed. Based on this analysis, a comprehensive training model will be developed. The first section of this chapter will analyse and justify the need for a systems model of the training process. Each phase of the training process will be discussed in detail.

This chapter should also be viewed in terms of the main objective of the study: *the facilitating role of training in organisational transformation.* The training process can be regarded as the tool or vehicle to bring about the transformation or change in the organisation.

3.2 A SYSTEMS MODEL OF THE TRAINING PROCESS

Cascio (1992:235) asserts that it is useful to portray the phases of the training process graphically, in the form of a model which illustrates the interaction among the phases. Nadler (1982:4) concurs that a model serves as a road map or the planning process for the training designer. A well-developed model can assist the user to understand what is actually a complicated process and represents reality in a simplified and comprehensible form.

According to Carrell et al., (1995:404), the actual process of training people is only a small part of the training process and involves considerable effort, both before and after the trainer and trainees are brought together. Training is therefore best described as a complex system which involves a number of distinct and interrelated phases. Buckley and Caple (1992:29) also hold the view that the systems approach is widely used to describe how trainers apply themselves to the training function.

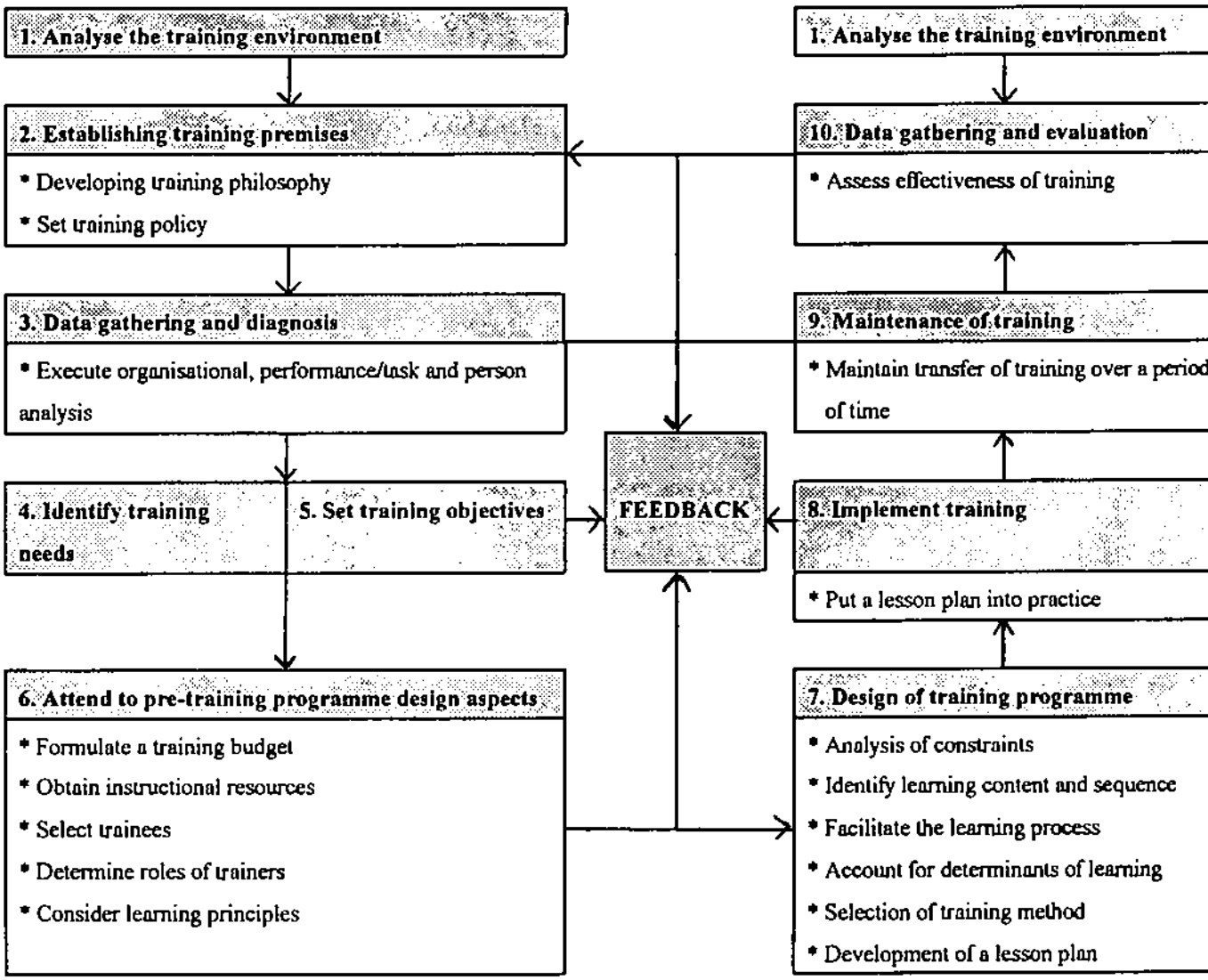
In analysing the literature on the systems approach (see for example Kroon 1986; Marx, Reynders & Van Rooyen 1995 and Mondy, Sharplin ,Holmes & Flippo 1986), it appears that it is a topic well-covered in the literature. The systems approach is the viewing of an organisation, entity or activity as an arrangement of interrelated parts that interact in ways that can be specified or predicted. Although there are various advantages linked to the use of a systems approach, the following will serve as motivation for the use of a systems approach in this study:

* It assists the researcher in identifying and explaining the most important elements of a phenomena, as well as the interdependence among the elements.
* It emphasises the importance of perspective - one single element or problem should not be viewed without regard for its interacting consequences with other elements.
* It emphasises the role of variables within a given situation as determinants of effective decision-making (Dorfling, 1989:21).

Van Dyk et al., (1997:237) postulate that the systems approach, as applied to the training and learning situation, was originally introduced in training programmes in the American armed forces. As military weapon systems became more complex, there was a need for the armed forces to find new procedures for developing and presenting training. These models contained certain basic components or elements: "defining needs; stating instructional objectives; developing, implementing and evaluating the instructions", which were designed as an integrated whole.

Most training models (see for example Dessler 1981; Stewart 1993 and Zaccarelli 1992) depict the training process as consisting of three basic steps: assessment, training and development and an evaluation phase. These three steps are used as the foundation or framework within which the comprehensive training model is developed (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: A Systems Training Approach

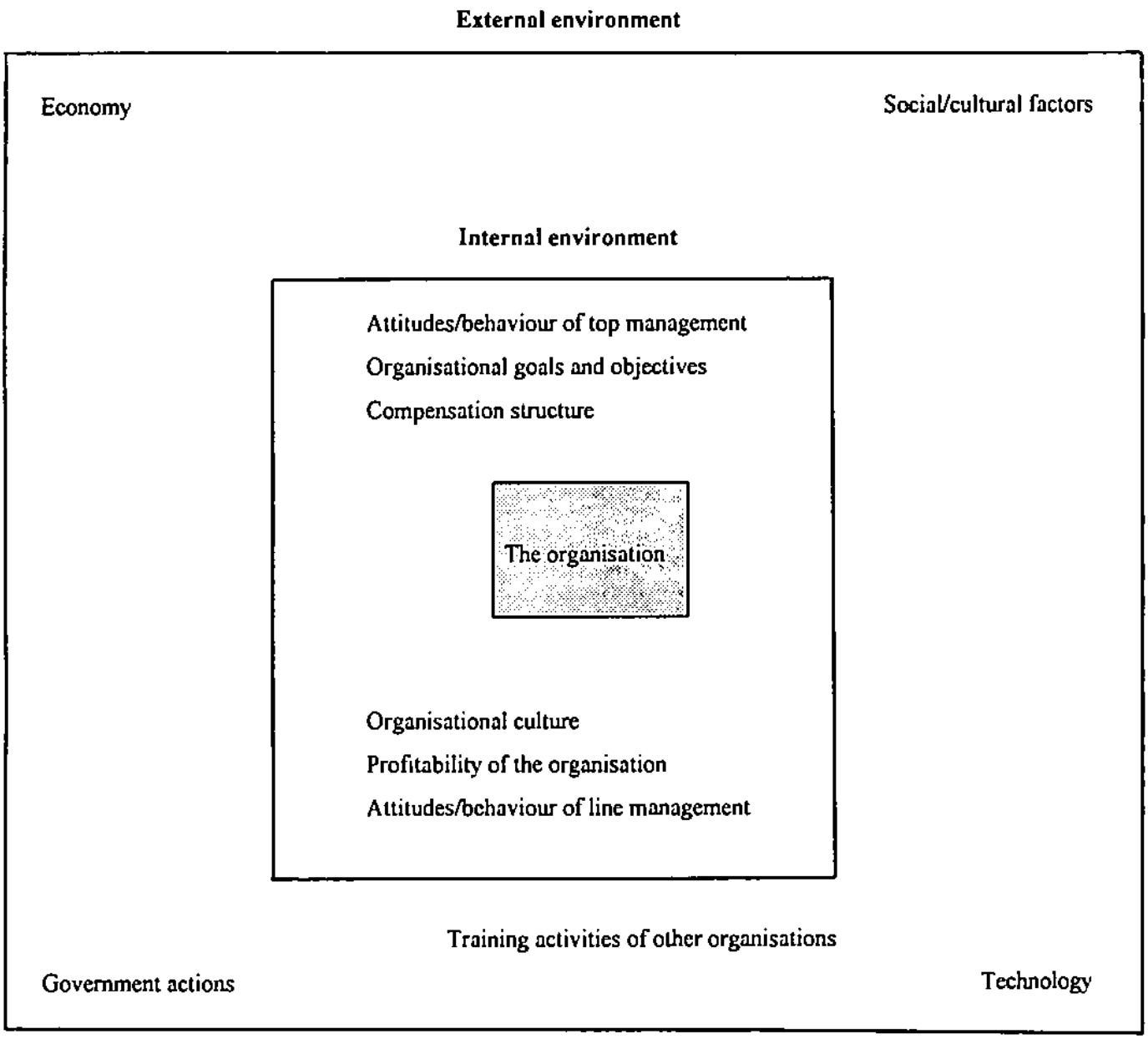


3.3 ANALYSING THE TRAINING ENVIRONMENT

According to the systems approach, a system functions within an environment with which it interacts. These environmental elements can be grouped into two categories: internal and external environment.

Figure 3.2 depicts the most important environmental factors of the training environment. There may be some other factors, less important in scope and influence, which fall beyond the scope of this study.

Figure 3.2: The Training Environment



The environmental factors which influence the organisation and its training activities will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

3.3.1 Attitudes and Behaviour of Top Management

Top management's commitment to the development and implementation of effective training programmes is of vital importance in that it can influence the general attitude towards training in the organisation. Top management also plays an important role in the allocation of resources (financial, human and physical) (Human, 1991:111).

3.3.2 Attitudes and Behaviour of Line Managers

According to Bateman and Zeitmahl (1993:304), line managers are ultimately responsible for making major operating decisions. In most cases, line managers are also responsible for and involved in training of subordinates and play a major role in motivating subordinates to learn. The roles played by line managers in the training activity must never be underestimated (Adonisi, 1991:30).

3.3.3 Compensation Structure

Compensation can provide a source of motivation for employees to perform effectively and can therefore stimulate behaviour adaptation in the work environment (Beach, 1980:557). The role of money, as a motivator, is still a debatable issue, which will not be discussed in this study. One can assume that the nature of an organisation's compensation structure will, to a certain extent, play a role in behaviour adaptation.

3.3.4 Organisational Culture

Kreitner (1989:550) views organisational culture as the collection of shared beliefs, values, rituals, stories, myths and specialised language that fosters a feeling of community among organisational members. Drennan (1992:3) concurs by saying that culture refers to "how things are done around here; what is typical of the organisation?" One can deduct from these notions that the values, norms and beliefs of organisational members can have a direct influence on the training system of the organisation.

3.3.5 Profitability of the Organisation

Collins (1992:41) emphasises that it is difficult to show the value of training when the focus is on short-term results, rather than on the long-term needs of the organisation. Although the profitability of the organisation can have an influence on the financial resources available for training, it should be borne in mind that the benefits of training are only noticeable after the expense of the implementation has been incurred.

3.3.6 Objectives and Goals of the Organisation

The goals and objectives of the organisation provide direction for the activities of a group or an organisation (Massie, 1987:38). The organisations' goals and objectives are central to the development and implementation of training programmes. All activities within the training department should be focussed on these goals and objectives.

3.3.7 Economy

During times of prosperity, organisations will expand their workforce and seek out new markets. Recessionary periods, however, mean cutbacks in personnel or the closing of a plant. All management decisions and organisational activities must reflect the economic realities of the time (Boone & Kurtz, 1992:55). General economic conditions can therefore have a direct impact on the availability of financial resources for training and the demand for training.

3.3.8 Government Action

Bedeian (1986:73) argues that effective managers must take note of the political and legal factors that can have an impact on a particular situation. Various legal considerations such as the taxation system, laws with regard to the training system and affirmative action policies can have an influence on the training function (refer to Section 2.4).

3.3.9 Training Activities of Other Organisations

The training provided by other organisations can influence the availability of and demand for competent managers (Dorfling, 1989:39). Organisations should scan and observe one another, regarding training practices, standards and new developments, in order to deliver quality and appropriate training.

3.3.10 Social/Cultural Factors

According to Koontz and Weihrich (1988:604), these factors are made up of the "attitudes, desires, expectations, degrees of intelligence and education, beliefs and customs of people in a given group or society." These aspects can have a direct influence on the selection of learners and on the design and presentation of the training programme (National Manpower Commission, 1982:200).

3.3.11 Technology

Technology can be thought of as a tool applied to operations by people and organisations to get things done more efficiently. Changing technology affects the processes used to manufacture products and, therefore, the ability of an organisation to meet its current and potential customer base. Organisations need to track these changes and to assess their effect on the organisation (Baird, Post & Mahon, 1990:163). Any changes in technology will have a direct influence on the need for training in the organisation.

Due to the fact that the training process in this study is being viewed as a system, it should be emphasised that this process takes place within the training environment. As indicated in Figure 3.1, the training process is encompassed by the environment. In having a clearer picture of the environment within which training takes place, the actual training process will be analysed in the subsequent paragraphs.

3.4 ESTABLISHING TRAINING PREMISES

The premises discussed below should be seen by managers and training practitioners as a foundation for the design and implementation of a training programme. It provides the framework within which

the training task is executed. These training premises entail the development of a training philosophy and the setting of a training policy for the organisation.

3.4.1 Developing a Training Philosophy

Straughan and Wilson (1983:3) regard a philosophy as a "form of thought you see; it is a method of argument you adopt." It provides a view or perception of life with regard to a matter or subject. An organisation's philosophy on training and development reflects the value which management attaches to the human resources development of the organisation. It forms an integral part of the culture of an organisation. Those responsible for training and development should therefore establish and clearly communicate a training philosophy for human resources.

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:44) view a training philosophy as management's attitude or perception of the importance of its human resources potential in the organisation. Van Dyk et al., (1997:161) assert that the following assumptions could serve as a basis for a training and development philosophy in the South African context:

* An employee should not be employed and trained in order to acquire skills and experience and then leave the organisation.
* An employee must be selected for training, based on the belief that he or she will become a lifelong member.
* An employee is an asset which appreciates in value.
* An organisation has a social responsibility to invest in employees by means of training.

It should be clear that every organisation should have a training philosophy which states its' intent in utilising its' human resources potential, and should regard this as the starting point in the training process. It appears, however, that this is the most neglected aspect of training management. An organisation's training philosophy is manifested through its training policy.

3.4.2 Setting a Training Policy

Once an organisation has adopted a training philosophy, it can set a training policy. Griffin (1993:162) defines a policy as a "general guide for action. It specifies the organisation's general response to a designated problem or situation." Dubrin (1990:85) concurs that a policy helps to maintain a consistent approach in the organisation and ensures that top management's philosophy is put into effect.

According to Reid, Barrington and Kenney (1992:207), organisations develop training policies for four main reasons:

* To indicate the relationship between the organisation's objectives and it's commitment to the training function.
* To provide operational guidelines for management.
* To provide employees with information regarding issues such as expected performance standards, opportunities for training and development and payment of fees for external courses.
* To enhance public relations by attracting high calibre recruits and to sponsor social training programmes.

A training policy is therefore not merely developed in order to have a policy statement down on paper, but to direct the priorities, standards and scope of the training function in the organisation. In developing a training policy, various aspects should be taken into consideration. The following aspects should be covered in a policy for training, but the list should not be seen as exhaustive:

* Training for occupational competence
* Training for change
* Induction training

* Health and safety training
* Formal training schemes
* Training for people who become incapacitated
* An equal opportunity statement
* The aims and objectives of the training function
* Responsibility for identifying training needs and formulating plans
* Responsibility for deciding on the training budget (Truelove, 1995:237)

In covering these topics in it's training policy, the organisation can ensure that it provides a guideline for the conduct of affairs with regard to training. Table 3.1 highlights some broad policy options of a strategic nature, which reflect the training aspect of the human resources development policy environment in which contemporary organisations operate. It provides an outline of possible training policy options for South Africa.

Table 3.1: Possible Training Policy Options for South Africa

POLICY OPTION	DESCRIPTION
1	Align human resources development policies with economic and social development policies.
2	Introduce measures to turn around the current enrollment ratios of universities to career institutions.
3	Establish strategic partnerships between the state and organisations that are based on trust, co-determination and sharing of responsibilities.
4	Institute a world-class education system that will instill a culture of learning and respond to the needs of the economy.
5	Revitalise the current vocational education and training system.
6	Target the informal sector as an area of intervention by using training as an instrument to transfer knowledge, skills and attitudes.
7	Training provided to the unemployed should form an integral part of active labour market policies.

Source: Adapted from Van Dyk et al.,(1997:27)

Managers and training practitioners must therefore ensure that the training policy of the organisation is in alignment with these broad and general policy options mentioned in Table 3.1.

From what has been discussed with regard to training policies, it should be clear that the setting of a training policy is of vital importance to organisations that wish to implement successful training. Only when there is a thorough understanding of the function of training throughout the organisation, can training play a full and effective role. Training activities should not be viewed as a separate

specialised function, but rather as an integral component of management action. All sections of the organisation should be given the opportunity to review activities in the context of a training policy.

To conclude this section, King (1968:146) summarises the fundamental importance of a training policy as follows:

* The function of training can clearly be perceived in relation to other activities.
* It allocates responsibilities for training correctly, therefore minimising interdepartmental conflict.
* Training is carried out within an agreed organisational framework, rather than on a personal level, thus reducing personal misunderstandings.
* It helps to assess the effectiveness of training in relation to the organisation's objectives.

Once the training premises (philosophy and policy) have been established and developed, the diagnosis phase (gathering of data) can be executed.

3.5 DATA GATHERING AND DIAGNOSIS

The establishment of the training premises provide the framework within which data can be gathered in order to diagnose the training needs of the organisation.

3.5.1 Identify Organisational Training Needs

Gordon (1994:110) and Sherman et al., (1996:235) refer to this aspect as an organisational analysis which entails an examination of the goals, resources and environment of the organisation to determine where training emphasis should be placed. The logical point of focus during the training process

should be the goals of the organisation. The question should be asked how the intended training could facilitate the realisation of organisational goals?

A further aspect that should be considered are the resources of the organisation (technological, financial and human) that are available to meet organisational objectives. The demands of the training programme in terms of required resources should be thoroughly analysed. An examination of the organisation's environment is also an important element of organisational analysis. All factors in the organisational environment, both internal and external, need to be considered. This aspect is highlighted in Section 3.3.

Bell (1977:5) maintains that accurate organisational needs assessment provides assurance regarding the appropriateness of a training response and a review of the organisational environment. Effective organisational needs-diagnosis and sensitivity to environmental realities are important tools in precipitating a training programme. Once the needs of the organisation have been diagnosed, a knowledge, skills and attitude analysis should be executed.

3.5.2 Performance of a Task Analysis

Task analysis is a complete assessment of the tasks or potential tasks to be performed by an employee as part of the job or duties under analysis (Gordon, 1994:63). Designing a specific training programme requires an organisation to review the job description that indicates the activities performed in a particular job. Through a task analysis, the organisation determines what the content of the training programme should be. The emphasis is shifted from what is currently required to what will be required in the future for an employee to be effective in a certain job.

The first step in a task analysis is to identify all the tasks or duties included in the job. The next step is to list the steps performed by the employee to complete each task. With a clearer picture

of the actual job, the type of performance, along with skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for job performance, can be identified.

3.5.3 Execute a Knowledge, Skills and Attitude Analysis

According to Sherman et al., (1996:236), once the organisational and task analyses have been executed, it is necessary to perform a person analysis. This involves determining whether task performances by individual employees are acceptable. It is important to determine what prospective trainees can and can not do, so that the training programme can be designed to emphasise the areas of deficiency. A person analysis therefore entails the determination of the specific skills, knowledge and attitudes required of people on the job.

Levitt (1991:16) stresses the importance of having the requisite type and number of knowledgeable employees to do what must be done and to have an organisation in which employees will thrive and want to remain. Gordon (1994:37) refers to knowledge as the "mental factors, rules, procedure, skills and strategies one relies upon in performing a task." Clark (1991:1) concurs that any type of learning or approach to training, needs to consider aspects of knowledge (referring to information, theory and understanding).

A skill is the ability to do things, to effectively apply knowledge and personal aptitudes and attitudes in the work situation (Miner, 1985:523). Analysing the skills needed in the workplace form an important part of a person analysis. Training needs to address those areas in which employees lack certain skills.

According to Bowditch and Buono (1994:119), an attitude refers to a "predisposition to respond to a stimulus (an event, place, thing or another person) in a positive or negative way." In any organisational situation, a person's attitude is an important determinant of performance-related

behaviour. Managers are often faced with the challenge of changing someone's attitude, which can be facilitated by training.

During the data gathering or diagnostic phase of the training process, it is therefore important to analyse the organisation, the task and the person/employee. This analysis can provide valuable information for determining the training needs of the organisation. Table 3.2 depicts the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to deal effectively with challengers and change. These are the major areas in a person analysis which can identify areas in which training is lacking.

Table 3.2: Areas of a Person Analysis

AREA	TOPICS	TOPICS
KNOWLEDGE	Grounding in business	Political awareness
	Different cultures	Micro/macro economics
	Financial management	Technical knowledge
SKILLS	People	Financial management
	Negotiating	Analytical
	Human relations	Technical
	Marketing	Industrial relations
	Strategic planning	
ATTITUDES	Willingness to change	Open-mindedness
	Innovativeness	Entrepreneurial spirit
	Vision	Social responsibility
	Optimism	

Source: Adapted from Human (1991:299)

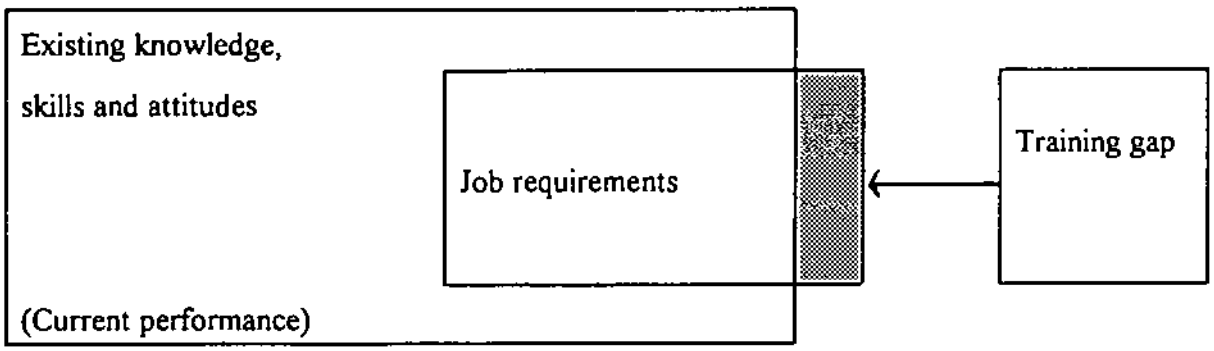
The areas of a person analysis should not be seen as exhausted, but as merely indicating important areas on which training programmes can focus, especially with regard to change. The next section will focus on identifying training needs.

3.6 IDENTIFYING TRAINING NEEDS

Most researchers (see for example Glueck 1982; Govender 1994; Mitchell 1984 and Wessman 1975) concur that there is no shortage of training and development courses for managers. Many of these programmes are, however, too general and abstract, without a professionally designed and executed diagnosis of the organisation's real needs. Training programmes often get started in organisations simply because the programme was well advertised and marketed. Organisations need to critically and systematically determine training needs in order to use training interventions only where needed for the people and the situation.

Kubr and Prokopenko (1991:9) view the purpose of needs diagnosis and assessment as a tool to ascertain what training is actually needed. According to Truelove (1995:50), analysis of organisational needs is a process of taking an overview of the performance of the organisation. However, training needs eventually have to be dealt with at an individual level to ascertain if the person's performance is satisfactory. Figure 3.3 illustrates the training gap that may exist in an organisation.

Figure 3:3 Identifying the Training Gap



Source: Truelove (1995:51)

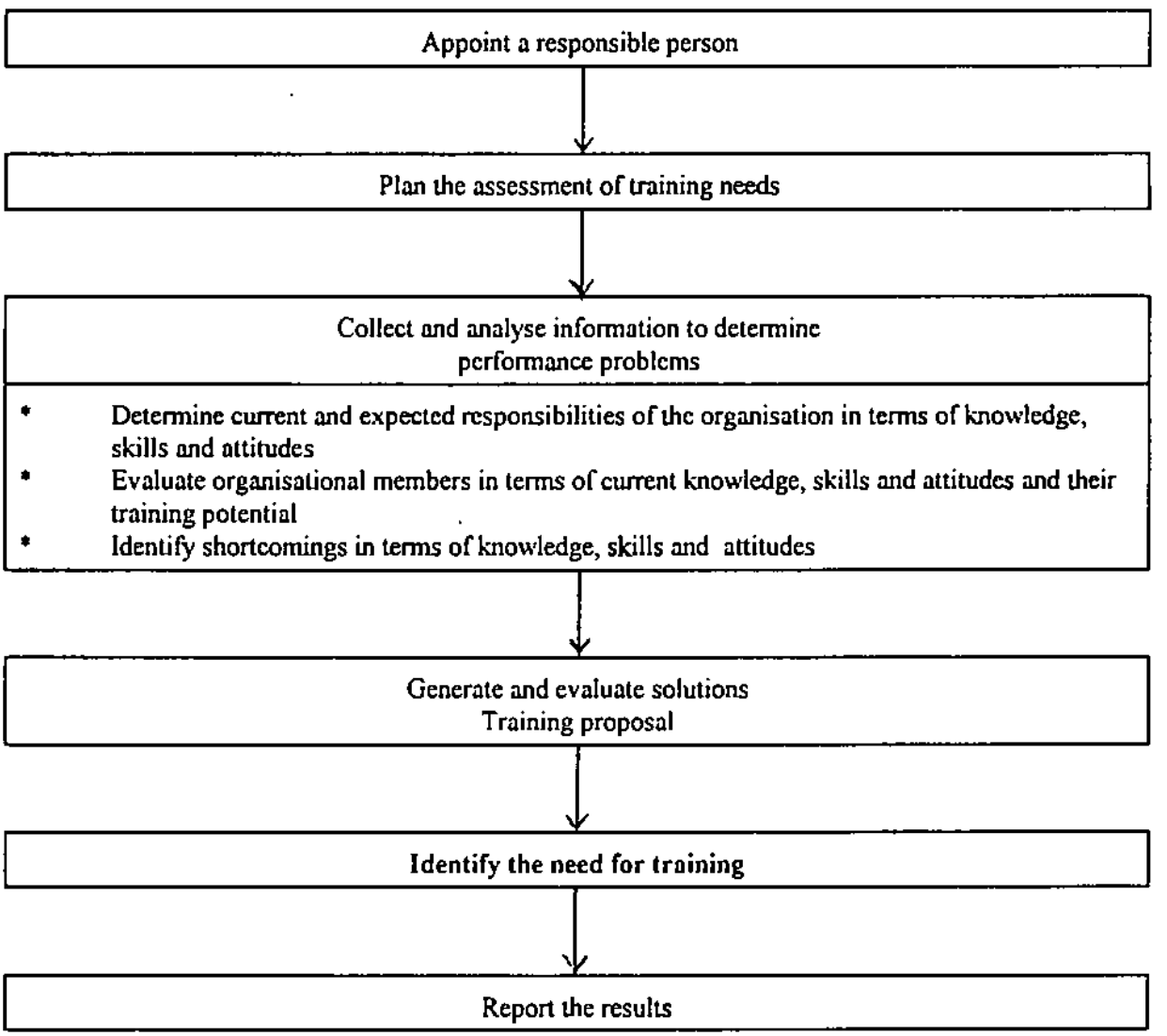
A training gap exists when performance deficiency is due to a lack of knowledge, skills and attitudes (refer to the previously discussed person analysis). Stewart (1993:81) also highlights the importance of assessing needs and its necessity for successful training. According to Buitendach (1982:7), the training needs analysis process serves the following functions:

* Determines what should be taught - what is the trainee's learning needs?
* Creates a need for learning - how can the trainee benefit? It creates in the trainee a need for learning.
* Determines evaluation criteria - a sound training needs analysis exercise will establish criteria for evaluating learning. It will define the knowledge, skills, attitudes and qualities which are to be learned in the training programme.
* Avoids some common dangers - training skills and knowledge that are already known or that have no relevance in the work situation.

Establishing training needs can be illustrated by means of a process. Van Dyk et al., (1997:254) refer to this activity as an ongoing process and strongly recommend a strategy or plan of action for

establishing training needs. The training needs assessment process is depicted in Figure 3.4. It provides a framework for determining training needs.

Figure 3.4: Identify Training Needs



The steps in identifying training needs, as indicated in Figure 3.4, will be highlighted briefly in the subsequent paragraphs.

3.6.1 Appoint a Responsible Person

Carrying out the training needs assessment process requires the commitment of resources. Truelove (1995:53) advocates that in order to have access to people and information, the training needs assessment process must be led by a high-powered and well-recognised source of authority. It is, however, not necessary for this person to be the trainer. Large organisations may set up a project team to carry out the training needs assessment process. The outcome of this stage should be the appointment of a person responsible for identifying training needs.

3.6.2 Plan the Assessment of Training Needs

An overall projected timetable for the needs assessment process should be established. Other aspects that need to be planned are:

* What approach or methods should be used?
* Who must be assessed?
* What records or data will be helpful?
* What information is required about outside influences on the organisation?

The outcome of the planning phase is an action plan, with an agreed timescale, of who will do what (Truelove, 1995:55).

3.6.3 Collect and Analyse Information to Determine Performance Problems

According to Baird et al., (1983:40), the purpose of the data collection phase is to appraise the situation and to identify specific training needs. A starting point would be to determine the current and expected demand of the organisation in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Once the

organisation's needs have been determined, organisational members can be judged in terms of their training potential and shortcomings. If the organisation demands certain knowledge, skills and attitudes and organisational members do not comply with those standards, a training need exists (Dorfling, 1989:51).

3.6.4 Generate and Evaluate Solutions

During this phase actions for eliminating shortcomings should be considered. Generating possible solutions appropriate to problems, require changing the environment, incentives, motivation or reducing the need for or training for knowledge, skills and attitudes. Training is only appropriate if the cause of the problem is a lack of knowledge, skills and inappropriate attitudes. The end result should be to provide an analysis of how the training, which provides and outlines how the training implications are identified, will be developed into viable training interventions. This training proposal should include aspects like: who should be trained, what to train, forms of training, timescale and responsibility (Truelove, 1995:63-66).

3.6.5 Identify and Prioritise Training Needs

This is a direct result of the previous two steps. The need for training is represented by the shortcomings in knowledge, skills and attitudes, for which training was considered the best solution. The training needs must then be prioritised in order of preference.

3.6.6 Report the Results

The results of the training needs assessment process must be reported in written form or by an oral presentation. Through this, senior management's agreement and commitment can be obtained and changes can be made before implementation.

It thus appears that the process of needs assessment is comprehensive and problem-focussed. The framework provided addresses the complex problem of determining training needs. Conducting an analysis of training needs will assist in developing resources in the design and development of training.

The last aspect to be discussed with regard to identifying training needs, are the methods or techniques that can be used for the purpose of identifying training needs. Many sources or methods exist that can assist in determining training needs. In this section the most common methods are highlighted.

(a) Analysis of Organisational Performance

According to Dorfling (1989:76), information should be gathered and analysed with regard to the activities, inputs, outputs, efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation. This can be based on the profitability of the organisation, productivity, labour turnover and absenteeism.

(b) Assessment Centres

The assessment centre technique is a formal approach to evaluating the abilities and potential of managers and employees. Participants engage in a variety of tasks, such as in-basket exercises, decision-making simulations, case analysis and group discussions. Trained observers assess a candidate's behaviour and prepare a formal report, dealing with the person's perceived promotability and suggestions for further development (Cureton, Newton & Tesolowski, 1986:107).

(c) Job Training Analysis

Reid et al., (1992:231) advocate that the use of a job analysis is not confined to the purposes associated with training and therefore use the term " job training analysis." This process of examining a job gives rise to certain documents, of which one is a training specification. This is a detailed statement of what a trainee needs to learn, based on a comparison between the job specification and the individual's present level of competence.

(d) Observation

Many training problems become apparent by systematic and careful observation of the workplace, for example, by observing a management meeting or a manager dealing with individual employees. These observed deficiencies may be rectified by training (Marx, 1986:148).

(e) Career Planning

According to Kubr and Prokopenko (1991:128), career planning "aims at matching individual potential for promotion and individual aspirations with organisational needs and opportunities." An individual career plan indicates a career path that is both feasible and desirable for the individual and the organisation. Through career planning, it could be established what training would be necessary for advancing in a career or to alter a career path. The career planning process therefore makes it possible to define real needs and to reflect the commitment of the individual concerned and the organisation. The basic aim is to establish future training needs.

(f) Performance Evaluation

Performance evaluation can be described as any personnel decision that affects the status of employees regarding their retention, termination, promotion, transfer or admission into a training programme (Glueck, 1982:368). Performance evaluations assist in identifying where specific training

is needed and available and can be executed by means of a variety of tools/techniques (the discussion of these tools falls beyond the scope of this study).

(g) Advisory Committees

Cureton et al., (1986:107) postulates that some organisations establish committees to identify training needs and to determine whether the problem could be solved via training. The purpose of these committees is to provide advice only and not to make any binding decisions.

(h) Critical Incidents

This method involves human resource specialists and operating managers who observe actions that are critical to the successful performance of the job. It contains a list of statements of very effective and very ineffective behaviour of an employee (critical incidents). Unsuccessful or ineffective performance of the job should be an indication of the need for training (Camp et al., 1986:49).

(i) Management by Objectives

Besides it's use as a management technique, it can also be useful in identifying training needs. In this approach, a set of objectives is assigned to a unit or individual for a given period, based on joint assessment and consultation (Kubr and Prokopenko, 1991:114). Consideration is given to training measures which will assist the individual to achieve the objectives. Attempts are also made to identify whether the existence or absence of appropriate training has any impact on the actual level of accomplishment of the objective.

(j) Psychological Testing

According to Wessman (1975:113), tests of intelligence, vocational interest, verbal and mathematical skills and personality can provide useful feedback to the manager or employee for better

understanding of motives, style of leadership and job preferences. However, caution should be taken in interpreting the test results within the context of the type of behaviour required for successful performance in a particular job.

(k) Surveys

Craig (1976:9-2) maintains that surveys can be used to take inventory of operations and attitudes and to rate or specify the training needs of individuals. Different types of surveys can be conducted. Educational needs survey, employee attitude surveys, problem surveys and achievement testing are examples.

(l) Manpower Planning

Manpower planning or human resources planning refers to the process through which the organisation develops action plans to provide the necessary qualified personnel in terms of objectives and policies (Hofmeyer, 1980:6). Manpower planning therefore provides an opportunity to train and replace individuals within a certain job on a continuous basis. The organisation can thus ensure that the right combination of people is available to achieve organisational goals.

From the above, it should be clear that a variety of methods can be used to identify training needs in the organisation. The method(s) employed will be determined by the specific prevailing conditions in the organisation. In practice, it is found that a combination of these methods is often used to determine the training needs in the organisation.

To conclude this section, it appears that defining training needs in an organisation is a complex process. Often organisations achieve negative results after a large investment in an extensive training programme - mainly because of the failure to analyse the training needs within the organisation. Before any organisation embarks on a training programme, a thorough analysis of the real training

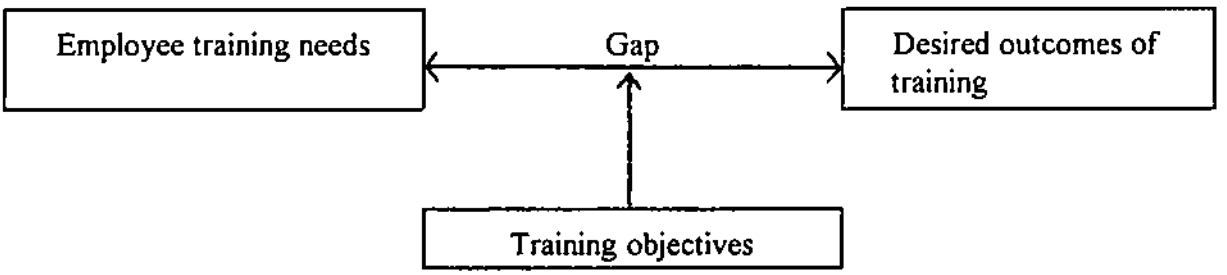
needs in the organisation should be made. Once this has been accomplished, specific training objectives should be set.

3.7 SET TRAINING OBJECTIVES

Once identified, the training needs of the organisation should be translated into training objectives or desired outcomes of the training programme. The training programme should be designed to meet these training objectives. Most researchers (see for example French 1986; King 1968; Rothwell & Kazanas 1988 and Rowland & Ferris 1982) concur that training objectives are the link between needs analysis and the actual content of a training programme.

At first sight it may seem unimportant to consider and formulate training objectives. It is, however, not a mere theoretical exercise. If needs analysis identifies a discrepancy in behaviour or performance, then the training objective is the statement of the post-training behaviour that the employee should display. It portrays the outcome of a training programme in real terms. The role of training objectives is illustrated in Figure 3.5.

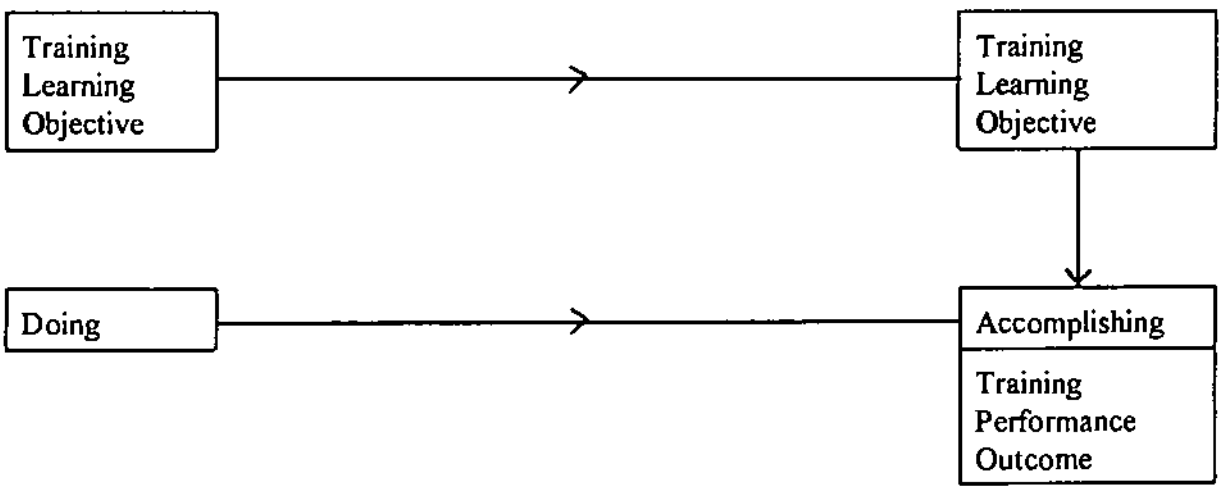
Figure 3.5: The Role of Training Objectives



Source: Adapted from Rothwell & Kazanas (1988:301)

Figure 3.5 shows how objectives help to identify what training to offer in order to meet a need and thereby close a performance gap. McMahon and Carter (1990:65) stress that when training is being designed, it is imperative that objectives should be established to provide a clear indication of what it is a learner is expected to be capable of doing as a result of participation in the training programme. This relationship between training objectives and outcomes is illustrated in Figure 3.6 below.

Figure 3.6: Training Objectives and Outcomes



Source: Adapted from McMahon and Carter (1990:65)

It can be deducted from Figure 3.6 that the training objective is important (what should trainees be able to do), however, the performance outcome is the real outcome sought. Truelove (1995:115) and Randall (1978:11) concur that objectives are the starting point for training design - providing a rationale for selecting training methods and content. The following aspects indicate the importance of training objectives:

* Provide learners with greater ownership of the learning process and assist in effectively organising and directing activities.
* A means of validating training, assessing and providing feedback to learners on performance.
* Communicate the goals of the training programme to both the learner and trainer, providing a basis for evaluating the learner, trainer and the training programme.
* Describes the desired outcome of a training event, not the route (the need to know how the learner will be different as a result of a training event).
* Provide information on what should be taught and why something is taught.
* Provide a map to help guide choices of content, method and evaluation.
* Ensure that measurement is possible - indicating criteria for evaluation.
* Provide consistency in the design of the training programme or course.
* Motivate learners who know exactly what is expected.

The above indicates that the importance of training objectives cannot be overstated. Generally it shows how the trainer and learner will know if the training has been successful.

Both Dorfling (1989:123) and Silberman (1990:33) highlight certain specifications and guidelines for setting training objectives. The following are some important specifications and guidelines for setting training objectives which indicate that training objectives should:

* Be defined for all output levels of training (reaction, learning and behaviour level).
* Describe the resource restrictions applicable during execution of outcome behaviour.
* Depict the manner and criteria according to which evaluation will be done.

* Be subjected to systematic analysis, according to the classification of learning outcomes.
* Involve all parties for taking responsibility for the results (although the actual formulation and evaluation of training objectives is the responsibility of the training specialist or practitioner).
* Not only state what participants should be able to do after training, but also under what conditions and according to what standards they should be trained.
* Take care to avoid over specifying training objectives - this might lead to mechanistic training by the book.
* Consider the following general aspects/specifications: specificity, flexibility, attainability, congruency and acceptability.

Silberman (1990:34) asserts that the better and more appropriate training objectives are, "the less likely participants are to leave the programme as mindless clones." The training practitioner should therefore at all times consider these specifications for setting training objectives, in order to ensure effective training design.

Another aspect to consider is the form the objectives take. According to Buckley and Caple (1992:112), training objectives can be stated or presented in three formats or levels. Terminal objectives are the broad objectives which must be achieved at the end of the training programme. Once a terminal objective has been set, it can be divided into a number of sub-objectives, called enabling objectives. Achieving the enabling objectives leads to the accomplishment of the terminal objectives. A further subdivision of enabling objectives is highlighting the learning points, which determine the lesson content and are described as lesson objectives.

The hierarchy of forms of objectives provides the trainer with a clearer picture of what trainees are expected to be able to do at the end of the training programme and also what the content of training should be. The analysis of a complete objective indicates that it has three main parts or elements (structure of objectives). Truelove (1995:116) highlights the following structural elements of behavioural objectives:

(a) Behaviour Component

The objective must state the required terminal behaviour or performance in specific terms - what the learner must be able to do at the end of the training programme. This behaviour may entail the application of knowledge or the demonstration of a skill or an attitude.

(b) Conditions Component

The objective should also state the conditions under which the performance will be observed. These conditions are environmental factors surrounding the behaviour or the resources that must be utilised while performing the behaviour.

(c) Criterion Component

The criterion provides the standard of performance - how well the learner has to perform in order to be successful.

Table 3.3 provides an example of the layout of a training objective.

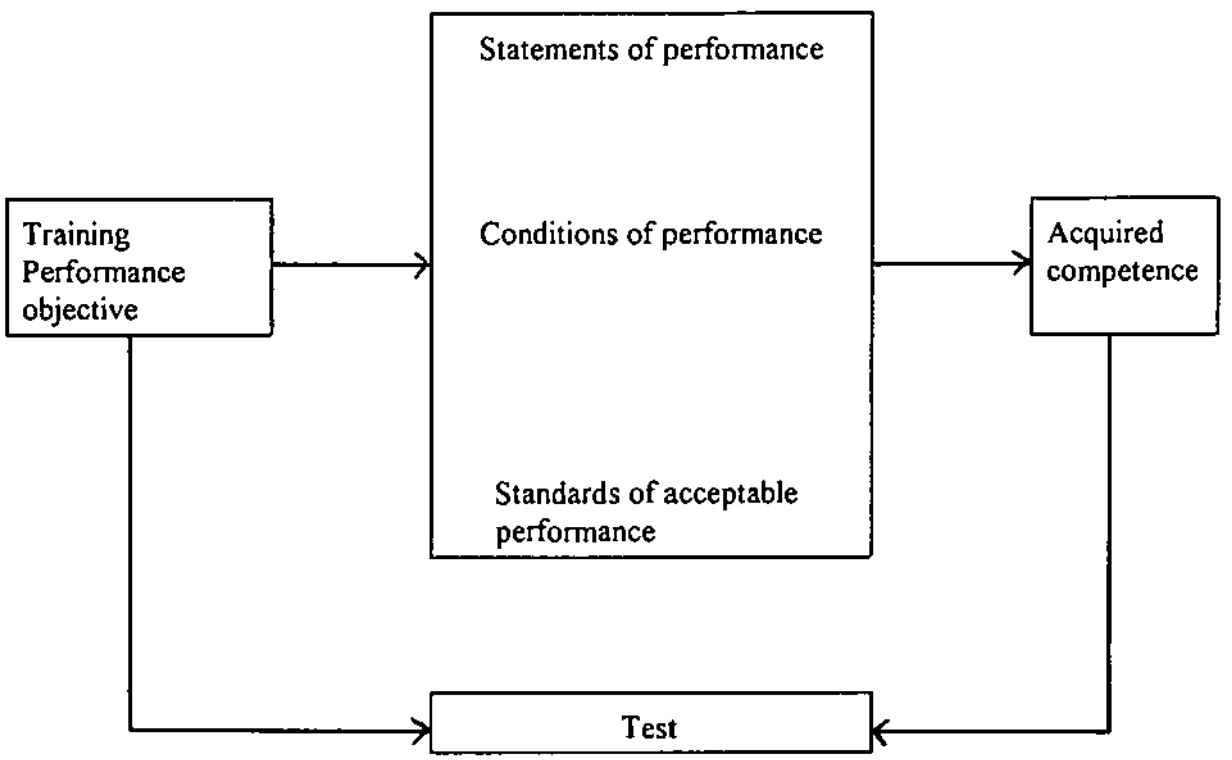
Table 3.3: Example of the Layout of a Training Objective

PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOUR	CONDITIONS	STANDARD OR CRITERION
Press a shirt	Given: Electric steam iron Ironing board Shirt	Within 10 minutes Creases to be ironed out No damage to fabric

Table 3.3 clearly indicates that the training objective provides the performance, conditions and standards for the learning activity. It further indicates the parameters of the testing requirements to

ensure that the learner has mastered and is capable of carrying out the performance (refer to Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7: Testing Training and Performance Objectives



Source: McMahon and Carter (1990:74)

The test in Figure 3.7 measures whether a participant can perform the task specified by the objective. The participant must show a learned capability by undertaking the task under test conditions and therefore a performance test needs to be developed. Rowland and Ferris (1982:313) have, however, criticised using behavioural objectives. This criticism is also highlighted by Dorfling (1989:104). By stating only what the learner should be able to do after training ignores the underlying competence required to perform the task. It also does not indicate what the trainer must teach, therefore ignoring

fundamental aspects of the learning process. The importance of behavioural objectives should, however, not be underestimated, as long as it remains practical.

The last aspect to be discussed with regard to training objectives is that of classes of objectives. Researchers (such as Dorfling 1989; Silberman 1990 and Van Dyk et al., 1997) concur that three basic classes of objectives can be identified.

(a) Cognitive Domain

Van Dyk et al., (1997:291) indicate that this domain deals with the intellectual responses of the learner (all factual and conceptual material which can be learned). The cognitive domain can be subdivided into the following: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

(b) Affective Domain

This domain emphasises the attitudinal, emotional and valuing responses desired of the learner. It includes aspects such as receiving, responding, valuing, organisation and characterisation (Dorfling, 1989:107).

(c) Psychomotor Domain

According to Silberman (1990:29), this domain includes the development of competence - physical and manipulative skills that can be learned. Perception, willingness to act, guided response, mechanism, spontaneous actions and adapting are examples.

Although it is possible to design a training programme with only one of these types of learning in mind, a design incorporating all three domains is more likely to result in lasting change. From this one can deduct that the setting of well-formed training objectives is of vital importance in the

designing of meaningful training programmes. The purpose of this section is to establish guidelines for the formulation and analysis of training objectives. These training objectives form the basis for the design of a training programme.

The next step needing attention in the training process is the analysis of pre-training design aspects.

3.8 ATTEND TO PRE-TRAINING PROGRAMME DESIGN ASPECTS

Before the training practitioner or director can design the actual training programme, some pre-training programme design aspects need to be considered. This aspect is often overlooked or taken for granted during the training process.

3.8.1 Formulate a Training Budget

Johnson and Melicher (1982:107) state that the budget is nothing more than a written statement or plan expressed in terms of units or rands. Craig (1976:4-1) postulates that "cost effectiveness must become a vital part of the design and development of the training plan and, in turn, sound budgeting and control of costs must become a vital responsibility of the training director and staff." However, Cumming (1994:422) argues that it is not a straightforward task to itemise the actual costs involved. The organisation's training requirements must be reviewed in order to prepare a budget to meet it's training objectives.

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:57) maintain that there are a variety of methods to be used to establish budgets:

* A central budget by the training manager
* Individual budgets by line managers

* A combined budget: where the training department budgets for generic aspects and line managers for specific unique items

Table 3.4 highlights important aspects which must receive attention when a training budget is prepared.

Table 3.4: Elements of a Training Budget

1.	Existing training and future needs
2.	Facilities - determine whether facilities for presenting training are available
3.	Suitable personnel - recruitment or retraining of training personnel
4.	Salaries of training personnel
5.	Personnel development expenses
6.	Sundry costs (eg. travelling, bursaries, training material and refreshments)

It is important that the training practitioner considers all possible budgeting influences. Aspects such as attitude of top management towards training (organisational climate), knowledge of long-range plans, equipment change-over and customer complaints are important factors which could influence the budget (Craig, 1976:4-5). This discussion highlights the importance of a training budget. It provides a method of planning for training expenses. No organisation should treat the training budget as something optional or as forming part of the human resources budget. Once the training budget has been set, instructional resources should be obtained.

3.8.2 Obtain Instructional Resources

This aspect of the training process is closely linked to the formulation of a training budget. Bell (1977:4) refers to this as the physical, financial and human support needed to implement the training

programme. This step requires that a variety of resources be considered to ensure successful implementation of a training programme. Table 3.5 indicates the most important instructional resources which should be obtained for conducting a training programme.

Table 3.5: Training Resources

PHYSICAL RESOURCES	* Facilities (eg. classroom space) * Equipment (eg. Overhead projectors) * Materials (eg. chalk, notes, books) * Instructional media (eg. T.V. and video)
FINANCIAL RESOURCES	* Budget * Capital and cash flow
HUMAN RESOURCES	* Superior * Instructor/facilitator * Participants

Source: Adapted from Van Dyk et al., (1997:346)

The training practitioner needs to take all these resources into account before designing the actual training programme. Race and Smith (1995:48) also emphasise the importance of considering training resources, especially physical resources and provide seventy "tips" for trainers in this regard.

Once the necessary instructional resources have been obtained, the trainee who is to receive the training should be identified and selected.

3.8.3 Select Trainees

Careful selection of individuals for training is a very important decision for both the organisation and the chosen individual. Providing the right training to the right people, can assist in creating and

maintaining a well-trained and stable workforce. French (1986:317) indicates the following considerations in selecting trainees:

* Individuals selected should be trainable and likely to stay with the organisation
* Government regulations and legal guidelines
* Employee needs and motivational levels
* Employee obsolelescence and retraining

A further aspect which needs consideration when selecting trainees in the organisation is that trainees are adults. The purpose of including this aspect of adult learning is that employees and managers needing training for transformation are all adults. The literature on adult learning, education and training appears to be quite extensive (see for example Hutton 1992; Knowles 1986, Pilley 1990 and Rogers 1993).

Learning occurs throughout the development stages of adulthood - adults continually acquire new skills and knowledge in family, recreational and occupational settings (Brookfield, 1990:1). According to Rogers (1989:5), a wide range of concepts is invoked when the term "adult" is used: stage in life-cycle, status, social subset and a set of ideals and values (adulthood). Most people, however, think of adults in terms of age. Three main ideas lie within the concept "adulthood":

* Full growth or development - maturity, expansion and utilisation of talents.
* Sense of perspective - sounder judgements, more balanced approach to life and society and a more developed way of thinking.
* Autonomy - responsibility for oneself, responsible for decision-making and voluntariness.

The implication of this is that the designer of a training programme should bear the abovementioned characteristics in mind, in order to confirm and promote adulthood. Adulthood may therefore be considered as a state of being which accords both status and rights to individuals, simultaneously conferring duties and responsibilities.

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982:75) advocate that learning styles and needs of adults, which have profound implications for training practices, differ considerably from those of children. Lessing (1985:10) concurs that the inherent difference of the adult learner requires a different framework in which learning and training of adults should be studied. Andragogics can be defined as the "art and science of helping adults to learn" (Knowles, 1986:38) and is considered synonymous with adult education. Literature search reveals a variety of characteristics of adults that should be taken into consideration by the trainer (National Training Board 1994, Thorpe & Grugeon 1987 and Van Dyk et al., 1997).

The most important implications of these characteristics can be summarised as follows:

* Adults need to know why learning is taking place. The adult educator and trainer must make the learner realise the benefits to be gained from the new knowledge.
* In andragogics, the learner is a self-directed, independent adult who assumes responsibility for his own life. The adult is capable of and chooses to take responsibility for his own learning.
* The adult learner brings a great volume and quality of experience to the learning situation. This implies that the adult learner can provide a source of learning which can be shared in group discussions, projects and simulation exercises.
* Adults become ready to learn when experiencing a need to know or a need to achieve. The learner perceives that what is to be learned will assist in performing more effectively and to achieve higher levels of potential.
* In the andragogical situation, the learning activities are life-centred and task or problem-centred (instead of subject-centred). Adults learn new material more effectively if such material is related to real-life situations.
* Motivation to learn must be intrinsic and internal and not from external pressures. The adult learner must be motivated by the need for recognition, self-actualisation, better quality of life and self-confidence.

* The adult learner is not dependent and does not seek support. Instead, self-dependence and self-responsibility are the driving forces.
* Adults have a co-responsibility within the organisation for their own training and development.
* Adults learn the most by doing and must therefore be actively involved in the learning situation.
* Adults have well-established behaviour patterns which need to "defrost" - the learning situation must provide an openness towards change.
* The primary function of the trainer should be to manage the learning process of the adult learner (instead of conveying content). Two-way communication is therefore very important.
* The adult learner should be intellectually stimulated on a continuous basis in order to support retention of cognitive skills.
* Adult learners are more self-conscious, sensitive and afraid of failure. The trainer should provide opportunities for the trainees to determine their own objectives and use methods which allow the adult learner to work at his own pace.

It should be obvious that the training of adults has specific implications for the designers of training programmes. Training methods need to be adapted to the range of skills possessed by adults. The trainer needs to take cognisance of the characteristics of adult learning, and to incorporate these aspects into the training programme. Brookfield (1990:1) views adult learning as an empirical reality rather than as a summary of an adult education philosophy or representing a political strategy.

Trainees should not be selected just for the sake of receiving training, but only after careful consideration of various aspects. The next step in the training process is to determine the role of trainers.

3.8.4 Determine the Role of Trainers

In analysing training literature (see for example Daniel 1992; Swanepoel 1990 and Tyson & York 1996), it appears that the aspect of the role and selection of trainers is well documented. The concept of "trainer" is often used synonymously with a person who trains, instructs or teaches. Craig (1976:3-1) stresses that although conducting a training programme is an important function, it is only one of the many roles that should be assumed by an effective trainer..

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:47) and Ribler (1983:163) concur that the role of the training specialist or practitioner within the organisation is very important. In analysing Table 3.6, it appears that the training practitioner fulfils a multiplicity of roles.

Table 3.6: The Role of the Trainer

1. Administrator	9. Consultant
2. Assessor	10. Instructor
3. Evaluator	11. Marketer
4. Group learning facilitator	12. Application agent
5. Individual learning facilitator	13. Feedback provider
6. Learning experience designer	14. Learning materials developer
7. Manager	15. Strategist
8. Needs analyst	16. Traditional lecturer

Source: Adapted from National Training Board (1994:138)

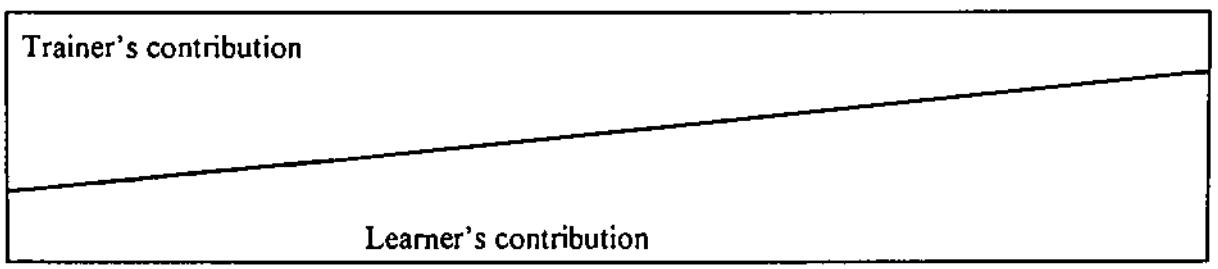
It appears therefore that the role of the trainer can vary widely, depending among other on the training developers' design and the training needs and objectives of the organisation.

Buckley and Caple (1992:230) postulate that if trainers wish to make a significant contribution to bring about change and adjustments in the organisation, there should be a major cultural shift in adopting a different attitude to the nature and level of involvement of trainers in the organisation. The changing role of the trainer in contemporary organisations can be highlighted as follows:

* Trainers take an active role (not passive) in communicating the benefits of training.
* Trainers adopt a pro-active stance (not a reactive) in dealing with performance problems.
* Trainers adopt a central as opposed to a peripheral role in the organisation and are a key influence in helping the organisation to reach it's objectives.
* Trainers change from being technologists to adopting a more strategic role.

The traditional roles performed by trainers, will therefore have to be expanded to enable them to take their rightful place in human resources development. When the trainer considers styles of delivery or training it may be useful to consider the balance between the contribution of the tutor and that of the learner/trainee (refer to Figure 3.8).

Figure 3.8: The Balance between Trainer's and Learner's Contribution



Directive ⟷ Facilitative

Presentation/ lecture — Lesson — Group discussion

Source: Truelove (1995:175)

A successful trainer must therefore adjust the training style employed to the needs of the situation. Various researchers (see for example Craig 1976; Halloran 1986 and Sherman et al., 1996) provide a profile of characteristics that identify successful trainers. It should be obvious that the success of any training effort will depend to a large extent on the skills and personal characteristics of those responsible for conducting the training. The following are some characteristics of successful trainers:

* Thorough knowledge of the subject
* Adaptability
* Sincerity
* Sense of humour
* Interest and patience
* Provide clear instructions
* Give individual assistance
* Enthusiasm
* Ability to communicate on trainee's level

This list should not be seen as exhaustive, but as providing some indication of what a successful trainer is. The mere possession of these characteristics, however, does not imply that the trainer will be successful.

A further aspect that needs attention is whether to make use of in-house or outside trainers. It should follow that if the organisation does not have trainers available from inside the organisation, because of inadequate qualifications or workload, it can turn to outside trainers. According to French (1986:325), the use of outside trainers has several advantages: productive employees are not taken off the job; the organisation can hire specialised training firms with experienced trainers; saves time, effort and cost in organising a training programme and also the organisation has a wider choice of training programmes to select from.

Morgan (1994:12) concurs and provides some guidelines on how to select an outside trainer:

* Scrutinise the trainer's track record.
* Do not select trainers on price/cost alone.
* The trainer must have the ability to be a good, empathetic communicator with a thorough understanding of the message or topic.
* Do not resort to selecting trainers on the basis of the ability to provide a social function after the training programme has been completed.
* The proposed trainer should be approved by representative members of the workforce (must have credibility).
* The training manager must know what is to be achieved and the training provided should be scrutinised in terms of desired outcomes.

One can deduct from these guidelines that the trainer has a definite and important role to play in ensuring the successful implementation of the training programme.

3.8.5 Consider Learning Principles

At this stage, the trainer should be concerned with creating a suitable environment to ensure that the training objectives can be achieved. Refer to Section 2.6.2 for a discussion on learning principles. It is important that the training programme be designed around these learning principles.

The next aspect of the training process deals with the actual design of the training programme.

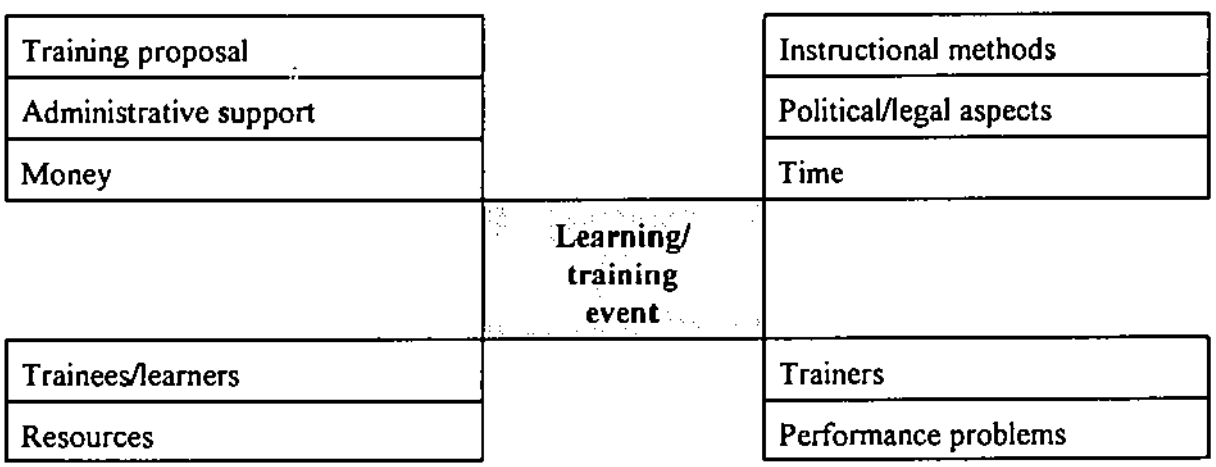
3.9 DESIGN THE TRAINING PROGRAMME

According to Gordon (1994:14), once the training practitioner has completed the diagnosis and pre-training programme design phases, a firm definition will emerge of what must be accomplished by the training programme. Given this knowledge, the trainer is ready to design the actual training programme. Various aspects which need to be considered during this phase of the training process will be highlighted in the subsequent paragraphs.

3.9.1 Analysis of Constraints

It is highly unlikely that a training designer will operate in an organisation without any constraints being imposed on the designer. These constraints are the boundaries within which the design will be undertaken (aspects which limit what and how training will be executed). These constraints are depicted in Figure 3.9 below.

Figure 3.9: Constraints in Training Design



The designer of the training programme must ensure that these constraints are taken into consideration when designing the training programme.

3.9.2 Identify Learning Content and Sequence

According to Tracy (1984:224), learning content refers to the subject matter, teaching points and learning activities to be covered in the training programme. Nadler (1982:124) contends that learning content refers to "curriculum building." The programme designer needs to consider different variables when selecting content which can have an impact on the way in which information is presented.

Dorfling (1989:129) and Van Dyk et al., (1997:311) suggest that the learning content should be identified within an educational context, according to the following criteria:

* Training objectives and the learning process
* Subject matter characteristics
* Learner background and experience
* Presentation of learning material (instruction)
* Geography - distance between learner and trainer

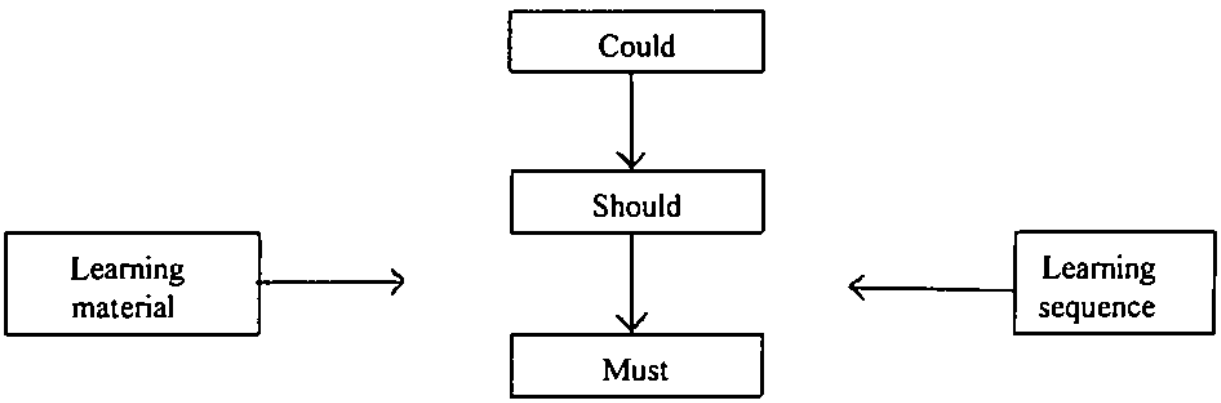
Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooy (1992:128) also highlight the following criteria, which should be used when selecting learning content for instructional purposes: applicability, validity, learnability, durability, viability, usefulness and relationship between facts and principal ideas. Although there is a large amount of relevant learning content, certain learning content can therefore be relatively more important when endeavouring to accomplish a specific training objective. Based on this notion, Nadler (1982:136) advocates the need to organise the learning content into categories, ranging from essential, helpful and peripheral to unrelated. One of the main problems experienced by programme designers is what content to include to ensure effective performance of the task. A further important aspect to be consider is the sequence of the learning material that will produce the most learning in the shortest possible time (Bramley, 1991:19) This aspect is concurred by Davies (1971:41) and

Erasmus and Van Dyk (1996:114) who provide the following guidelines for sequencing learning content:

* Help the learner to learn as quickly as possible.
* Put the whole learning exercise in context.
* Continuity of subject matter is superior to a series of unconnected activities.
* Provide links between learning activities.
* Allow learners to progress through the learning exercise at their own pace.
* Generally move from:
    - known to unknown
    - concrete to abstract
    - general to particular
    - observation to reasoning/theory/discussion
    - simple to complex
    - overview to detail
    - whole to specific parts and back to the whole
* Present the content in accordance with the interests and abilities of the learners and with user frequency.

An approach to sequencing learning content in the training process of an organisation is depicted in Figure 3.10 below.

Figure 3.10: Sequencing of Learning Content



The learner must know the core competencies of the course (skills required to do the job). The learner should also know what content is necessary in order to become competent in the job situation. What the learner could know may contribute towards developing the correct attitude, but is not essential or will not contribute to competency (Van Dyk et al., 1997:317).

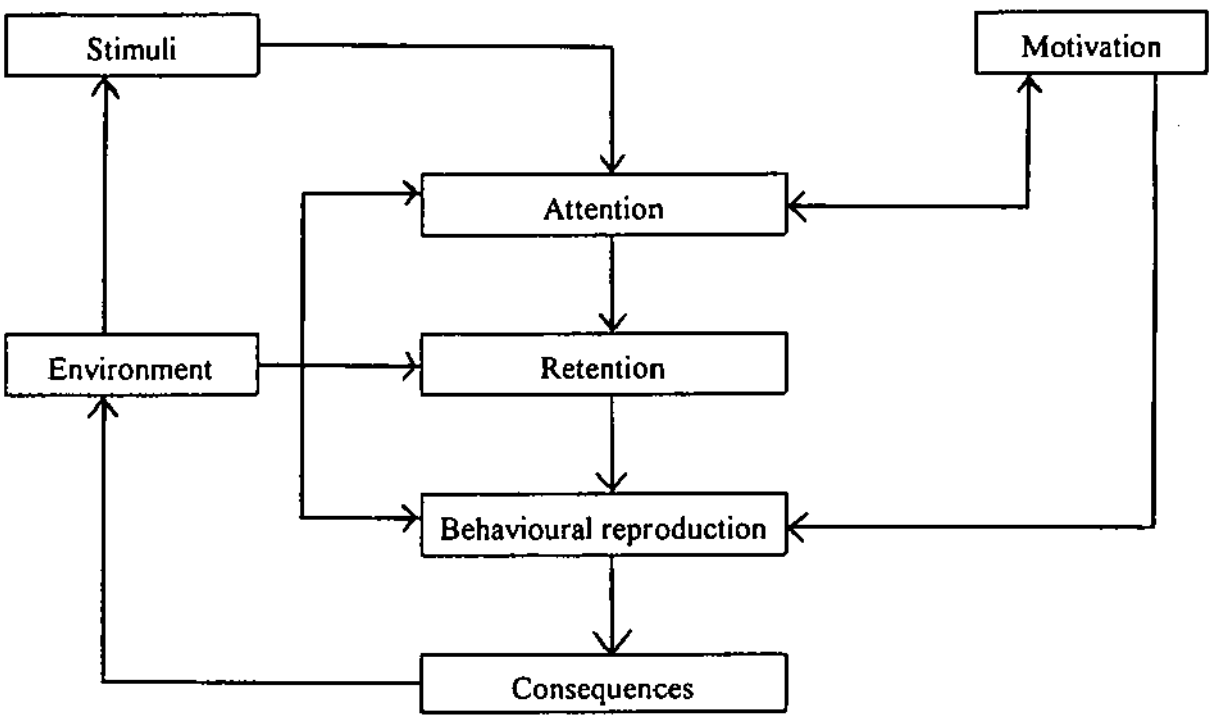
3.9.3 Facilitate the Learning Process

As mentioned previously, the learning process is one of many criteria which can be used when determining learning content. The programme designer can therefore deduct learning content on the basis of learning psychology and, more specifically, the learning process. This aspect is well researched (see for example Atkinson, Atkinson & Hilgard 1983; Clark 1986; Entwistle 1981 and Silverman 1982).

Gagne (1985:2) refers to learning as a "change in human disposition or capability that persists over a period of time and is not simply ascribable to processes of growth." Harber and Runyon (1983:34)

concur that the learning activity is relatively permanent and results from past experience or practice (also refers to Section 2.6.2). The learning process is illustrated in Figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11: An Analysis of the Learning Process



In analysing the learning process, it appears that motivation influences all other aspects of the learning process. Bowditch and Buono (1994:69) emphasise that the process of motivation features three key areas: what energises, directs and sustains human behaviour. The implication for training is that the potential trainee must believe that the training objectives can be achieved and that it will result in desired outcomes. The mere attendance of a training session does not imply that learning has been achieved. The trainee must therefore perceive that the training will lead to desirable outcomes. It is important that the trainee arrives at the training session with a clear understanding of actual job performance and goals and that the particular training programme is the best alternative for achieving the desired outcome.

Bandura (1977:24) and Flavell (1985:199) advocate that people attend to things in the environment that are of most importance at the time. Attentional processes to which one is exposed determine what is selectively observed and perceived and what is extracted from such exposure. The trainer should therefore structure the learning environment in such a way that the most important aspects are the learning materials, by removing motivational factors from the environment that distract attention (posters and notices for example). Although the learning environment can, to a certain extent, be controlled to reduce distracting stimuli, the trainer must attract the learner's attention to learning events, perhaps by discussing the nature of training objectives and the intended on-the-job benefits. The trainees need to focus attention on aspects of each step of the learning process.

A further aspect to be considered in the learning process is that of retention (refer to Farr 1987; Gagne 1985 and Hamilton & Ghatala 1994). Retention of activities that have been learned at one time or another must take place. For the learner or trainee to benefit from the training experience, when the trainer is no longer present to provide direction, the response patterns must be memorised in symbolic form. The perceptual stimuli are transformed into a conceptual mode (encoding). Instructional design should provide for retention of what is learned and for transfer of the learning to new situations. Suggestions that serve to enhance later retention are, for example, organising material to be learned into categories or into graphs, tables and diagrams. Time must be taken to encourage the learner to apply the learning to all situations, in as many ways possible.

The last component of the learning process involves converting symbolic representations into appropriate actions. Behavioural or motor reproduction is achieved "by organising one's responses spatially and temporarily in accordance with the modelled patterns" (Bandura, 1977:27). Biggs and Telfer (1987:45) and Sage (1984:260) contend that behavioural enactment can be separated into cognitive responses, initiation, monitoring and refinement on the basis of informative feedback. It should, however, be noted that in designing instruction for motor skills, it is important to recognise that these skills are more than merely "muscular" in nature - it often occur as components of procedures, involving choices and sequences of alternative movements.

It is important to realise the usefulness of frequent feedback during the learning process. Instruction design to achieve a learning objective begins with an expectancy on the part of the learner, and is completed by a reinforcing event, feedback (Gagne, 1985:314). Feedback is a vital part of the training process and should be planned and developed in the same way as the presentation of the training content.

Facilitation of the learning process during the design of the training programme should, therefore, not be underestimated. Purposeful attempts should be made to incorporate these aspects of the learning process into the design of the actual training programme.

3.9.4 Account for Determinants of Learning

The training programme designer must account for a number of factors which can cause the learning process to be insufficient or ineffective. Camp et al., (1986:105) and Dorfling (1989:136) highlight some determinants of learning which can influence the learning process:

* Motivation
* Individual differences (eg. age and culture)
* Feedback
* Attitudes
* Active involvement
* Prior learning
* Amount to be learned

All these factors must be considered in the programme design stage, because of their influence on the learning process.

3.9.5 Selection of Training Methods

Mondy and Noe (1987:270) assert that when a person is working on a motor car, some tools are more appropriate than others in performing certain functions. The same logic should apply when considering the many training methods. Carroll, Paine and Ivancevich (1972:495) also state that an important criterion in the selection of a training method must be the relative effectiveness of the method being considered for a particular training objective. Study of the literature reveals a variety of training methods (see for example Dessler 1981; Newstrom 1980; Schultz 1982 and Zaccarelli 1992).

Table 3.7 highlights the most common and important training techniques.

Table 3.7: Training Methods

METHOD	UTILISED FOR		CONDUCTED	
	MANAGERS	EMPLOYEES	ON-THE-JOB	OFF-THE-JOB
Business Games	X			X
Case Study	X			X
Conference	X			X
Behaviour modelling	X			X
In-basket training	X			X
Internship	X		X	
Role-playing	X			X
Action learning	X			X
Sensitivity training	X			X
Syndicate method	X			X
Incident method	X	X	X	
Competency-based	X	X	X	
Coaching	X	X	X	
Job rotation	X	X	X	
Programmed instruction	X	X		X
Computer assisted	X	X	X	X
Lecture	X	X		X
Apprenticeship		X		X
Simulation	X	X		X
Vestibule training		X		X

From Table 3.7 it appears that there are a large number of training methods available form which the designer of a training programme can select. There are two types of training methods, each having different goals and designed for different levels of employees. Some methods apply strictly to managers and others to operative employees. Several methods can be used in the training of both managers and operative employees. Selecting an appropriate method is therefore a crucial step in developing a training programme. An in-depth discussion of these methods does not form part of this study, but available literature can be consulted if necessary.

Cassio (1992:251) asserts that for the training method to be useful, it should meet the minimal conditions necessary for effective learning to take place:

* Motivate the trainee to improve performance
* Clearly illustrate desired skills
* Provide for active trainee participation
* Provide an opportunity to practice
* Provide timely feedback on trainee's performance
* Provide some means for reinforcement while the trainee learns
* Be structured from simple to complex tasks
* Be adaptable to specific problems
* Encourage positive transfer from the training programme to the job.

Davies (1971:177), Nadler (1982:162) and Tracy (1984:246) highlight the factors which need to be taken into consideration when selecting a training method: training objectives; course content; target population; instructors; culture of the organisation; instructional space; facilities; equipment; materials; time and cost.

Dorfling (1989:161) concurs and emphasises the following selection criteria for training methods:

* Puristic criteria (training objectives and learning principles)
* Pragmatic criteria (cost, time, class room size, instructors, physical facilities and attitudes)

Although there are a variety of training methods to choose form, the training programme designer should analyse each method according to the discussed criteria and factors that will be effective in a particular situation.

3.9.6 The Development of a Lesson Plan

Lesson planning entails "the taking of the content and sequence and transforming that material into a form that is a plan for the learning situation" (Nadler, 1982:143). Lesson design and planning are well documented (see for example Basson, Oosthuizen, Duvenhage & Slabbert 1988; Jacobs and Gawe 1996 and Forsyth, Jolliffe & Stevens 1996). It is emphasised that each section of the programme must be planned in good time. The lesson plan is the culmination of all aspects of training design. Figure 3.12 depicts an example of the layout of a lesson plan.

Figure 3.12: The Layout of a Lesson Plan

Programme Title: _____

Objectives of the lesson:

Preparation:

- Physical environment
- Equipment and materials
- Instructor
- Learner

TIME	MAJOR TOPICS	INSTRUCTOR ACTIVITY	LEARNER ACTIVITY	STRATEGIES

Source: Nadler (1982:146)

Van Dyk et al., (1997:346) and Truelove (1995:154) refer to the development of training modules or learning units, which has become a popular concept among designers of instruction, and which includes all material necessary to teach one specific job or task. The development of training modules has the advantage of providing programmes tailored to individual needs and provides standardised training.

This section discussed the design of the training programme and the development of lesson plans. The designer needs to consider various important aspects with regard to training design. Gordon (1994:19) concludes that "it is not technology that really determines the effectiveness of a training programme, but rather the soundness of the instructional design process itself - the philosophy embodied here is that sound instructional design is necessary for any instructional programme to be successful."

The next phase in the training process is the implementation of training.

3.10 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TRAINING

The implementation of training entails the execution of the sequenced learning content according to a selected instructional strategy or method. The lesson plan must be put into practice. Mondy and Noe (1987:288) advocate that the implementation of a training programme is often difficult for the following reasons:

* Trainees must be convinced that the programme has value in assisting the achievement of personal and professional goals.
* Many managers are action-oriented and often allege that there is limited time to engage in training efforts.
* Qualified trainers must be available.

* Training and development requires a higher degree of creativity than any other human resources activity.
* Training implies change, which is often resisted.
* It is often difficult to schedule the training around present work requirements.
* Record keeping of how well the trainee performed in training is also difficult.
* Training conducted outside the organisation needs considerable co-ordination.

The role of the trainer during implementation should not be underestimated (also see Section 3.8.4). Kirkpatrick (1983:65) stresses that most training takes place at the trainee's work station, which highlights the importance of on-the-job training methods and the role of the trainer or instructor.

During the implementation phase, aspects of pre-training programme design and the actual training programme are put into practice, such as the use of instructional resources, the role of the trainer, the consideration of learning principles, the lesson plan and training method(s).

3.11 THE MAINTENANCE OF TRAINING

The initial transfer of training is no guarantee that the behavioural adaptation will continue. The learner should be able to maintain the transfer over a period of time (Dorfling, 1989:192).

Over learning is an important learning principle which can positively influence the maintenance of learning. Over learning is especially important when the task is not likely to be practised often in the transfer setting and is important in maintaining performance during periods of emergency or stress (Goldstein, 1986:83). Gagne (1985: 255) concurs that training practice variety favours transfer of intellectual skills to new situations as well as the number of cues that is common between the learning situation and the new situation that require transfer.

Bahn (1973:1068) highlights the counter-training problem. Counter-training goes beyond resistance to training, by bringing the impact of training to the workplace (involving the moulding of knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the job). Maintenance of training is therefore an extension of transfer of training. Charoux (1981:35) proposes two dimensions of behavioural evaluation: immediate application (transfer evaluation) and long-term application (maintenance evaluation). The first dimension refers to the trainee's ability to immediately put into practice whatever skills have been taught. The second dimension refers to the transfer of training over a period of time.

The training practitioner should therefore ensure that the training which has taken place will be maintained over a period of time. The last phase of the training process is the evaluation of training which will be discussed in the following section.

3.12 DATA GATHERING AND EVALUATION

The last phase in the training process is the evaluation of training or assessing the effectiveness of training. Literature on of the evaluation of training reveals a substantial body of knowledge on this topic (compare the contributions of Clegg 1987; Hoffman 1983; Moore 1984 and Urban, Ferris, Crowe & Miller 1985).

Despite the fact that researchers (see for example Holcomb 1994; Ribler 1983 and Van Dyk et al., 1997) concur that evaluation of training should play a significant role in the efficiency and effectiveness of the human resources function of the organisation, some researchers (refer to DeCenzo & Robbins 1988; Erasmus & Van Dyk 1996 and Robinson 1981) are of the opinion that this is the most neglected aspect of the learning process. The evaluation of training is perhaps the most misunderstood aspect of the entire training process.

Training evaluation can be viewed as determining the extent to which the training activities have met the goals (Fisher, Shoenfeldt & Shaw, 1993:403). Bramley (1991:20) contends that training

evaluation should not only exist to determine whether the funds invested in training were well spent, but also whether individuals benefited from such training. Craig (1976:18-2) also states that evaluation should not only be to determine the effectiveness of the training programme, but should be evaluated against specific goals.

In the following paragraphs, various aspects of training evaluation will be discussed, namely: reasons/benefits, evaluation topics and levels, methods and cost-benefit analysis.

3.12.1 Reasons and Benefits of Training Evaluation

Parker (1983:5) and French (1986:326) highlight the following reasons and benefits of training evaluation.

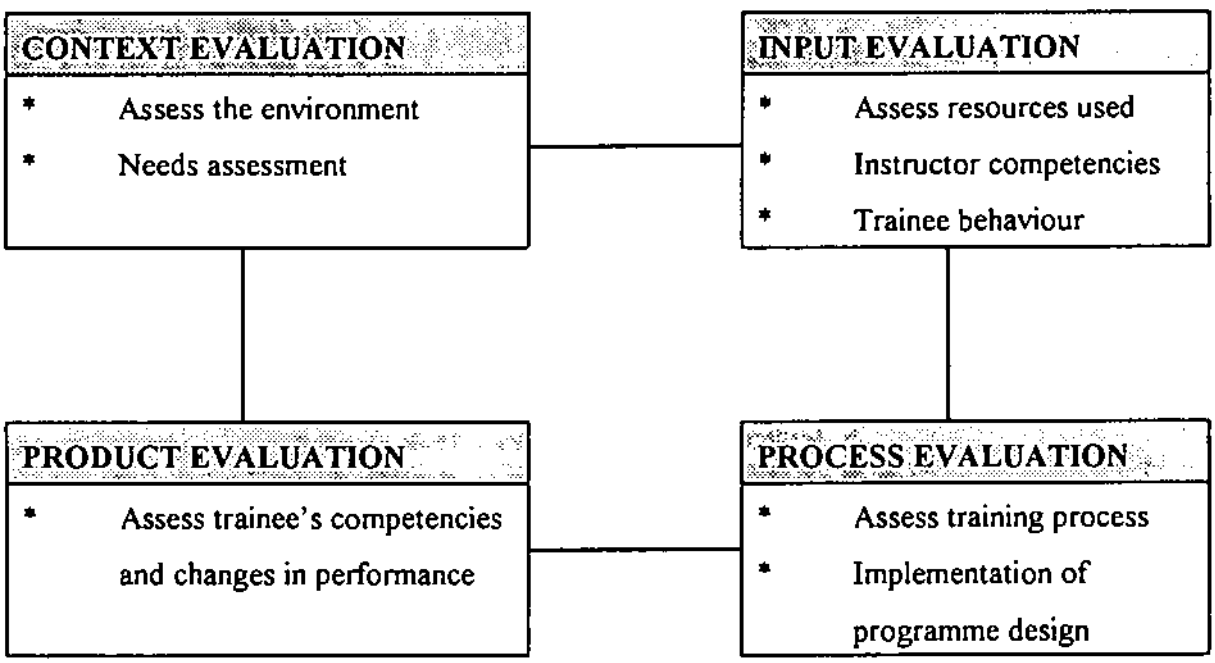
* To check the efficiency of the training programme (teach what it is supposed to be taught)
* To improve job performance of training staff
* To determine whether training needs have been met
* To provide information on curriculum revision and development
* To validate the training strategy in relation to the organisation's overall plans
* To ensure effective follow-up
* To calculate the cost-benefit ratio of a training programme
* To establish a data base for future decisions regarding the programme

It appears that there is a real need for training evaluation. The most common reasons for evaluating training efforts seemed to be to economically justify training expenditure, to determine whether attempts by trainers were successful and if any improvements could be made to training programmes.

3.12.2 Evaluation Topics

Evaluation of training programmes should be a multidimensional process, focussing on the programme as a whole. Figure 3.13 illustrates an evaluation model which can make a valuable contribution to the evaluation of management training. The model is called "CIPP", an acronym formed from the four basic types of evaluation in this model: content, input, process and product (Galvin, 1983:52).

Figure 3.13: A Model of Training Evaluation



According to Galvin (1983:57) and Trapnell (1984:90), this model provides a balanced view of evaluation which is practical and effective in improving management training

(a) Content Evaluation

Content evaluation assesses the environment (including manager, supervisor and worker attitudes). It also deals with the purposes of specific training programmes and appropriateness of objectives. A needs assessment is a common example of content evaluation.

(b) Input Evaluation

This aspect of the evaluation model assesses the appropriateness and adequacy of all resources that should go into a training programme. It provides information to determine how to utilise resources to best meet training programme goals. Aspects that should be focussed on include: performance objectives, instructional design, sequence plans, training material, facilities and equipment. The most important elements of input evaluation are the assessment of the instructor's competency and the evaluation of behaviour which trainees bring to the training programme. Procedures, policies, budgets, schedules and proposals are the results of this type of evaluation.

(c) Process Evaluation

Process evaluation provides feedback to those responsible for implementation. Assessment of the following factors should take place during the training process:

* Instructor's use of resources and materials
* Learning styles of trainees
* Appropriateness of instructional strategies to objectives
* Trainees interim performance gains

(d) Product Evaluation

Product evaluation assesses the competency of trainees and changes in on-the-job performance. The design and selection of evaluation measures are important in this type of evaluation. The overall purpose is to measure and interpret the attainment of objectives.

(e) Impact Evaluation

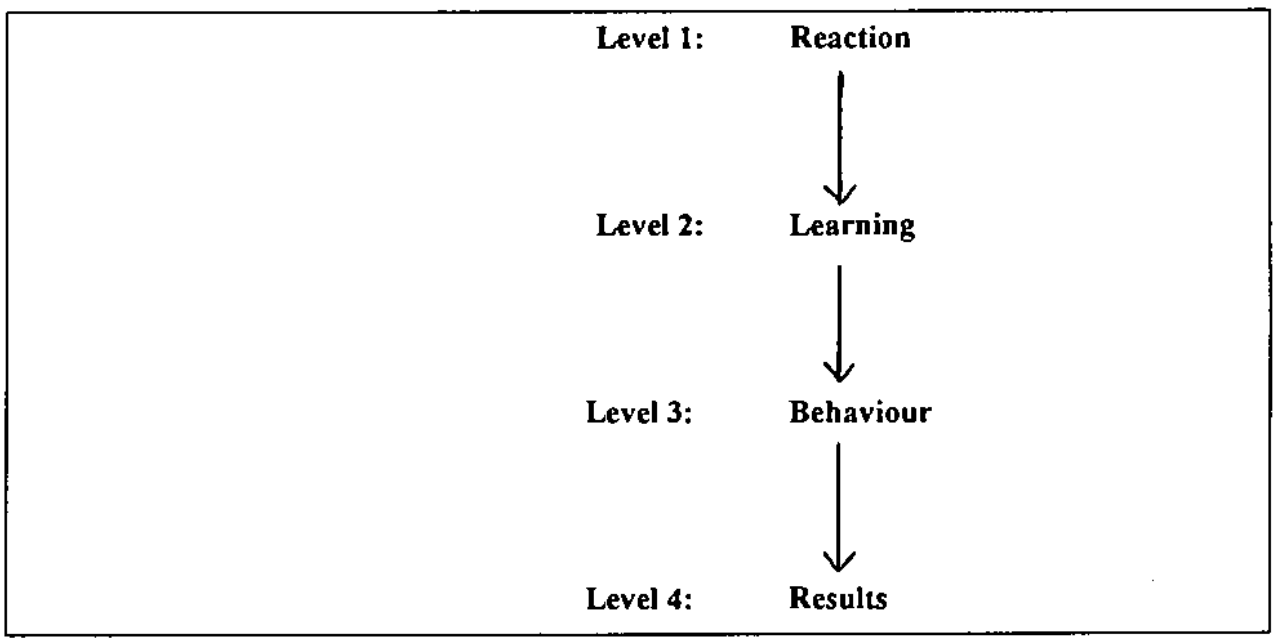
Trapnell (1984:92) includes a fifth element in the evaluation model, which focusses on the differences training efforts have made in productivity and profitability. It illustrates the importance of training to the financial health of the organisation.

The evaluator of training effectiveness should, however, not view these evaluation topics separately, but needs to design and maintain a system which puts each piece of data in proper perspective as a whole. Using this evaluation model can therefore make a valuable contribution to the effective implementation of training in the organisation.

3.12.3 Evaluation Levels

Kirkpatrick (1977:9) proposes that evaluation of training should take place on four different levels: reaction, learning, behaviour and results. Newstrom (1978:22), however, demonstrates the danger of a simplistic approach to evaluation. The evaluation of training outcomes should be evaluated on all four levels. According to Goldstein (1986:129), evaluation practices are mainly focussed on the reaction level, but the other levels can also make important contributions towards the evaluation of training. Figure 3.14 depicts the evaluation levels in proper sequence.

Figure 3.14: Training Evaluation Levels



(a) Reaction Evaluation

Reaction evaluation refers to the extent to which the learner rates the training as meaningful and pleasant. It is important to determine how people feel about training programmes they have attended. These reactions reflect the trainee's opinion in four main areas:

* Knowledge and skills content of training
* Training methods and trainers who delivered the training
* General learning conditions (environment)
* Degree to which attitudinal objectives of the programme have been achieved (Buckley & Caple, 1992:193).

Reactions occur from the moment trainees begin the training until the end of the training session. Camp et al., (1986:138) indicate that there is a positive correlation between learning reactions and

learning outcomes/results. If a learner rates a learning programme as irrelevant, badly planned and presented, it is unlikely that much learning would take place, if at all.

(b) Learning Evaluation

According to Kirkpatrick (1977:9), the learning level of evaluation measures to what extent trainee's performance (in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes) are on par with set criteria or standards. The objectives of the training programme should be the starting point of evaluation on this level. A great deal of work is required in planning the evaluation procedure, analysing the data obtained and interpreting the results. It should be obvious that a favourable reaction to a training programme does not assure learning. The following guidelines can assist in evaluating learning:

* Learning of all trainees should be measured
* A before and after approach should be adapted
* A control group should be compared with the experimental group which receives the training
* Learning should be measured on an objective basis
* Evaluation results should, if possible, be analysed statistically (to prove correlation and the level of confidence).

If training practitioners can prove that training programmes have been effective in terms of learning and reaction, objective data can be used in promoting future programmes and to increase the image and status of the training function in the organisation.

(c) Behaviour Level

This level of training evaluation judges the influence of training on the job behaviour of the learner. Birnbrauer (1987:55) is of the opinion that evaluation of the behaviour level is more difficult than the previous two levels (reaction and learning). Craig (1976:18-16) concurs and advocates that a more scientific approach is necessary and that many factors should be considered. The assessment

of the effectiveness of training moves from the training context to the working environment. The following are some guidelines for evaluating behaviour:

* Extent to which training needs have been satisfied
* Factors which facilitated or prevented transfer of training
* Suitability of training methods and procedures
* Additional learning which took place (not covered by formal training objectives)
* Relevancy of training content - was there any redundant content?
* Are changes in job performance attributed to the influence of the training programme?

(d) Results Evaluation

Evaluation of results determines to what extent results have been affected by the training programme. Results include factors such as profits, sales, production quality, safety record, turnover, grievances and morale (Newstrom, 1978:24). It is best to evaluate training programmes directly, in terms of results desired. Expected results must be defined in terms of observable and measurable terms (Kirkpatrick, 1977:12). Dorfling (1989:221) emphasises that results evaluation makes important contributions to the final evaluation of a training programme and provides a basis for the allocation of organisational resources.

Parker (1983:5) divides these evaluation levels, in terms of course efficiency and effectiveness, as follows:

* Reaction + Learning = Measure course efficiency (How well did the course teach trainees what it was supposed to teach?)

* Behaviour + Results = Measure course effectiveness (What effect did the course have on the job?)

The implications for trainers of carrying out evaluation and assessment of training at the four levels can be a formidable task. Each level of evaluation must be carried out because it measures different aspects of training. It is important for the designer of the training programme to formulate complete training objectives for each variable on each level subjected to evaluation.

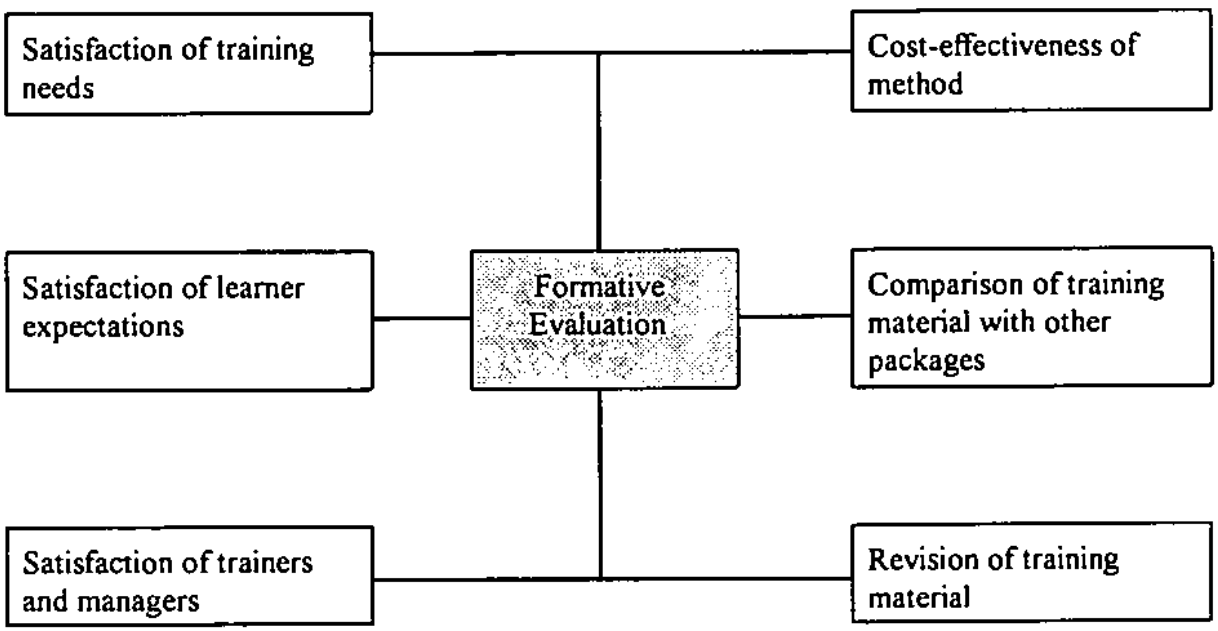
3.12.4 Types of Evaluation

Rothwell and Kazanas (1994:480) make a distinction between two types of evaluation: formative and summative (on the basis of the opportunity it provides the learner to make corrective adaptations).

(a) Formative Evaluation

This type of evaluation determines the extent to which the content of the course was mastered, providing feedback and assistance to learners in correcting errors and in improving learning performance (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 1996:158). The focal point is to control learning performance and to rectify learning errors. Figure 3.15 illustrates the process of consideration in formative evaluation.

Figure 3.15: Considerations in Formative Evaluation



Source: Adapted from Rothwell and Kazanas (1994:481)

(b) Summative Evaluation

Baird et al., (1983:207) stress that evaluation should be directed at the final examination of a specific training course. Summative evaluation takes place after a training programme has been completed. It addresses aspects such as effectiveness of the training programme, logistics and expenses. Table 3.8 highlights the logical steps in conducting a summative evaluation.

Table 3.8: Conducting a Summative Evaluation

Step 1	Examine all instructional material.
Step 2	Observe the instructor delivering the material.
Step 3	Administer a test to measure trainees' achievement of objectives.
Step 4	Administer an attitude survey.
Step 5	Compare subsequent job performance of those who received training and those who did not.

Formative evaluation therefore stresses try-out and revision processes, while summative evaluation uses outcome criteria to appraise the instructional programme.

3.12.5 Methods of Evaluation

Watson (1982:392) postulates that the measurement instrument is determined by the learning area (whether the objective is knowledge, skills or attitude). Rothwell and Kazanas (1994:475), Holcomb (1994:39) and Marx (1986:157) extensively discuss the various evaluation methods. It is important that the method(s) selected provides the necessary information. Table 3.9 depicts the most common evaluation methods used by training evaluators.

Table 3.9: Training Evaluation Methods

1. Interviews	9. Gap analysis checklists
2. Pre-test and post-test	10. Using a control group
3. Questionnaires and surveys	11. Essay achievement measures
4. Observations	12. Use of video type material
5. Company records/documents	13. Indirect follow-up studies
6. Simulations	14. Cost-benefit analysis
7. Action plans	15. Self-assessment
8. Tracking charts	16. Role playing

The training evaluator therefore has various methods to choose from in assisting with the evaluation of the training programme.

3.12.6 Cost-benefit Analysis of Training

Robinson (1981:154) argues that training should be seen as an investment and should therefore be measurable in financial terms. Cost-benefit analysis refers to the comparison of training costs in monetary units to the benefits derived from training in non-monetary terms. The vast sums of money spent on training demand that a systematic approach to training be adapted together with effective training evaluation.

Botha (1991:3) defines cost-benefit as the "relationship of the resources required (costs) to attain certain goals (benefits)." Costs should be measured comprehensively. Direct costs include travelling fees, expense allowances, purchasing of training materials and training facilities. Maintenance and repairs of buildings, electricity, air conditioning, administrative salaries and office equipment are

examples of indirect cost. Benefits are associated with an increase in productivity and higher trainee earnings.

Baird et al., (1983:218) postulates that a source of controversy in training is the inadequate knowledge of its economic returns. The calculation of training costs and returns is a complex process. The magnitude of expenditure on training programmes is, however, sufficient justification for requiring careful evaluation. Cost-benefit analysis is one of many ways (refer to Table 3.9) by which the success of training can be evaluated. It has the potential for increasing the efficiency of resources used during the training process.

A further important component or element of the training process is that of feedback (refer to Figure 3.1). Gagne (1985:315) states that the usefulness of frequent feedback during training or learning should not be overlooked. Following the performance which shows that learning has occurred, the correctness of the performance needs to be communicated to the learner. Besides giving feedback to the learner, there should also be feedback to the trainer on all phases in the training process. Feedback should therefore form an integral part of the training process.

3.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted the training process as a dynamic, interactive and ongoing process. The training process was graphically illustrated by means of a systems model, which involves a number of distinct and interrelated phases. A systematic approach towards training is enhanced by the availability of a conceptual framework, which indicates the elements of the process, as well as the interrelationship between the elements (Dorfling, 1989:16). The whole chapter was devoted to the different phases or steps in the training process.

The first aspect that was highlighted was the analysis of the training environment. Various external and internal factors, which constitute the environment in which training takes place, were analysed.

A change in any of these factors may indicate the need for training in the organisation. The second phase in the training process is to establish training premises. The training premises are the foundation for designing and implementing a training programme and entails developing a training philosophy and setting a training policy for the organisation. Once the training premises have been established and developed, the training practitioner can execute the diagnostic phase by gathering data. The diagnostic phase entails an organisational, task and person analysis. These analyses can provide valuable information for determining the training needs of the organisation.

Organisations need to critically and systematically determine their training needs. A training needs assessment process highlighted the various steps that should be followed in identifying training needs. It appears that this process is comprehensive and should be problem-focussed. Various methods can be used to assist in determining training needs: assessment centres, job training analysis, career planning, performance evaluation advisory committees, critical incidents and manpower planning to mention a few. Negative results in training are often a result of poor identification of training needs.

Once the organisation has identified its training needs, it should be translated into training objectives. Various guidelines were established for the formulation of training objectives. Before the training practitioner can design the actual training programme, it is necessary to consider some pre-training programme design aspects. The following aspects were highlighted: formulate a training budget, obtain instructional sources, select trainees, determine the role of trainers and consider learning principles. These aspects are often overlooked or taken for granted in the training process.

Having executed all preceding phases, the trainer is ready to design the actual training programme. The following aspects need attention: analysis of constraints, identification of learning content and sequence, facilitation of the learning process, selection of training methods and development of the lesson plan. The implementation phase entails the execution of the sequenced learning content, according to a selected instructional strategy. It is, however, important that the learner should be able to maintain the transfer over a period of time (maintenance of training). The last phase in the training process is the evaluation or assessment of the effectiveness of training. A model of training

evaluation proposed how and what should be evaluated. It was further noted that there should be continuous feedback during the training process to ensure effectiveness.

In conclusion, Cumming (1994:200) states that training practitioners need to broaden their views about the learning and training process in order to anchor the training activity in the organisation's activities and to emphasise that training within the organisation must be managed on a continuous basis.

The following chapter will provide an exposition of the nature, extent and role of transformation or change in the organisation.

CHAPTER 4

MANAGING CHANGE: AN ORGANISATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Human (1991:313) and Madi (1995:12) contend that there is a fundamental shift in the ways people think, do and live - transforming just about every aspect of life. There are constant and daily changes in people's views, perceptions, assumptions and values. Change seems to be the only certainty in an uncertain world (Klein, 1997:1). Burger, Theron and Van Rooyen (1996:10) postulate that "transformational change in South Africa is not an unwarranted luxury." Understanding change should not be taken for granted.

The topic of organisational change, and how to manage it, is well documented (see for example Coetzee & Visagie 1995; Drucker 1980 & 1995, Motala 1991; Toffler 1979 and Watzlawick et al., 1974). In the light of these continuous, large-scale changes facing the world, organisations will require to undergo major, strategic reorientations (Tichy, 1983:3), however, Carstens (1995:27) challenges these many organisational change processes, as cosmetic, with no sustainable results.

This chapter sets out to examine the nature and extent of managing change within an organisational context. Before discussing various aspects of change, the nature of this concept will be analysed. The theoretical foundations of change, which form the core of change management theory, are also analysed. As mentioned, there is accelerated pressure on organisations to change and some of the most important reasons for change are highlighted. Before embarking on a change programme, it is important to prepare the organisation for the proposed change initiatives or to lay the foundation before the changes are implemented. Some of the ground rules on how to accomplish this will be scrutinised. Although organisational change can involve virtually any part of the organisation, it is important to focus on the main areas of organisational change. Various approaches or strategies to deal with change will also be discussed. Change strategies proposed by Dunphy and Stace (1990:82), Gould (1996:278) and Calori and Atamer (1990:44) will be investigated.

The very nature of change and its consequences often leads to resistance. The main sources of resistance to change are briefly identified. An exposition will be made to provide some guidelines and strategies on how to cope with change and how to overcome any resistance. Managers, change agents and those responsible for implementing change in the organisation, should realise that there are some dangers and pitfalls to be encountered. Some of the dangers facing organisational change programmes will be viewed. The critical role of the change agent in the management of a change programme also needs attention.

The last aspect of this chapter is devoted to the actual change process. The various phases or steps in the change process or change cycle will be analysed and illustrated by means of a model.

4.2 THE NATURE OF CHANGE

Every organisation and manager in the business environment is surrounded by change (Wilson, 1994:47). Schermerhorn et al., (1997:400) concur that the concept of change has become the watchword for most organisations. Given this perception, Von Hirschfeld and Downs (1992:27) argue that change can only take place through understanding. Although the concepts of "change" and "transformation" were already defined in Sections 1.8.2 and 1.8.3, it is important to develop a clear and holistic conception of what change entails.

According to Havelock and Havelock (1973:7), a vast amount of literature was published dealing with the nature of change. Evidence of this outpouring of research and theoretical literature is well documented (see for example Bennis, Benne & Chin 1970; Dawson 1994; Kanter, Stein & Jick 1992 and Sadler 1996). For the purpose of this study, change will be viewed within an organisational context or perspective. Zaltman and Duncan (1977:6), however, assert that the most difficult conceptual issue is to adequately define change. Most people and objects are always in some state of fluctuation, and are therefore continuously changing. In its broadest sense, the changing of an organisation can therefore be viewed as the process of substantive modification to an existing organisation. Most managers agree that if an organisation is to be

successful, it must change continuously and change must become habit-forming (Sunday Times, 1997:21).

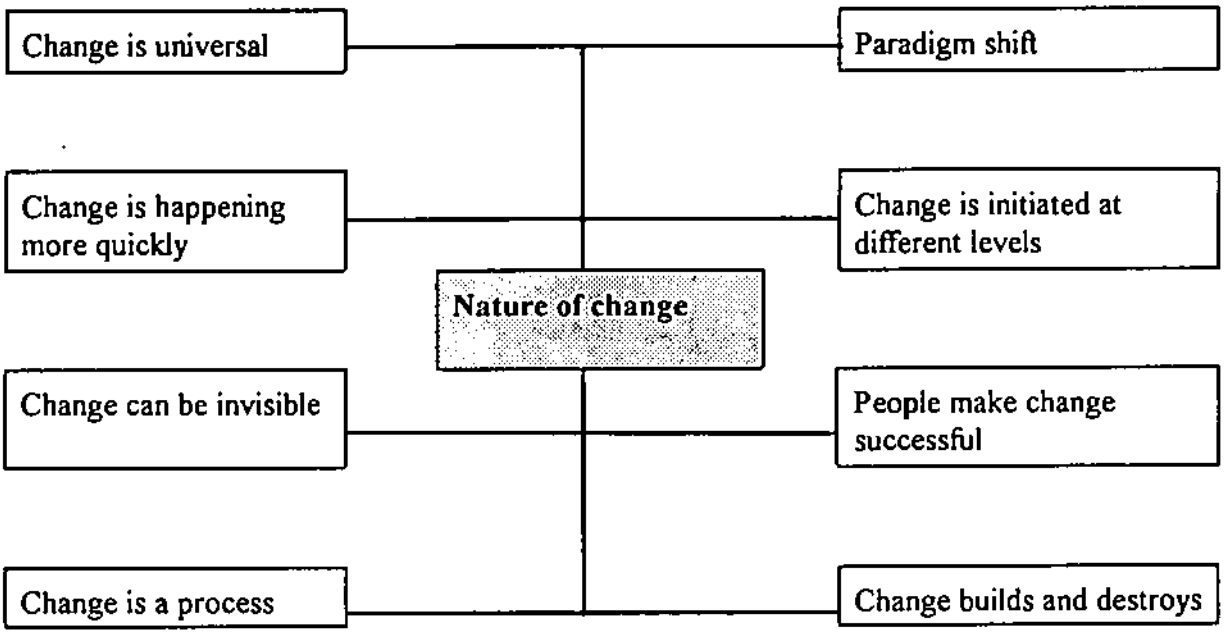
Pretorius (1996:20) stresses that "unless management acts, the more successful a firm has been in the past, the more likely it is to fail in the future - the new order management should be prepared to change, adapt, be flexible and ready to innovate." It is imperative that organisations start a transformation process, because organisations are like living organisms which need to be kept healthy by continual change in the:

* corporate brain (reframing)
* body (restructuring)
* environment (revitalisation)
* corporate spirit (renewal)

Mahoney (1991:9) maintains that the "concept of change is so fundamental and pervasive in modern thought that it often escapes our scrutiny." The earliest recorded writings on the nature of change are scattered over several centuries in the first millennium before Christ. The pivotal writings were those of two Greek philosophers. Parmendis (510 - 450 B.C.) asserted that there is no change - it is an illusion concealing the fundamentally timeless and static or fixed nature of reality. This view was opposed by Heraclitus (535 - 475 B.C.) who asserted that stability and permanence are an illusion and that there is nothing but change - all is in flux. The earliest and most influential work on the nature of change was the Book of Changes. These early inquiries into the fundamental nature of change are noteworthy for their joint recognition of contrast and opposition as central considerations and that change and stability are co-dependent concepts (Mahoney, 1991:10).

On the basis of this background and early history of the literature on change, it is important to highlight certain principles or aspects which describe the nature of change (refer to Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Aspects Illustrating the Nature of Change



These aspects which explain the nature of change will briefly be highlighted in the subsequent paragraphs. Change pervades all spheres of human activity and almost all aspects of organisations are effected by change (universal nature of change). Change is also coming about at a faster rate (it is happening more quickly). It has a self-generating impetus, because the more there is the more change there will be. Organisations need to act before others do - hence the need for speeding up the rate of change. Not all changes affecting organisations are readily visible. Some changes are imperceptible even to a skilled manager. A further aspect describing the nature of change is that many changes affecting organisations are part of a many-faceted process which takes place over a period of time. Such long-term change processes need to be carefully planned and monitored.

Some changes can happen more quickly and can have a greater effect on some organisations than on others, which is so profound, that it shakes the very foundation on which the organisation was built. This paradigm shift requires a whole new set of values, beliefs and ways of operating. Rossiter (1989:21) further argues that "transformative change entails a profound transmutation of the prevailing vision of reality - is accompanied by a fundamental shift in consciousness, values,

attitudes and perceptions and is in a real way a constitutional change of the organisation." Change within organisations is initiated on two different levels. The first level is profound, global and large-scale, resulting from political, economic or technological innovation. The second level of change is that initiated by the organisation itself. It is also important to bear in mind that it is people who make change successful. Special attempts need to be made to develop people to enable them to seek the benefits of change. Change can either build or destroy an organisation. If properly implemented, the organisation will flourish and grow or it can lead to the destruction of the organisation if the response is not effective (Wilson, 1994:47).

It should be clear that for organisations to be successful it must continually change in response to developments in the environment. Managers and change agents need to understand the nature of organisational change in order to implement it successfully. The following section will highlight the most important theories on change, which will provide a theoretical foundation or framework within which change can be discussed.

4.3 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CHANGE

Change management is not a distinct discipline with rigid and clearly defined boundaries. The theory and practice of change management draws on a number of social science disciplines (Burnes, 1992:152). Despite the rich literature on theories of change (see for example Lauer 1982 and Moore 1974), this section is limited to three schools of thought which form the core of change management theory and which can be applied within an organisational context.

4.3.1 The Individual Perspective School

According to Burnes (1996:175), this school of thought is split into two camps: Behaviourists and Gestalt-field psychologists. The former view behaviour as a result of an individual's interaction with the environment, while the latter argue that an individual's behaviour is the product of environment and reason. According to Behaviourist theory, all behaviour is learned - the

individual is the passive recipient of external and objective data. Gestalt-field theorists view learning as a process of gaining or changing insight, expectations and thought patterns. Behaviour is therefore not just a product of external stimuli, but arises as a result of the individual's reason for interpreting these stimuli.

4.3.2 The Group Dynamics School

The emphasis of this school is on bringing about organisational change through teams or work groups (not individuals). People within organisations work in groups and individual behaviour should therefore be seen, modified and changed in the light of the group's prevailing practices and norms. To bring about change, the focus must be at the group level - it will be useless to concentrate on changing the behaviour of individuals. Attempts should be made to change the group's norms, roles and values. The strengths of this school of thought are that organisations view themselves as comprising groups and teams, rather than merely a collection of individuals (Burnes, 1992:154).

4.3.3 The Open Systems School

According to this theory, organisations are seen as a composition of a number of interconnected subsystems. A change in one part of the system will have an impact on the other parts of the system and its overall performance. The organisation is viewed as an open system which interacts with its environment. Four principal organisational subsystems can be identified:

* Organisational goals and values subsystem
* Technical subsystem (knowledge, techniques and technology)
* Psychosocial subsystem (organisational culture)
* Managerial subsystem

The approach to change is reflected in the attempt to view organisations in their entirety - a holistic approach rather than a particularistic perspective (Burnes, 1996:177).

From the above three schools of thought, it appears that to change anything requires the co-operation and consent of the groups and individuals who make up an organisation. Change is brought about through people's behaviour. Vago (1989:27) provides a comprehensive analysis of various contributions to change theory. A discussion of these theories, however, falls beyond the scope of this study. Table 4.1 provides an exposition of these theories, in order to provide a picture or framework of change management theory.

Table 4.1: Theories of Change

THEORY	CONTRIBUTION
Evolutionary Theories (Comte, Morgan & Spencer)	Progressive development of social patterns over long periods of time. All societies pass through stages.
Conflict Theories (Marx, Coser & Dahrendorf	Behaviour can best be understood in terms of conflict/tension between groups and individuals. Change is viewed as an intrinsic process, not the outcome of improper or imbalanced functioning.
Structural-functional Theories (Parsons & Ogburn)	Structure is a system with relatively enduring patterns. Function refers to dynamic processes within the structure. Change is viewed as a fundamentally slow, adaptive process, rather than a revolutionary shift.
Systems Theory (Forrester & Buckley)	Society comprises functionally interdependent units and provides an orderly and coherent analysis of change.
Social-psychological Theories (Weber, Hagen & McClelland)	Societies develop as a result of the workings of psychological factors - if present, change will take place, if absent, stagnation will prevail. Deals with psychological determinants which drive people to act, invent, create or build.

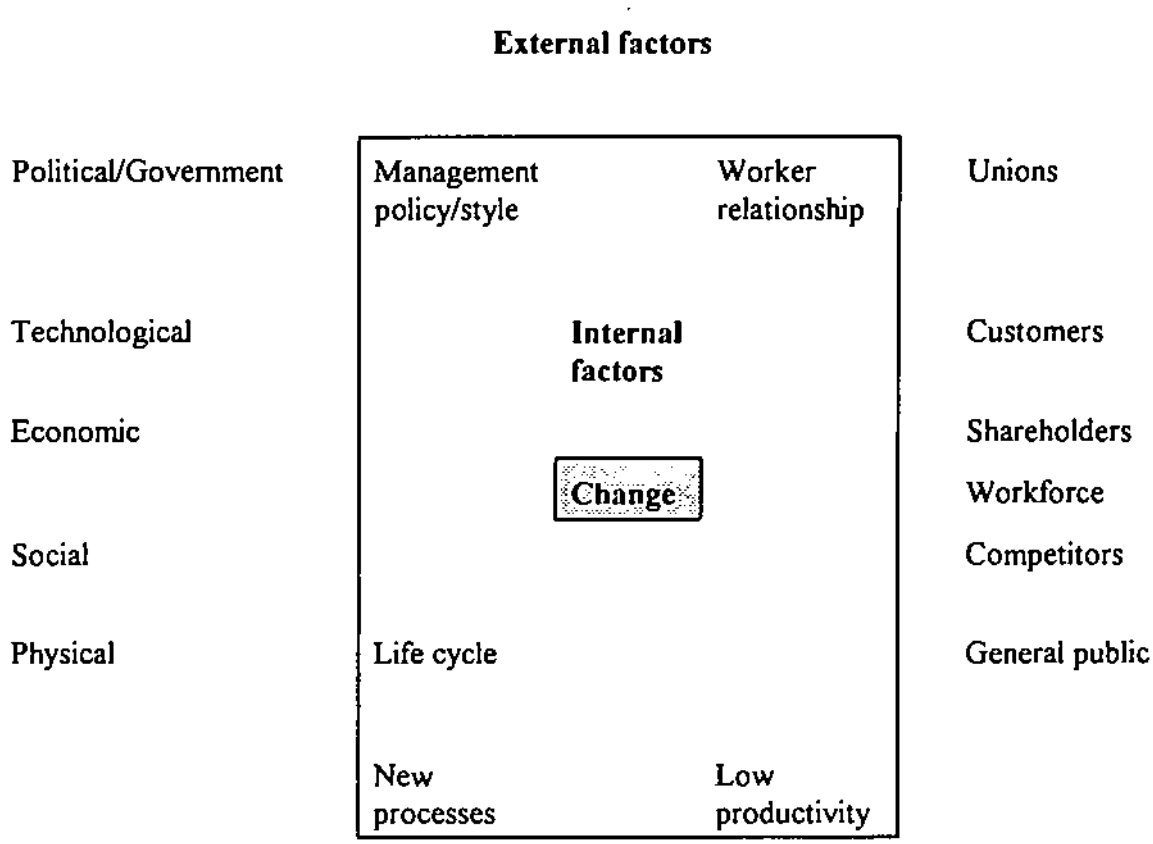
The change theories highlighted in Table 4.1 indicate the main contributors and the essence of each theory in the field of change management. The theories discussed provide a theoretical basis on which the other aspects of change are built. In the following section, an analysis will be made of the forces or reasons necessitating change in an organisation.

4.4 REASONS FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

This section answers the question as to why organisations find it necessary to change. Cave (1994:26) states that there is accelerating pressure on organisations to change - these pressures "have brought about dramatic transformation in the economic and industrial landscape, reshaping many patterns and features that had previously been taken for granted ...". Van Wyk (1985:71), however, is of the opinion that there is no science of change and no academic subject dealing with all the complexities of change. Despite this notion, Cronje (1980:94) advocates careful consideration of change management, which calls for a greater environmental awareness by management.

It appears that the forces or factors necessitating change in an organisation are well covered in change management literature (see for example Blunt & Jones 1992; Consultive Business Movement 1993; Lovell 1994 and Thompson 1995). Griffin (1993:391) argues that a primary reason for the problems often faced by organisations is the failure to anticipate or respond to changing circumstances. In this regard, Veldsman (1995:35) stresses that the action taken by an organisation serves to defuse the tension arising out of the difference between where the organisation is and where it wants to be - the nature and degree of tension are direct expressions of the need for change faced by the organisation (the "why?" of change). As shown in Figure 4.2, the forces or factors for change may be internal or external to the organisation.

Figure 4.2: Factors which Necessitate Change



Source: Adapted from Van Niekerk (1988:181)

Some of the internal and external factors indicated in Figure 4.2 will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

4.4.1 Internal Factors

A variety of factors inside the organisation may cause change. Bennis et al., (1970:571) refer to these factors collectively as organisational revitalisation - " a complex process which involves a deliberate and self-conscious examination of organisational behaviour and a collaborative relationship between managers and scientists to improve performance." Bleicher (1994:136) contends that there is an increasing awareness of a change paradigm in management. Managers

need to be "masters of change" rather than its victims, which poses an increased challenge to management in periods of transition. Different management policies or styles, new processes and procedures, worker relationships and low productivity, can all trigger change.

4.4.2 External Factors

The rapidly changing environment in which organisations operate, creates continuous pressure for change. Some of the most important external factors necessitating change will be briefly highlighted in the subsequent paragraphs.

(a) Political

Block (1992:8) and Lane (1994:62) indicate the critical role of empowerment and political reform inside the organisation as a major driving force for change. Besides the changes in local, regional and national politics, organisations need to contend with political reform which changes the governance system in the workplace and addresses the question of where control and power resides. Examples of political reform in the organisation are: productivity improvement methodologies, unionisation, employee stock ownership movement and human relations movement. All these areas involve dramatic change in the functioning of the organisation.

(b) Technology

Ryan (1994:10) is of the opinion that new technology is a very strong catalyst for change. Technology has the capacity to change both the circumstances of human life and the character of organisations. One can demonstrate this throughout history, where technological innovations have been a moving force in change. Changes in agricultural technology resulted in food surpluses. The change from human to machine technology has transformed the workplace with workers becoming alienated from their work, due to highly monotonous and routine work (Vago, 1989:86).

(c) Economy

According to Gxwala (1995:12), factors such as the decrease in unemployment, the rate of inflation, interest rates and recession have had a profound impact on organisations. Aspects such as the increasing awareness for the need of a stronger, customer-driven and results-orientated organisational culture, changing international trade relations, entry of black controlled capital into the corporate sector and the creation of a more market orientated development environment, are some examples of economic forces demanding change from South African organisations.

(d) Social

Social pressures generate change which is related to the way people think and act in everyday life. People's attitudes, values and expectations change overtime. The growth rate in population directly influences the food and housing industries and employment opportunities. Organisations need to respond to these social pressures by, for example, improving working conditions, employing more women in the labour force and learning how to handle the oversupply of unskilled labour (Binneman, 1988:25).

(e) Physical

Various forces in the physical or natural environment can trigger change. According to Van Wyk (1985:73), aspects such as changing weather conditions, the decline in naturally occurring plants and animals, exploitation of natural resources and pollution are some examples of factors in the physical environment that can necessitate change. Organisations need to react to these changes in order to be competitive and relevant.

Other factors such as shareholders, customer needs, competitors' actions and the general public can also influence the functioning of an organisation and may give rise to the need for change. Table 4.2 practically indicates the rapid and radical change in the business environment of International Business Machines (IBM).

Table 4.2: IBM: Rapid and Radical Change in the Business Environment

PAST	PRESENT
Few customers	Millions of customers
Predictable technological change	Exploding rate of change
Hardware-dominated	Software, systems and solutions
Direct sales force	Business partners and alliances
Traditional competition	Thousands of competitors
One set of terms and conditions	Many ways of doing business

Source: Sadler (1996:21)

It should be clear that it is difficult to describe change accurately, but some new paradigms have emerged to facilitate the observation and analysis thereof. The organisation operates in a fast changing environment in which various factors create a complex and often unstable environment. It is therefore necessary for management to consider management for change, which calls for a greater environmental awareness by management.

To conclude this section, Manning (1988:30) provides eight key factors which are at work to ensure that no matter how well any organisation is doing, its success will be short-lived. These factors represent changes which pose challenges to the organisation:

* Rapidly increasing competition from new and unexpected sources.
* Changing demographics (eg. population composition and family sizes) and psychographics (lifestyles and social classes).
* New technology which is changing the basis of competition.
* The new global economy.
* The shift from manufacturing to service industries.
* The new proliferation of corporate stakeholders.
* Managing the new workforce and coping with a shortage of skilled labour.
* The rapid rise of the "green" movement (concern for the environment).

Section 4.5 below deals with the aspect of how to prepare an organisation for change.

4.5 PREPARING FOR CHANGE

Survival in a complex and turbulent environment means learning to manage discontinuous change (Graetz, 1996:304). Kanter et al., (1992:490) also contend that deliberate attempts to change organisations are ultimately driven by someone's belief that the organisation should perform better. All these attempts to change will be fruitless if not properly prepared and planned. This section investigates some ground rules on how to prepare an organisation for change.

According to Wilson (1994:21), one of the most important issues in organisational change programmes is to take note of the different perceptions that people have. People at different levels in the organisation will have different understanding and perception of the changing situation. Balancing these sometimes opposing perceptions is a crucial task for the change makers. It is therefore important that a constant sensitivity and check measure should be built into the process when considering how the change is being perceived.

Bertsch and Williams (1994:13) stress the importance of legitimacy of any change initiative, ensuring that the change is seen as legitimate by all members of the organisation. A sense of urgency needs to be created which will change people's attitudes and behaviour. The involvement of all stakeholders can promote the legitimacy of the proposed change, as well as formulating and communicating meaningful objectives.

Along these lines, Nel (1994:10) postulates that the challenge of organisational transformation lies in democracy in the workplace. The economic superiority of high involvement and participative workplaces is demonstrated through the translation and introduction of governance systems which should entrench the following organisational practices: transparency and openness of information; legitimacy, endorsement and support of those being managed; freedom from fear of victimisation, meaningful influence in decision-making; open access to sources of power; high involvement and participative workplace practices; non-bureaucratic and flat structures;

empowerment through the entrenchment of reciprocal rights and accountabilities; reintegration of the formulation (thinking) and implementation (doing) activities and systems of congruent and shared values.

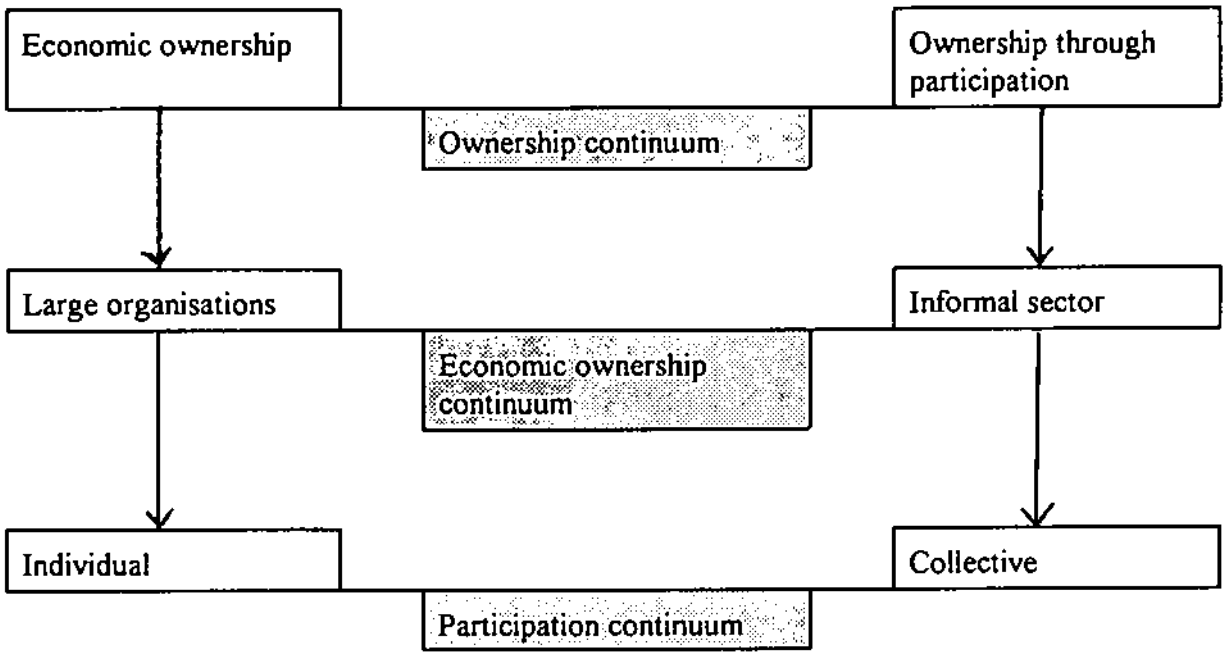
Wilson (1994:71) further maintains that a key factor in understanding change is to identify and review the fundamental principles or philosophy of the organisation. Quite often, the values, principles and practices which served in the past, are no longer relevant. Proposed changes are often a complete reversal of what had previously been accepted. Table 4.3 below depicts some principles which constitute the organisation's philosophy.

Table 4.3: Organisational Philosophy Principles

1.	Organisational vulnerability	6.	Teamwork culture
2.	Manageable units	7.	Leadership / management style
3.	Encouraging and rewarding differences or similarities	8.	Importance of customers
4.	Flattening of hierarchies	9.	Quality revolution
5.	Empowering individuals	10.	Developing / training people

The Consultive Business Movement (1993:33) emphasises the broadening of the ownership and management base as an important aspect in preparing an organisation for change. Figure 4.3 illustrates this aspect.

Figure 4.3: Broadening of the Ownership and Management Base



Source: Business Consultive Movement (1993:38)

According to Figure 4.3, ownership ranges on a continuum from economic ownership (equity holding, risk capital and financial control) to participation in management processes. Ownership can range from ownership in the formal sector through to the informal sector. Ownership through participatory decision-making processes in organisations can range from collective (group) participation to individual participation in the ranks of management. The broadening of the ownership and management base is therefore an important vehicle for preparing the organisation for any major changes.

Sadler (1996:83) highlights two important factors in preparing the ground for change. The first factor is to create a climate in which change is accepted as inevitable. This can be accomplished by making objective comparisons between the organisation's own performance and the best practice existing elsewhere (bench marking) or to carry out surveys among relevant groups and publicising the results. All of this can lead to the acceptance of the need for change. The second factor is to create a positive need for change through the creation of a shared vision and a sense

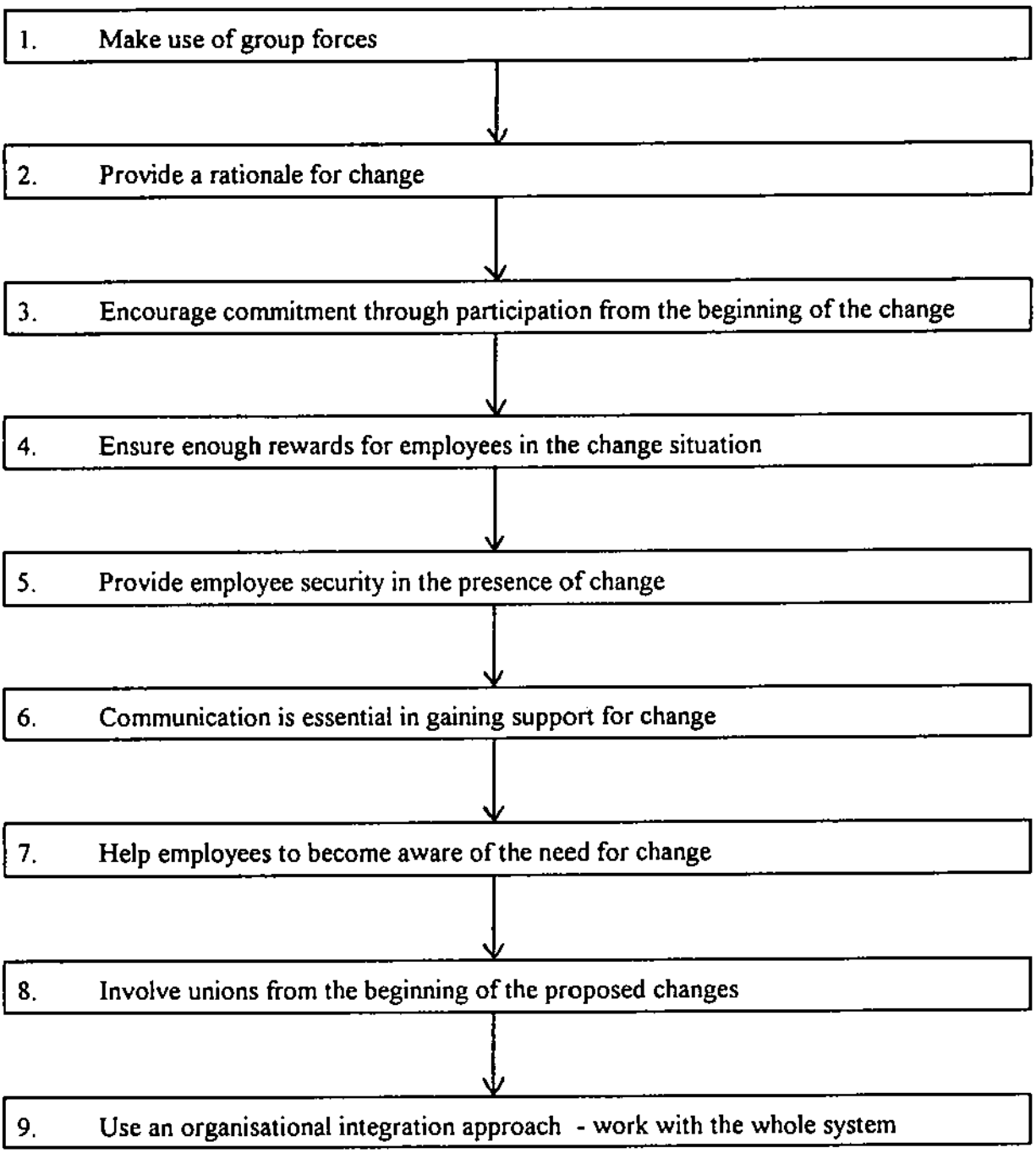
of mission (also see Graetz, 1996:308). Table 4.4 indicates, in a practical way, how the organisation can create a positive need for change.

Table 4.4: Creating a Positive Need for Change

ACTIVITY		IMPLICATION
1.	Business manager/ People's manager	Profit is made by people, not products. People need to be effectively managed and developed.
2.	Direction	Everyone must have detailed knowledge of objectives and strategies.
3.	Strategic thinking	A continuous identification of future opportunities should take place.
4.	High value outputs	Focus should not be on input or effort, but on quality output.
5.	Team work	Effective sharing of talent.
6.	Development	Commitment to developing employees to full potential.
7.	Can-do attitude	Managers should set the pace and lead by example.
8.	Innovation	Management should set the framework for creativity.
9.	Difficult issues	Confront and solve problems - do not ignore or hide them.
10.	Self-measurement	Employees should continually challenge and appraise their own actions.

Another important aspect that can prepare an organisation for change is to build support for change. Selected activities to build support for change are illustrated in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Building Support for Change

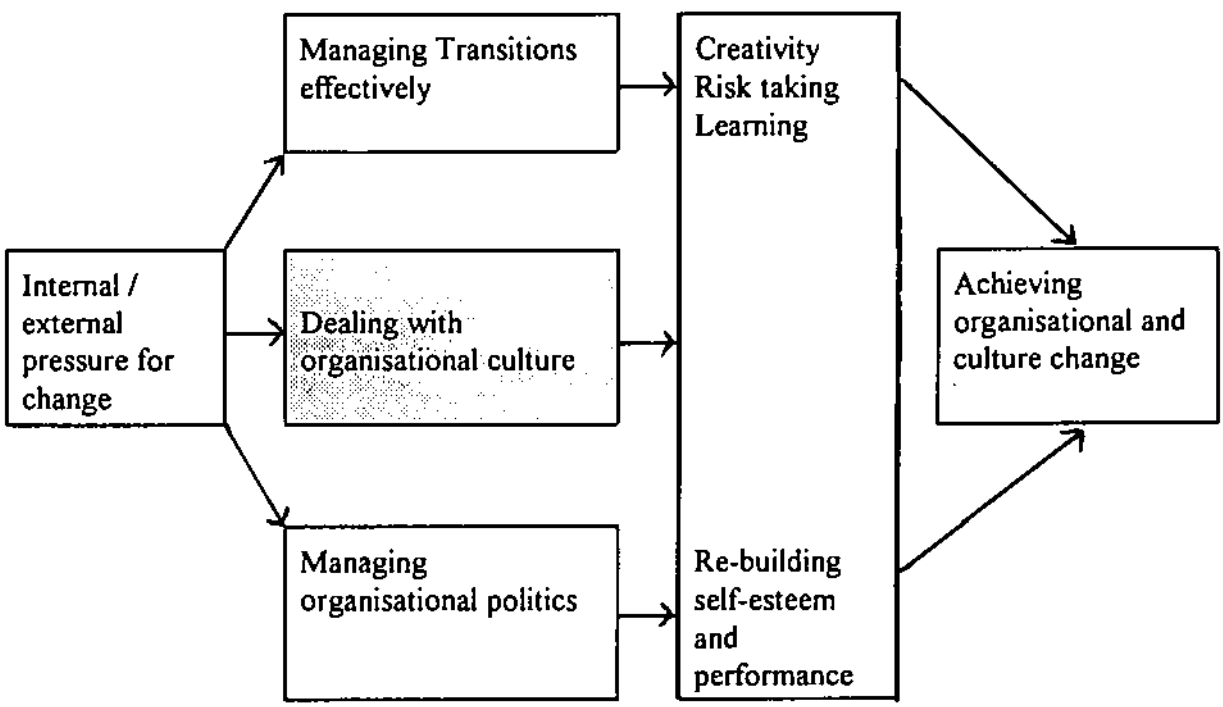


Source: Newstrom and Davis (1993:283)

Ishizuna (1990:9) and Burnes (1992:263) contend that creating the right organisational culture is also an important aspect to consider when preparing the organisation for change. The literature

on organisational culture (see for example Hampden-Turner 1990; Handy 1985, Kono 1994 and Trice & Beyer 1993) emphasises the behaviour and procedures involved in bringing about successful change. If the organisation's culture does not support these types of activities, change will then be much more difficult and may not be successful. Organisations must therefore ensure that the changes to be introduced, match the culture of the organisation, if not, change the culture. Although researchers (see for example Basil & Cook 1974, Burack 1991 and Dunford 1992) attest to the fact that it is difficult to change the culture of an organisation, Human and Horwitz (1992:8) and Haskins and Mitchell (1989:28) contend that a truly successful culture is one which institutionalises change. Figure 4.5 illustrates the management of organisational and culture change.

Figure 4.5: Management of Organisational and Culture Change



Source: Adapted from Carnall (1989:136)

Misselhorn (1997:39) asserts that the challenge to understand and manage change in organisations is a never-ending mystery. The following could be regarded as some basic principles in understanding change and preparing the organisation for change:

* Feedback is the basic source of information and inspiration for change - the scanning of the environment provides feedback about the context in which organisations operate, without any feedback there can be no inspiration for change.
* Organisational members need insight into themselves from the feedback they get - feedback is not enough unless it means something personal. Change happens from the inside out and the employees need to know what is happening inside themselves (fears, hopes, expectations, failures, talents and gifts).
* The proposed change becomes a real hope when it is turned into a tangible and personal target - the feedback received can provide the basis for setting goals to be achieved. Goals need to be relevant, visible and tangible.
* Unless the "heart" is in the change, no movement will take place and well-stated goals will be insufficient to move a person towards change. The desire to change must come from dissatisfaction with the status quo.
* High expectations of success can help a person to move into action. Barriers such as old habits, lack of ability, insufficient resources and authority and structural barriers need to be removed for real change to take place.
* The appropriate involvement of all stakeholders can help to prepare people for change and to enrich the change process. The bottom line is not so much the skills and techniques for involving others, but the sensitivity and respect for others without losing sight of where the organisation is going and how best to get there.

The last aspect to be discussed with regard to the preparation for change is the necessity for self-introspection. Mbigi and Maree (1994:31) postulate that organisations must be prepared to undertake an inward journey of self-discovery - who they are and what they can become. There should be a search for a new national psyche. During self-introspection, attempts should be made to identify people's fears regarding changing.

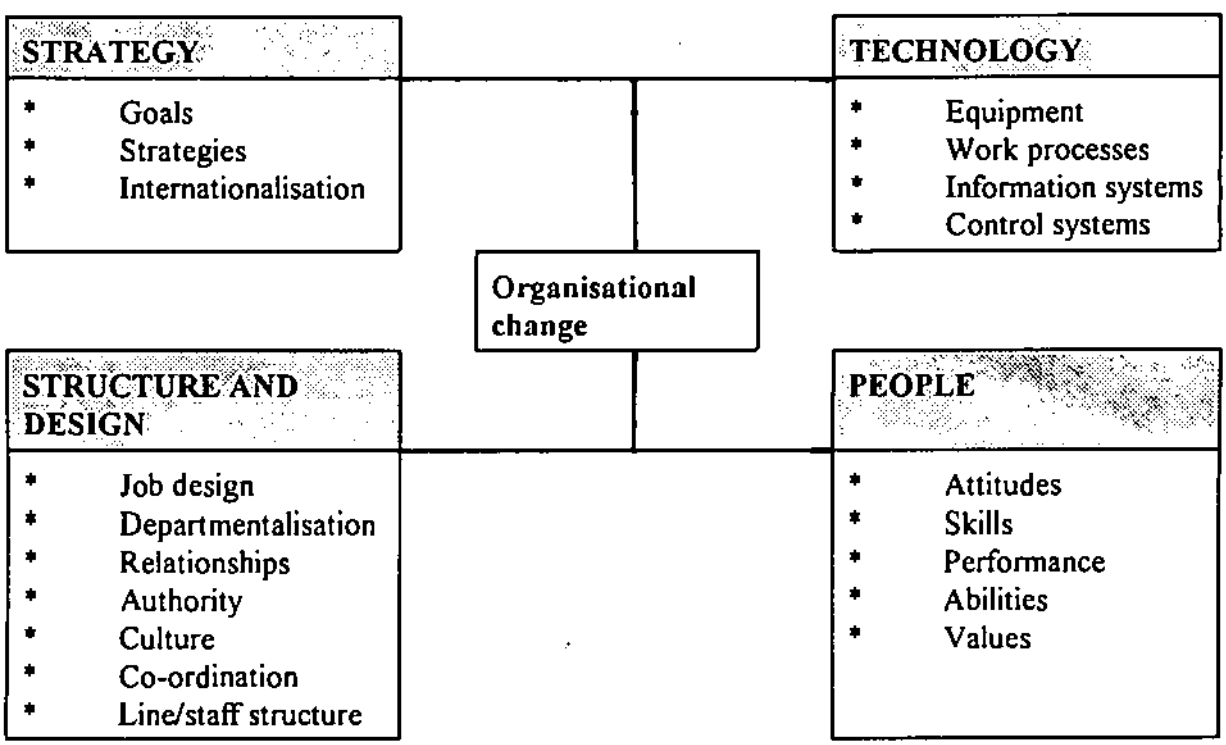
From what was discussed above, it can be deducted that an organisation cannot just embark on some form of change, without preparing the ground. Various aspects need to be taken into consideration, which can prepare the organisation, before initiating any change.

The following section highlights the major areas of organisational change.

4.6 AREAS OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

A further important factor to be considered by managers and change agents is what should be changed within the organisation? Organisational change can involve virtually any part of an organisation. In general, most change interventions involve strategy, structure and design, technology or operations and people. Figure 4.6 illustrates the most common areas of change within each broad category.

Figure 4.6: Areas of Organisational Change



Source: Adapted from Griffin (1990:401)

4.6.1 Changing Strategy

According to Montgomery and Porter (1991:403), a change in organisational strategy is a planned attempt to alter the organisation's alignment with its environment. Mintzberg and Quinn (1991:759) also assert that to manage strategy is frequently to manage change - to recognise when a strategic shift is necessary. For example, an organisation may change its strategic goals and corporate, business and functional strategies. It may also decide to enter into a new joint venture or to move into international markets. All of these attempts require a change in the strategy of the organisation. Initiating new strategies can be influential in shaping people's behaviour and everyone involved in the change process needs to realise its' importance (Wilson, 1994:136).

4.6.2 Changing Structure and Design

According to Aldag and Stearns (1991:263) and Mintzberg (1983:2), this refers to changes in "the sum of ways in which labour is divided into distinct tasks and that its co-ordination is achieved among these tasks." To cut costs as well as gain flexibility and responsiveness, organisations need to redesign its internal forms. These modifications can take on several forms: clarifying and defining jobs; modifying organisational structure; changing reporting relationships, authority distribution and the culture of the organisation. The primary focus of structural change is to change the organisational structure (Certo, 1989:293).

4.6.3 Changing Technology

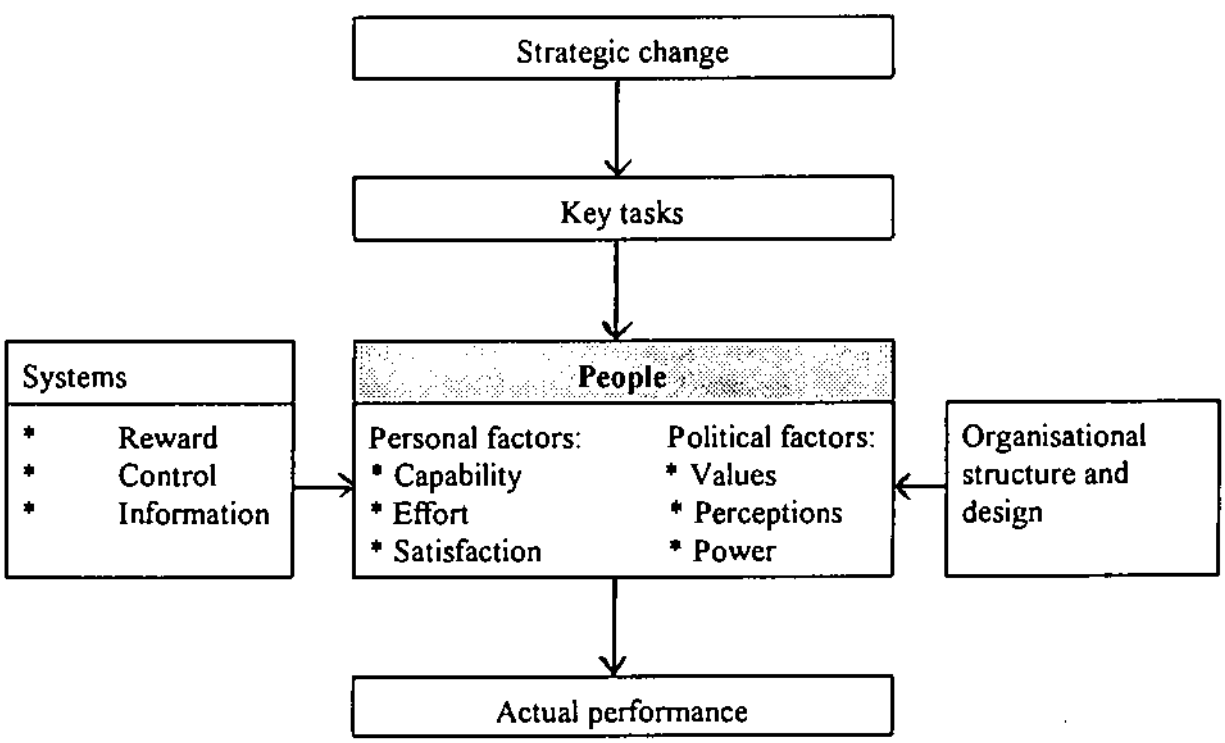
Technological change refers to change in equipment, tolls, work processes, systems and materials (Pearce & Robinson, 1989:383). Due to the rapid rate of technological innovation, technological and operational change has become increasingly important to many organisations. In order to be competitive, changing technology should be a major concern and interest for all organisations. Hellriegel and Slocum (1996:693) and Van Fleet (1988:458) highlight one form of technological

change which has become especially important - information technology. Changes in computer networks and telecommunication systems make heavy demands on organisations to adapt to these changes.

4.6.4 Changing People

According to Boveè, Thill, Wood and Dovel (1993:349), the main focus is to change or to alter people's skills, knowledge, attitudes, values and behaviour. Although change in strategy, structure and design and technology is important, it cannot occur without the intervention of people. Brill and Worth (1997:114) and Lessem (1991:104) emphasise the importance of the human factor in change and especially a need for change in management and leadership. Quite often changes are made in the other areas of organisational change, without a change in people. Figure 4.7 shows the importance of a change in people.

Figure 4.7: How to Change People



Source: Johnson and Scholes (1984:311)

Although the organisation is confronted with a wide range of changes, all changes can be categorised into these four main areas: strategy, structure and design, technology and operations and people. The change agent should realise that a change in one area may lead to a change in other areas. The four areas should therefore not be seen as separate components, but as an integrated whole.

Having identified the major areas of organisational change above, a comprehensive device, known as the McKinsey 7-S framework or model of change (Peters & Waterman, 1982:9), warrants attention. This device was developed to help strategists and change agents to evaluate organisations along seven dimensions, thereby identifying organisational strengths and weaknesses (areas where change is needed). These seven dimensions are strategy, skills, staff, style, systems, structure and shared values. This framework conceptualises the interconnections between what an organisation does and why these interconnections are important in trying to effect change. Van Tonder, De Bruyn and Kruger (1998:1) concur that for an organisation to survive in a changing business environment, adaptation in all seven areas is required. Change is therefore something the organisation has to live with and which will never be completed.

The major approaches or strategies of change are analysed in the subsequent section.

4.7 CHANGE STRATEGIES

The abundant and relevant literature reveals various approaches or strategies in dealing with change. These strategies vary from power, interactional, problem-solving, facilitative, strategic and persuasive approaches (see for example Brammer 1991; Curtis & Stricker 1991; Grundy & King 1992; Joyce & Woods 1996 and Taylor 1995). For the purpose of this study, three models which provide various change strategies will be analysed. It should be acknowledged that these models are a simplification, in that the change dimensions are continuous and not discreet variables and that different parts of the organisation or workforce may be subjected to different strategies.

4.7.1 Change Strategies Proposed by Dunphy and Stace

According to Dunphy and Stace (1990:82), the choice of a change strategy is a key factor in determining whether a particular change enhances performance. Central to the model (depicted in Figure 4.8) is the argument that selection of a change strategy should be based on a strategic analysis of the situation. Three factors or variables are used to characterise a situation:

* Extent to which current organisational practices are "in fit" with environmental conditions.
* Extent to which there is resistance to the proposed change.
* Urgency with which the change must be implemented.

Figure 4.8: Change Strategies

	Scale of change			
Style of management	Fine tuning	Incremental adjustment	Modular Transformation	Corporate Transformation
Collaborative Consultive	Participative evolution		Charismatic transformation	
Directive Coercive	Forced evolution		Dictatorial transformation	

Source: Dunphy and Stace (1990:82)

(a) Participative Evolution

This strategy is appropriate when the organisation is in fit with environmental conditions but needs minor adjustments, or is out of fit, but time is available and key stakeholders favour change. The scale of change involves some fine tuning and incremental adjustment to the areas of change which have been discussed above. The style of management ranges between collaborative and consultative.

(b) Charismatic Transformation

This change strategy is applicable when the organisation is out of fit with environmental conditions, when the need for change is urgent and when key interest groups support substantial change. The scale of change ranges between modular and corporate transformation. A collaborative/consultative management style seems appropriate.

(c) Forced Evolution

When the organisation is in fit with environmental conditions, but needs minor adjustments or is out of fit although time is available, or when key stakeholders oppose change, can this strategy be applied. A directive/coercive style of management seems to be appropriate.

(d) Dictatorial Transformation

Organisations can make use of this strategy when they are out of fit with environmental conditions and when the need for change is urgent and interest groups oppose substantial change. The style of management needs to be directive and/or coercive.

Analysis of this model reveals the complexity of the organisation-environment relationship. The three variables (degree of fit, resistance and urgency) are treated as relatively unambiguous. The value of the model is that it encourages reflexitivity with regard to the change strategy-context relationship.

4.7.2 Change Strategies Proposed by Gould

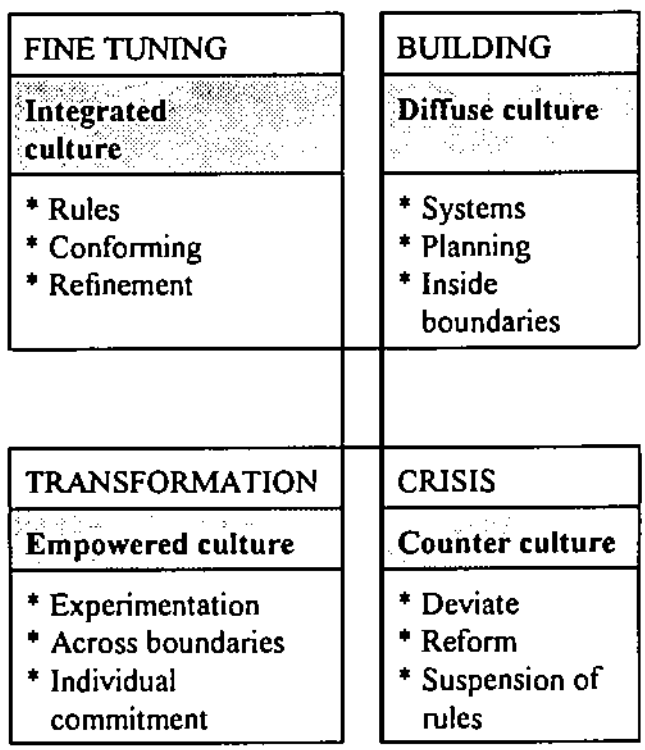
Gould (1996:278) asserts that organisations are struggling to "engineer" into their organisations the flexibility and capability for continuous transformation. A particular change strategy should be driven from carefully defined processes for change, and be supported by the proper enabling condition. This model assumes to identify what processes are involved in different change programmes and to relate specific change processes to particular change strategies.

The results are summarised in the Change Wheel (see Figure 4.9). The model describes four distinct change strategies.

Figure 4.9: The Change Wheel

Conservation
Change agent:
continuator

Preservation
Change agent:
diffuser,
strategist,
communicator,
negotiator



Innovation
Change agent:
interventionist,
people based

Revolution
Change agent:
revolutionary
separate

Source: Adapted from Gould (1996:279)

Figure 4.9 illustrates four enabling cultural conditions (integrated, empowered, diffuse and counter culture) - the context within which change is taking place, as well as four strategies and the key processes related to each strategy.

(a) Fine Tuning

Fine-tuning employs a strategy of refinement in which incremental changes are made in the processes and routines which build on the core competencies of the organisation. The change programme uses widely recognised procedures and accepted operational standards. The enabling condition which supports a fine-tuning strategy is an integrated culture. This culture is best suited to support change processes related to protecting and sustaining an organisation's existing core competencies. This culture allows for the swift and efficient diffusion of change, because core values are widely shared.

(b) Building

This strategy employs planning through which the organisation's core competencies are further established and made routine. This strategy is rational, often leading to the creation of a formal change programme, which is communicated and monitored through official established organisational structures. The enabling condition which supports a building strategy requires a diffuse culture. Managers realise that organisational culture may not be shared universally in the context of globalisation. Diffusion of change is slower, because fundamental change must flow from the top or centre, but implementation must match the local culture. The implementation of the change programme is adapted to suit local conditions.

(c) Transformation

This follows a strategy of experimentation, as opposed to planning. There is a marked increase in one-to-one interaction. The change is not implemented with formal mass communication programmes, but defined and implemented by the actors themselves. The enabling condition supporting a transformation strategy is an empowered culture. Boundary definitions and functional distinctions are very vague. The predominant cultural value is one of multiple values, beliefs and codes of conduct. Continuous change is the norm. All parts of the organisation are in motion, challenging traditional concepts of change - organised chaos is the rule.

(d) Crisis

This strategy suspends all existing routines and organisational structures and is often accompanied by dramatic shifts in leadership and power. Existing standards are suspended or abandoned and unorthodox methods are employed. The enabling cultural condition is a counter culture.

This change wheel (Figure 4.9) and its processes (Table 4.5) allow managers to understand where to focus their efforts, what processes to use and where to move to in the future. It should be noted that these change strategies are simultaneously active and ongoing in any change effort (not exclusive and sequential). The top half of the change wheel (fine tuning and building) includes strategies and processes which are familiar to strategists. It is primarily concerned with formalising change - the adoption or sustaining of change efforts. The bottom half of the wheel (transformation and crisis) describes the initiation of change - a radical departure for the organisation into new markets and products. An understanding of the relationship between the various change processes is therefore crucial. The various processes for change, applicable to each change strategy, are illustrated in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Processes for Change

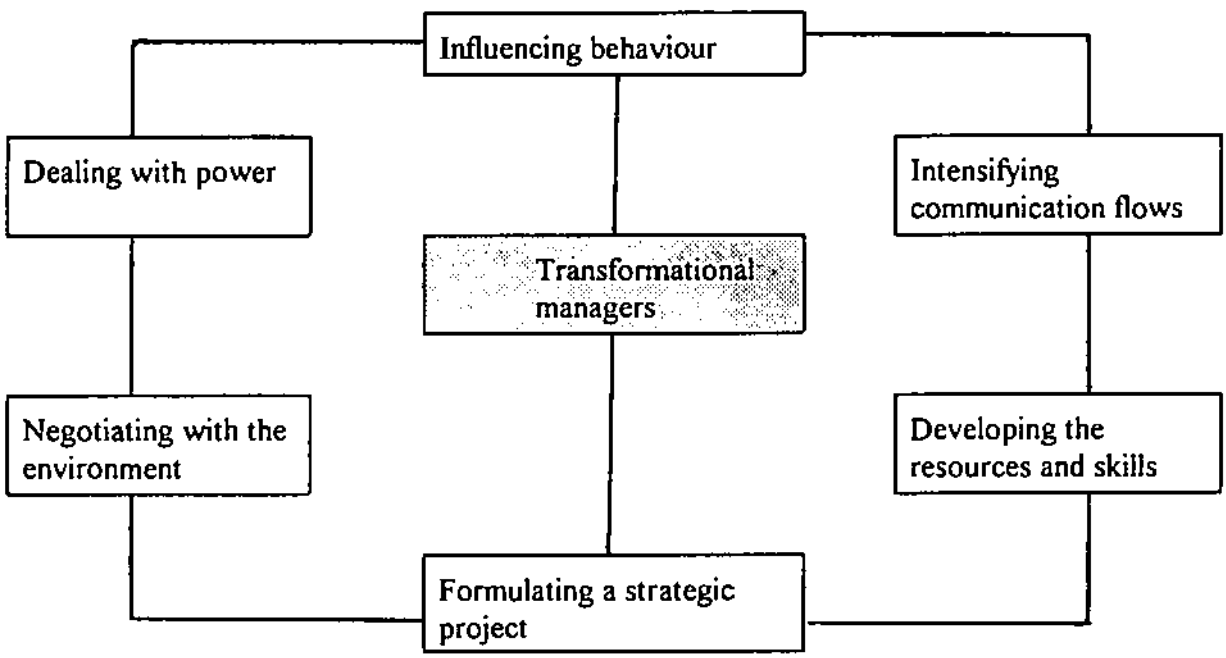
FINE TUNING		CRISIS
	Strategy	
Refinement: * Incremental changes in established structures and processes * Consistent with the past * Building on core competencies		*Reform:* * Suspension of existing structures and routines * Shift in leadership and power * Forced adjustment to newly introduced processes
	Standards	
Conform: * Correction of deviations * Education or training efforts * Methods involving mutual trust		*Deviate:* * Ignore existing structures * No consent sought * Actions appear strange and unorthodox
	Procedures	
Rules: * Routinise procedures and norms are invoked * Widely recognised and accepted		*Suspension of rules:* * Authority and cultural norms come under pressure * Loss of credibility * Routines completely disrupted
BUILDING		**TRANSFORMING**
	Strategy	
Planning: * Rational and deliberate * Facts gathered and analysed * Formal programme established		*Experimentation:* * Active experimentation/ testing * Emphasis on innovation and discovery
	Standards	
Inside boundaries * Within functional areas * Within established structures		*Across boundaries:* * "Non-institutional" * Breaks out of organisational structure * Use temporary groups
	Procedures	
Organisational systems: * Official organisational channels * Political and bureaucratic systems		*Local development:* * One-to-one interactions increase * Change initiated at local level * Direct action programmes

Source: Gould (1996:280)

4.7.3 Change Strategies Proposed by Calori and Atamer

According to Calori and Atamer (1990:44), reducing the gap between strategies and actions is a key challenge for managers. Managing strategic change requires a systematic approach which combines several interrelated actions (see Figure 4.10).

Figure 4.10: A Problem-solving, Action Orientated Approach to Change



Source: Calori and Atamer (1990:45)

(a) Formulating a Strategic Project

The focus is on operational planning of concrete actions. For each strategic move, critical persons are identified and concrete actions are listed with an estimate of the resources involved. In order to react quickly to signals of change and to seize opportunities, skills in environmental scanning are required.

(b) Developing the Resources and Skills

Changes such as delocalisation, technological turnaround and internationalisation, require financial resources and new skills. The development of technological skills and human resources must be used as a strategic weapon. It is important to link human resources development and technological skills to general strategic reorientations.

(c) Negotiating with the Environment

In order to use the right approach to change, an organisation has to influence its environment, neutralise resisting forces and use the support of external forces.

(d) Dealing with Power

It is important for the manager or change agent to understand the power system in the organisation. The distribution of power should take the form of a systematic analysis of critical persons, considering their power and attitude towards the expected change.

(e) Improving Internal Communication of Strategy

Intense communication is crucial for the implementation of strategies and the emergence of strategic actions. This can be done through adapting the general organisational structure to the new strategic orientation and reducing the number of hierarchical levels. Management should also implant practices to stimulate communication, such as job rotation, an open-door policy and participative management.

(f) Influencing Norms of Behaviour

Managers need to be aware of the actual values and norms of behaviour which characterise the organisation. The culture of an organisation can play an important role in adapting to changes needed in the organisation.

(g) Developing Transformational Managers

Top management and a few managers from other levels must form a "nucleus" or cluster of change agents. The cluster includes the top manager and those persons who are proactive towards the proposed change.

These seven approaches or strategies to change represent a problem-solving, action orientated approach towards transformation of the organisation. Joyce and Woods (1996:236) and Havelock and Havelock (1973:8) also propose a problem-solving approach towards change. Jackson (1997:54), however, criticises contemporary change approaches, such as total quality management and business reengineering and suggests a different approach - one which focus on building change into the organisation. This consists of two interrelated cycles, one being a process of fine tuning the organisation so that it can meet its purpose and significant discontinuities in the environment, and the other a significant rethinking of the organisation's fundamental purpose and values.

A few concluding remarks on this section are devoted to the aspect of business process reengineering (BPR). According to Calitz and Calitz (1998:1), business process reengineering, as an approach to change, focuses on continuous business improvement in order to survive in a changing environment and to improve overall organisational performance. Individual tasks and functions need to be reexamined in terms of how they contribute to the end result. The Board of Trustees of the University of South Carolina (1997:Online) also stresses the fact that there is a need among organisations to look beyond incremental process improvement to a more dramatic process change. Organisational transformation is realised through improvements in processes and reengineering efforts which typically impact organisational design, human resources and communication architecture, reward and information systems. Business process reengineering may be placed along a spectrum from process improvement, requiring an understanding of the existing business process prior to redesign, to radical reengineering which stresses the design of totally new processes, based on a powerful organisational vision. Further discussion on business process reengineering falls beyond the scope and purpose of this study.

This section on approaches or strategies for change is concluded with seven transformation stages (Coopers & Lybrand, 1996:Online) which is listed below in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Transformation Stages

TRANSFORMATION STAGE	IMPLICATION
1. Potential	To form a view of the potential for achieving transformation.
2. Vision	Define the future desired for the organisation (the vision must act as a focal point for the change effort).
3. Strategy	The "how" of the transformation - broad capabilities, main change components and critical success factors must be spelled out.
4. Agenda	The co-ordinated, feasible programme of organisational changes which will make up the transformation.
5. Creation	Blue printing, testing and planning changes which will create the new organisation.
6. Transformation	The new organisation becomes real, implementing the radical changes required to deliver the transformation.
7. Mastery	Learning to exploit the possibilities of and grow within the new paradigm created by the transformation.

Table 4.6 illustrates various approaches for initiating change in the organisation. All these approaches can be regarded as stepping stones in transforming the organisation and are required because of external threats or opportunities. Not one can be disregarded as being unimportant, otherwise the transformation effort will not be successful. Despite all these various approaches or change strategies, it is important for the change agent to understand the nature of change itself, the organisation and its environment.

The following section sets out to examine the aspect of resistance to change.

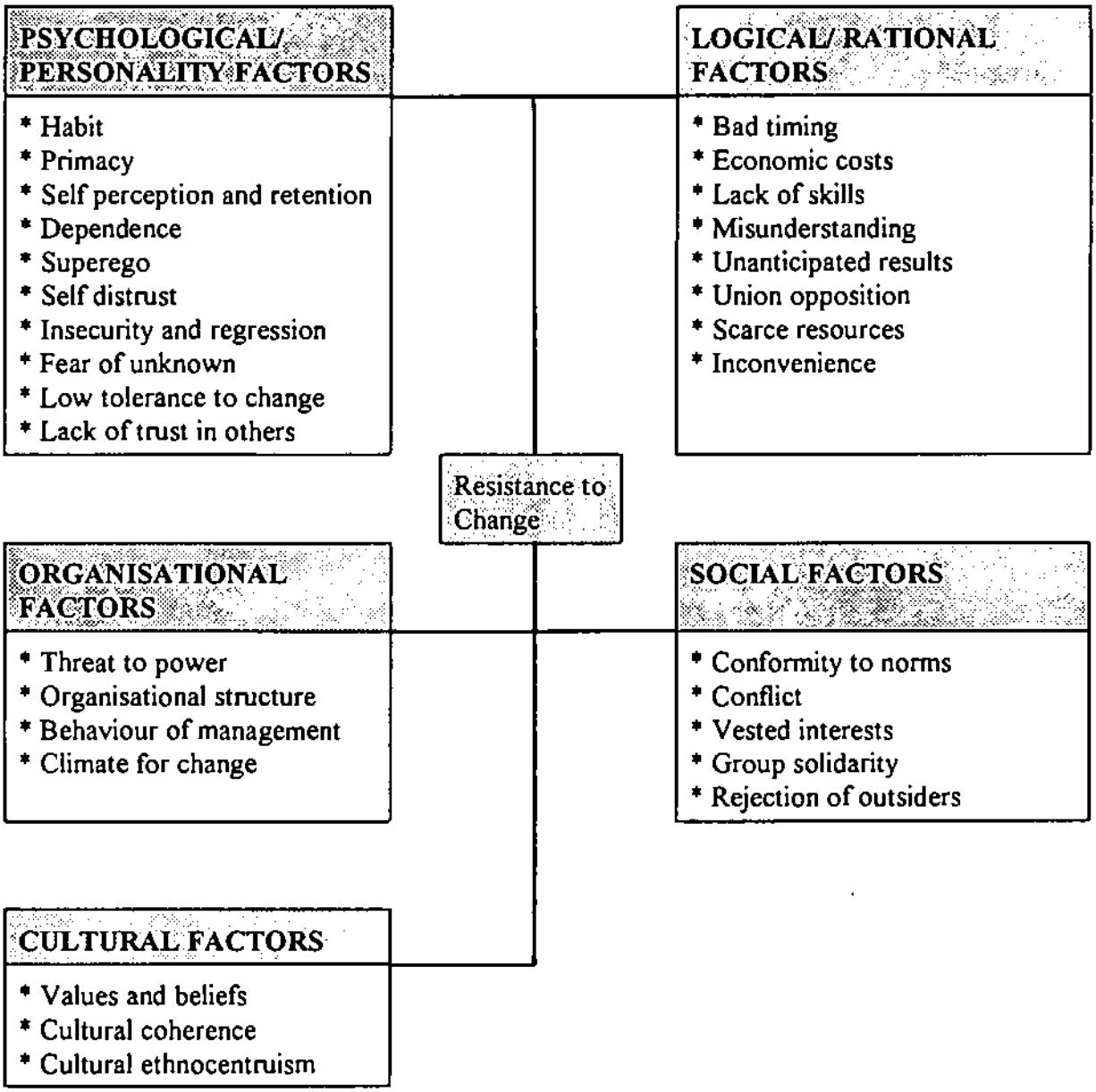
4.8 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

The management of change is complicated by the fact that change inevitably rarely benefits everyone (Blunt & Jones, 1992:216). Strebel (1996:86) ascribes this as the main reason for change management not working as it should. Most researchers (see for example Bowman & Jarrett 1996; Chang 1994; Johnson 1992 and Mondy & Premeaux 1995) contend that resistance to change and acceptance of change are crucial elements in managing organisational change and development.

Curtis and Stricker (1991:142) define resistance as the opposing or retarding of change. Zaltman and Duncan (1977:63) concur that resistance "serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo." Although resistance is typically perceived as a problem to be surmounted, especially by those attempting to implement change, Schermerhorn et al., (1997:406) and Kirkpatrick (1985:92) postulate that it is helpful to view resistance to change as feedback which can be used by the change agent to improve the chances of accomplishing the change objectives. The essence of this constructive approach to resistance is to recognise the fact that when people oppose change, it is often as a result of defending something important which appears threatened by the change attempt.

Bennis et al., (1970:488) assert that any force which contribute to stability can be perceived as a potential factor which resists change. Figure 4.11 shows the potential forces or factors which can lead to a resistance to change.

Figure 4.11: Sources of Resistance to Change



Resistance to change can be categorised into five major types, as shown in Figure 4.11. Psychological or personality factors, logical or rational factors, organisational, social and cultural factors can all be regarded as sources of resistance to change. These types work in combination to produce an employee's total attitude towards any change effort. Northcraft and Neale (1994:604) refer to these resisting factors as signals to change which never get translated into appropriate responses or reactions. Since resistance typically accompanies proposed change, the

change agent must be able to reduce the effect of this resistance to ensure the success of the necessary changes. The aspect of how individuals and organisations cope with change, will be dealt with in the following section.

4.9 COPING WITH CHANGE

According to Brammer (1991:103), people facing changes, challenges and transitions often appear to be muddling along or ignoring the consequences of change - depending on rules of thumb or by denying that a problem exists. Bowditch and Buono (1994:382) also assert that it has become increasingly important to assist the receivers of change to cope with pressures and constraints typically associated with major organisational changes. This section provides some guidelines and strategies on how to cope with change.

As was mentioned in Section 4.8, resistance usually accompanies proposed change and managers should reduce the effects of resistance to ensure the success thereof. Certo (1989:299) and Chang (1994:91) provide some guidelines on how to reduce resistance to change (see Table 4.7).

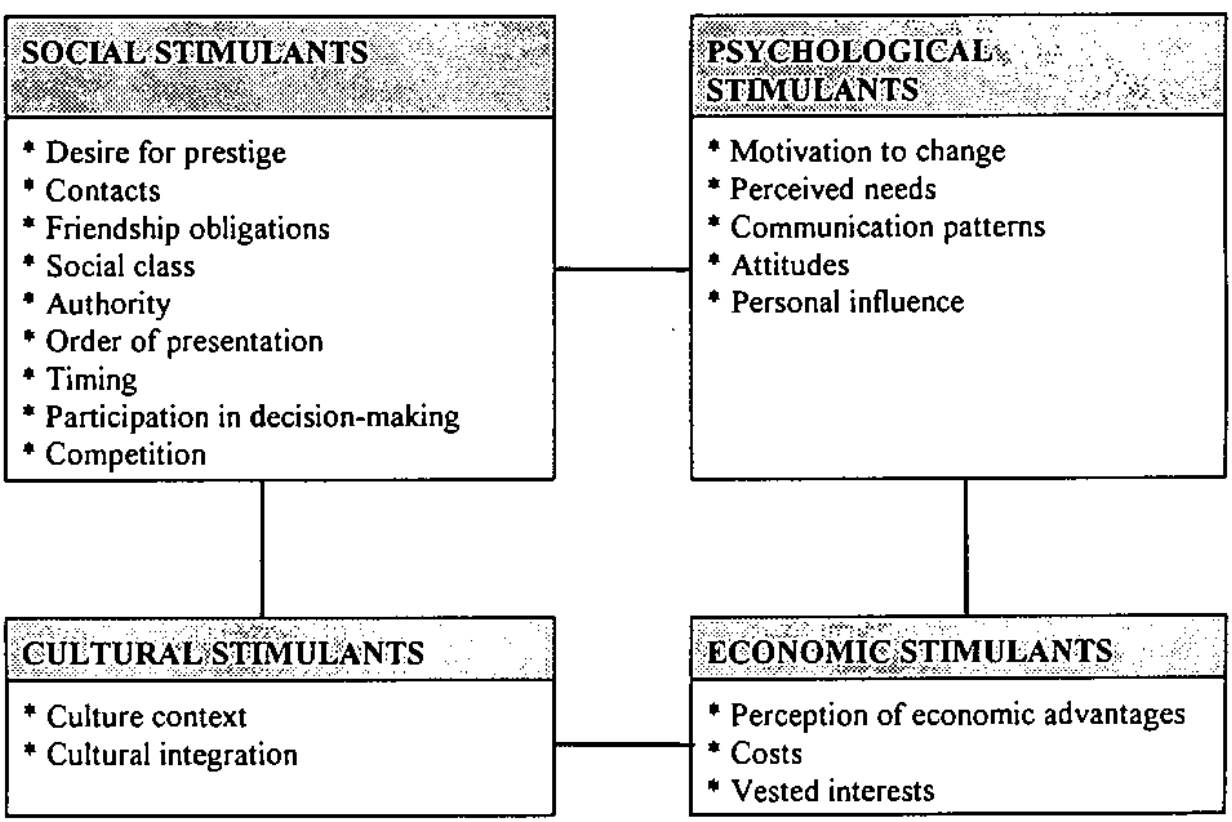
Table 4.7: Guidelines to Reduce Resistance to Change

1.	Explain the change and why it is necessary.
2.	Avoid surprises - people need time to evaluate a proposed change initiative.
3.	Encourage two-way communication.
4.	Promote real understanding to reduce fears.
5.	Set the stage for change - present a positive attitude towards change.
6.	Gather suggestions to help put the change into action.
7.	Make tentative changes - implement the change on a trial basis.

These guidelines should be seen as illustrative rather than comprehensive. Managers and change agents should make purposeful attempts to help individuals coping with change.

According to Vago (1989:237), various conditions can facilitate or hinder the acceptance of change. Change often involves disruption and reorganisation of behaviour patterns and requires some alterations to values, attitudes and life styles. Figure 4.12 illustrates that when individuals are confronted with changes and opportunities, the acceptance thereof is conditional upon a number of factors or stimulants.

Figure 4.12: Stimulants that Condition Acceptance of Change



The purpose of Figure 4.12 is not to provide a lengthy overview of stimulants which condition acceptance of change, but is merely a convenient way of organising the diverse sources, conditions and causes of acceptance or rejection of change. Although there is a fair amount of overlapping among these stimulants, it is only separated for analytical purposes.

Section 4.8 highlighted the major reasons why people resist change. In Section 4.9 it should be appropriate to indicate how to overcome resistance to change (which can be linked to the aspect of coping with change). Various authors (see for example Bowman & Jarrett 1996; Kotter &

Schlesinger 1979 and Mondy & Premeaux 1995) stress the importance of overcoming resistance to change. Schermerhorn et al., (1997:408) concur that there are many actions an informed change agent can take to deal positively with resistance to change if it is recognised early in the change process. Table 4.8 indicates some of the approaches or strategies designed to reduce resistance to change, therefore helping individuals to cope with change.

Table 4.8: Approaches for Reducing Resistance to Change

1. Education and communication	6. Coercion
2. Participation and involvement	7. Guarantee against loss
3. Facilitation and support	8. Build trust
4. Negotiation and agreement	9. Provide counselling
5. Manipulation and co-optation	10. Make only necessary changes

In managing change there are a number of approaches or strategies that can be used to facilitate the transition of change. Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages and the change agent needs to understand which method will help the individual to cope with change.

Epstein and Cook (1987:40) assert that the best way to cope with change is to anticipate it and to prepare for it. There needs to be "ownership" of the problem or proposed change, both with regard to management and employees. The following are two main strategies to deal with change: preventive coping (prevents change from being experienced as stressful and/or try to build up resistance to stress) and combative coping (alleviate stress which is underway). These two types of coping strategies are depicted inTable 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Coping Strategies

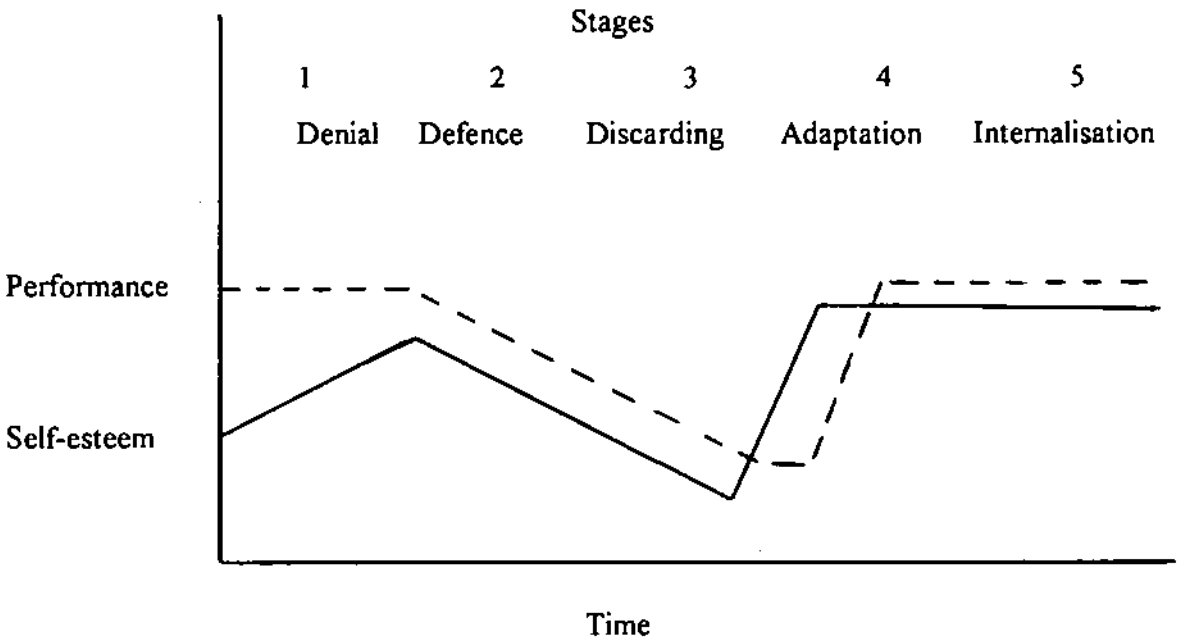
TYPE	EXAMPLE	IMPLICATION
Preventive coping	Drop-out	Avoid stress by removing oneself from the stress full situation.
	Person-environment fit	Adjust demand levels in the environment to match resources available eg. counselling.
	Altering stress-inducing behaviour	Aim is to change some styles of behaviour (hostility, aggressiveness and time urgency).
Combative coping	Stress monitoring	Identify the enemy - awareness only useful if one has the skills to deal with change.
	Marshalling resources	Prepare for combat - ability to marshal resources, organise and plan for its use. Focus on strengths of people.
	Attacking the stressor	Empowerment - a willingness to face the change head-on and apply problem-solving and social skills.
	Tolerating the stressor	Cognitive restructuring and appraisal and deny reality of the change by suppressing thoughts about it.
	Looking after oneself	Reducing tension by cultivating the art of relaxation and doing a self-disclosure.

It is important to realise that organisations should not merely help individuals to cope with change in a reactive way, but should proactively create conditions for empowerment. The following paragraphs of this section will pay attention to three models which can be used to help people and organisations cope with change.

4.9.1 Model Proposed by Carnall

Carnall (1993:94) highlights coping with major organisational change in terms of the so-called "coping cycle" (refer to Figure 4.13).

Figure 4.13: The Coping Cycle



Source: Carnall (1993:94)

The model shown in Figure 4.13 consists of the following five stages:

* **Denial:** "We have always done things this way." People often find value in present circumstances, minimising the impact of change, which allows them to face up to new realities.
* **Defence:** Being faced with the reality of change can lead to feelings of depression and frustration, because of the difficulty in working out how to deal with these changes (characterised by defensive behaviour).

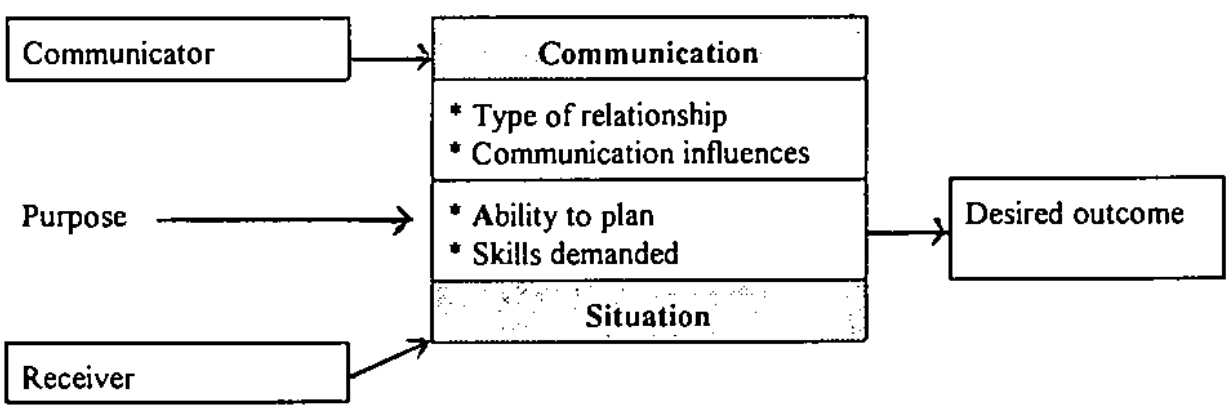
* **Discarding:** People begin to let go of the past and look forward to the future - realising that the change is inevitable or necessary. Discarding involves experimentation and risk.
* **Adaptation:** During this stage the individual learns and works out ways of coping with the changes. Attempts are made to develop new skills.
* **Internalisation:** New relationships between people and processes have been tried, modified, and accepted. This is a cognitive process through which people make sense of what has happened. The new behaviour becomes part of "normal" behaviour.

It should be noted that people do not go through these stages effortlessly, nor that all go through them at the same time or rate.

4.9.2 Model Proposed by Lovell

Lovell (1994:111) postulates the application of the "communicating manager" model in helping people to cope with change. This model is graphically shown in Figure 4.14.

Figure 4.14: The Communicating Manager Model



Source: Adapted from Lovell (1994:112)

The manager or change agent will need to do the following when communicating with individuals:

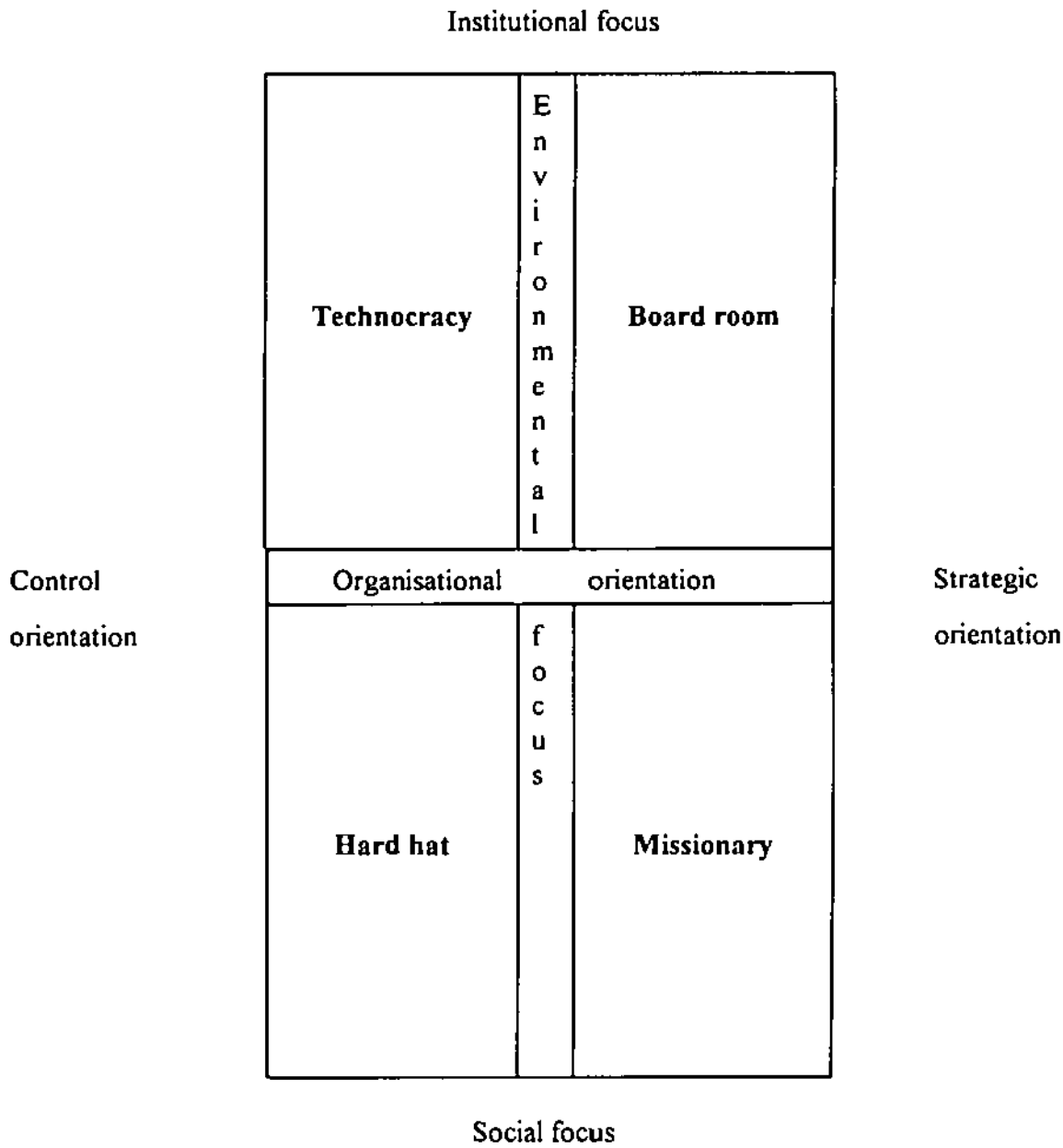
* Clarify the purpose of the communication and desired outcome to be achieved.
* Identify and act in the appropriate role to create an effective relationship.
* Recognise and manage the influences (for example, the perceived psychological effects of the change) which can affect the communication process.
* Understand how the values, attitudes, needs and expectations will influence the communication process.
* Use appropriate skills to achieve the desired outcome.

It appears that the value of this model lies in its practicality and ease of application. The importance of effective communication in helping individuals cope with change is central to the application of this model.

4.9.3 Model Proposed by Human and Horwitz

According to Human and Horwitz (1992:19), the only way in which individuals and organisations can survive is by developing sense-making frameworks. Attempts are made to develop a sense-making framework, underlying South African managers' conception of organisations coping well with change. Four factors or dimensions are identified which form the structure of this sense-making framework: strategic orientation; institutional focus; social focus and control orientation. A model was constructed from these four factors based on two axes: organisational orientation (strategic and control factors) and environmental dimensions (institutional and social focuses). Based on these dimensions, four typologies of organisations can be identified, namely: boardroom; technocracy; hard hat and missionary (see Figure 4.15).

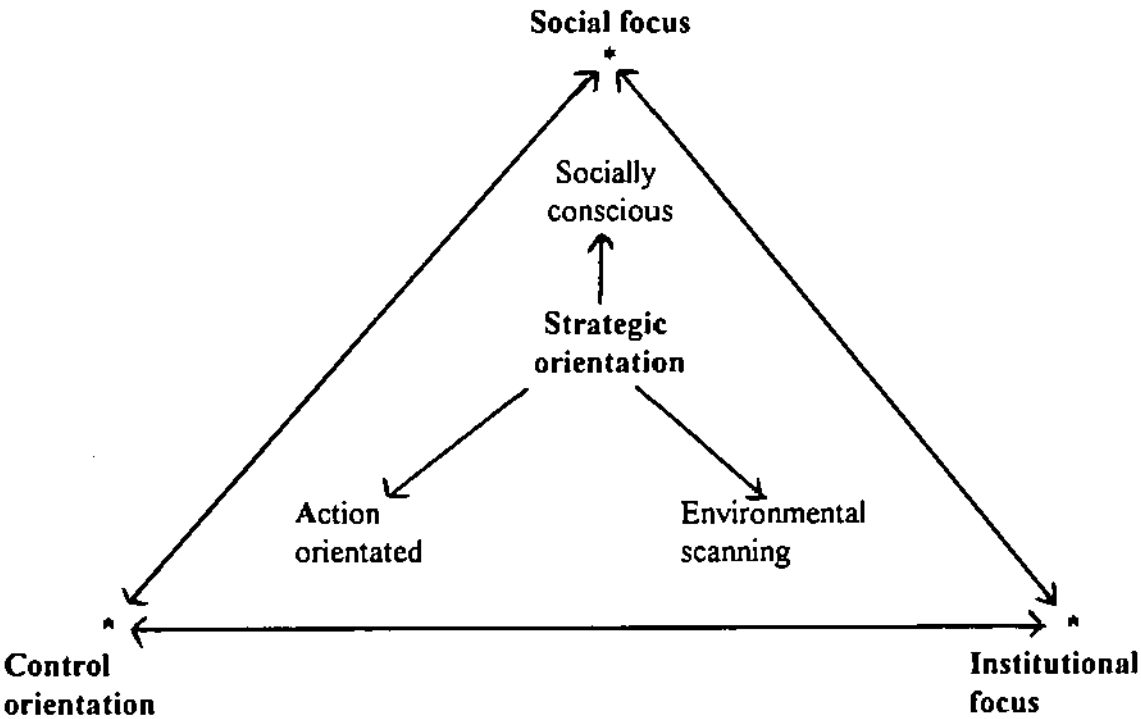
Figure 4.15: Coping with Change: A Basic Model



Source: Adapted from Human and Horwitz (1992:33)

The model in Figure 4.15 helps to classify organisations in terms of four basic elements of coping with change (control and strategic orientation and institutional and social focus), which places the four elements on opposite ends of two continuums (organisational orientation and environmental focuses). Figure 4.16 depicts the interaction between the four elements.

Figure 4.16: Coping with Change: An Interaction Model



Source: Adapted from Human and Horwitz (1992:42)

Organisations need to pay attention to the following aspects in times of change:

* Social focus (people aspect of the organisation)
* Control orientation (structure, work, produce and control resources or activities)
* Institutional environment (context in which the organisation operates)

These three ingredients need to be put together in a synergistic way, through strategic orientation (culture, leadership, structure and attitudes to change). Organisations which cope well with change will therefore be able to manage the abovementioned three ingredients (social focus, control orientation and institutional environment) into a dynamic whole.

The next section briefly highlights some of the major dangers or pitfalls in managing organisational change.

4.10 DANGERS AND PITFALLS IN ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

It is important to discuss some of the dangers and pitfalls which can be encountered by change efforts in the organisation. Wilson (1994:161) alleges that it may seem paradoxical to include this section when change is about hope, confidence and new opportunities. This is because the process of change is often difficult and tortuous, with many obstacles to be overcome. Most researchers (see for example Goodman 1982; Gosteli 1997 and Zaltman & Duncan 1977) contend that "the most basic fact of life is change and yet the most difficult thing to deliberately achieve, it seems, is change."

There are a number of dangers facing organisational change programmes, some of which are described below. These dangers and pitfalls are not meant to be exhaustive, but represent some of the key problems in organisational change. Kotter (1995:59) argues that a few corporate change efforts have often been very successful. Managers and change agents often make some of the errors mentioned in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Errors in Change Programmes

1.	Not establishing a great enough sense of urgency
2.	Not creating powerful enough guiding coalitions
3.	Lacking of vision
4.	Under-communicating the vision
5.	Not removing obstacles to the new vision
6.	Not systematically planning for change and creating short-term gains
7.	Declaring victory too soon
8.	Not anchoring changes in the organisation's culture

The most important lesson to be learned is that the change process goes through a series of phases which require a considerable length of time. A mistake in any of these phases can have a

devastating impact. Jackson (1997:158) provides a checklist to guide the actions needed to achieve change (called the seven sins of change):

* **Complacency, ignorance and arrogance (CIA syndrome):** Some individuals and organisations are too easily pleased and under performing becomes a way of life. Ignorant organisations do not know what is happening in the world and have a narrow focus. Arrogant organisations are wedded to the ideas and products which brought success in the past and are blind to new products and possibilities.

* **Secrecy:** People do not like surprises and need time to assimilate new ideas. Often managers are afraid to leak any details of the proposed change.

* **Logic rules:** Many managers are natural planners who use charts and diagrams to show what happens next. People, the main element of any change are, however, not always logical, but often emotional, irrational and inspirational.

* **The ultimate plan:** It is a fallacious belief that one can plan a change programme in detail during the beginning stages and expect everything to run according to plan.

* **Parallel organisations:** Some organisations who want to implement change, set up a special full-time change or task team, provide resources and sends the team away to formulate the change plan. This approach, however, divorces change from the power base of the organisation (line management).

* **The easy option:** Change is not a comfort zone, yet many managers fail to face up their responsibilities. Managers know that something has to be done, but fail to take action ("do not worry, things cannot get any worse").

* **Ignore people:** Change is about people, but often the individual needs of people are ignored - change is not about moving boxes on the organisational chart.

Managers and change agents can use the above seven sins as a checklist to guide their actions to achieve change in the organisation. Bergh (1995:51) is of the opinion that most organisations have realised that to become world-class, some or other transformation is required. But with so much transformation intent around, what causes it not to work, or whose fault is it when it fails?

Bergh (1995:52) answers this question by raising the following issues, presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Reasons for Failure of Transformation Efforts

1.	Organisational vision is lacking or is not understood
2.	Insufficient consensus or participation
3.	Inadequate union engagement
4.	Inadequate understanding of the South African situation
5.	Not creating a powerful change group or team
6.	Lack of management commitment
7.	Insufficient benefits
8.	Not addressing fears
9.	Not understanding that transformation causes pain
10.	Not establishing a great sense of urgency
11.	Not planning for quick results
12.	Poor communication and marketing of the change programme

It is therefore important that the change agent be aware of all possible dangers and pitfalls before embarking on a change programme. No matter how much effort an organisation invests in preparing for change, there will be unforeseen difficulties. To conclude this section, Kanter et al., (1992:5) maintain that all these dangers and pitfalls are roadblocks to progress which highlight the complex nature of change, which needs to be carefully planned and managed.

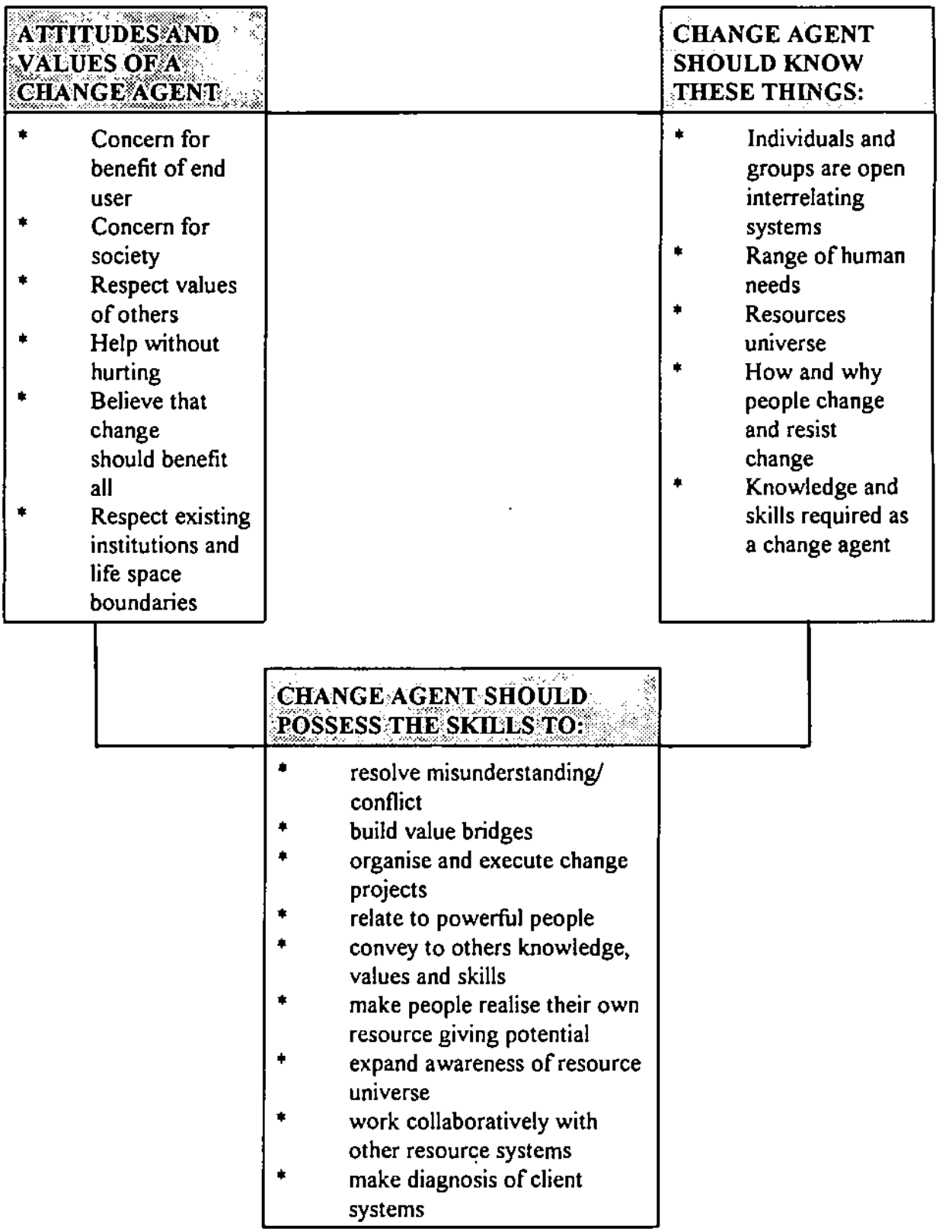
In the following paragraphs, a brief overview is given of the role of the change agent in managing organisational change.

4.11 THE CHANGE AGENT

Throughout this chapter, mentioning is made of the role of the change agent in managing organisational change. This section provides a brief overview of the role of the change agent. Certo (1989:289) refers to the change agent as "an individual inside or outside the organisation who tries to effect change." The change agent may be a self-designated manager within the organisation or a hired outside consultant. In some organisations, the manager is the one to implement changes and therefore the term "manager" and "change agent" are used synonymously in this context.

Both Bennis et al., (1970:580) and Matthews (1997:25) highlight the crucial role of the change agent in change management. Strategic, systematic and planned change does not occur without the backing and full involvement of a change agent. The emphasis of a change agent is on planned and deliberate intervention in the change process. Figure 4.17 illustrates some of the characteristics of a successful change agent.

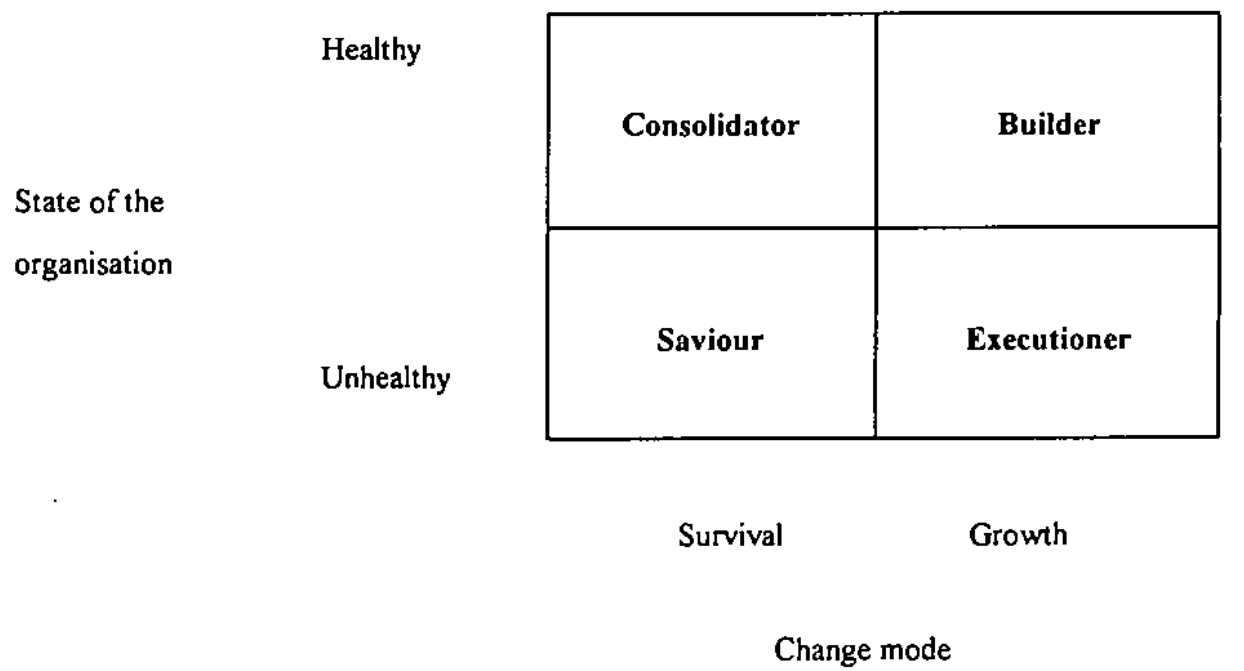
Figure 4.17: Characteristics of a Successful Change Agent



Source: Adapted from Havelock and Havelock (1973:70-72)

The specific characteristics presented in Figure 4.17 are far from exhaustive. The figure demonstrates the important task and role of the change agent in bringing about organisational change (Gordon, 1996:671). It is important, therefore, to understand the role that the change agent will play and the style to be adopted to achieve the change objectives. Figure 4.18 shows four important roles of the change agent (based on the present state of the organisation and the mode of change).

Figure 4.18: Roles of the Change Agent



Source: Adapted from Wilson (1994:35)

The state of the organisation measures the current health of the organisation in relation to its internal structures and trading position in the marketplace. The change mode varies between a strategy of growth (increased output, turnover and profitability) and survival. Based on these two dimensions, four typical roles of the change agent can be identified:

* **Consolidator:** The change agent helps the organisation to survive in its present form and consolidates changes already implemented.

* **Builder**: The change agent has to harness, motivate and lead the organisation on its path of growth.
* **Saviour:** The change agent must have the vision, energy and skill to determine the reason for the organisation's problems and set it on a path of recovery.
* **Executioner:** The change agent must rapidly take stock of the situation and make drastic changes.

Even under the most favourable conditions, change rarely occurs in a smooth and balanced fashion, which increases the need for change agents who supposedly have the professional skills and knowledge.

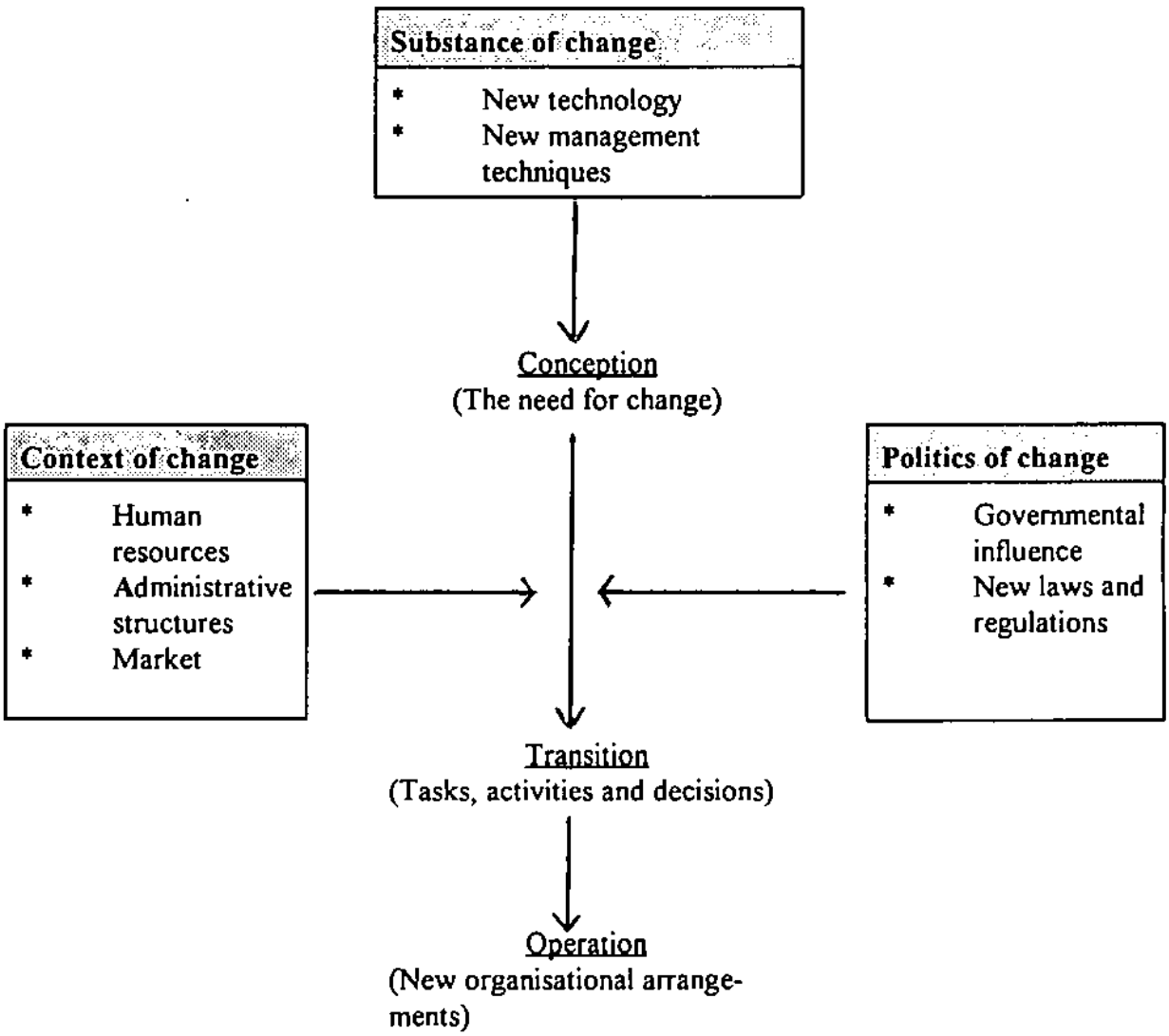
The last section of this chapter provides an analysis of the change process by means of a model.

4.12 A MODEL FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Manning (1988:77) argues that adapting to a new future is an ongoing process. "Just as a tree changes in response to the seasons, and thus growths through them, so must every organisation respond to its changing environment" (Wilson, 1994:xi). This almost forces every organisation to undergo some kind of change.

Although Blunt and Jones (1992:220) state that advice on how managers should manage change is available in abundance, Lovell (1994:190) is of the opinion that changing the organisation is not a quick fix, easy matter. Change may affect individuals, groups or the entire organisation. Before looking at the actual change process by means of a descriptive model, it is necessary to develop a processual framework, in order to provide a holistic approach to the change process (refer to Figure 4.19).

Figure 4.19: A Processual Framework of Organisational Change



Source: Adapted from Dawson (1994:44)

As depicted in Figure 4.19, the substance of change refers to the type and scale of organisational change, such as total quality management and information systems. It is important to understand the constituents of change in order to conceptualise the process and outcomes of that change. The politics of change refers to the political activity which occurs at various levels within and outside the organisation, such as new government laws. The context of change refers to the past and present external and internal operating environment of the organisation, such as the

marketplace or human resources practices. It is, however, important to note that the pertinence of these factors in shaping organisational change is likely to vary between and within organisations. This perceptual framework of change can be viewed on three levels or time frames. The conceptual level illustrates the actual need for change, followed by transition, the second level. Certain tasks, activities and decisions need to be formulated which will assist the transition. The last level is that of operation, which is depicted through new organisational arrangements. By combining these three general time frames of change with the threefold classification of factors (substance, context and politics) shaping the process of organisational change, it is possible to construct a processual framework of organisational change.

It appears that there are many ways of conceptualising the process of change. Some authors (see for example Beaumont 1996; Bowman & Jarrett 1996; Northcraft & Neale 1994 and Thompson 1995) use the basic or traditional model (developed by psychologist, Kurt Lewin) to explain the change process. According to this model, any change effort can be viewed as a process with three distinct phases:

* **Unfreezing:** This is the managerial responsibility of preparing a situation for change. It usually involves reducing those forces maintaining the organisation's behaviour at its present level (Newstrom & Davis, 1993:281).

* **Changing or Moving:** This is the implementation stage of the change process. It involves taking action to modify a situation, by changing people, structure, tasks and technology of the organisation (Burnes, 1996:183).

* **Refreezing:** This is the phase that ensures that what has been learned is integrated into the practical situation. It means positively reinforcing desired outcomes and evaluating progress and results (Thompson, 1995:170).

This three-step model or process provides a general framework or basis for understanding the process of organisational change. Manning (1988:62), however, postulates that this model oversimplifies a complex process. Refreezing suggests a perfect end-state. Managing change is,

on the other hand, a never-ending process. Over the years, various researchers (such as Chang 1994; Griffin 1993; Tearle 1992 and Van Niekerk 1988) have revised Lewin's model in a variety of ways and identified other phases of the change process. After analysing these models, a model for change in the organisation was developed and is illustrated in Figure 4.20.

Figure 4.20: An Organisational Change Model

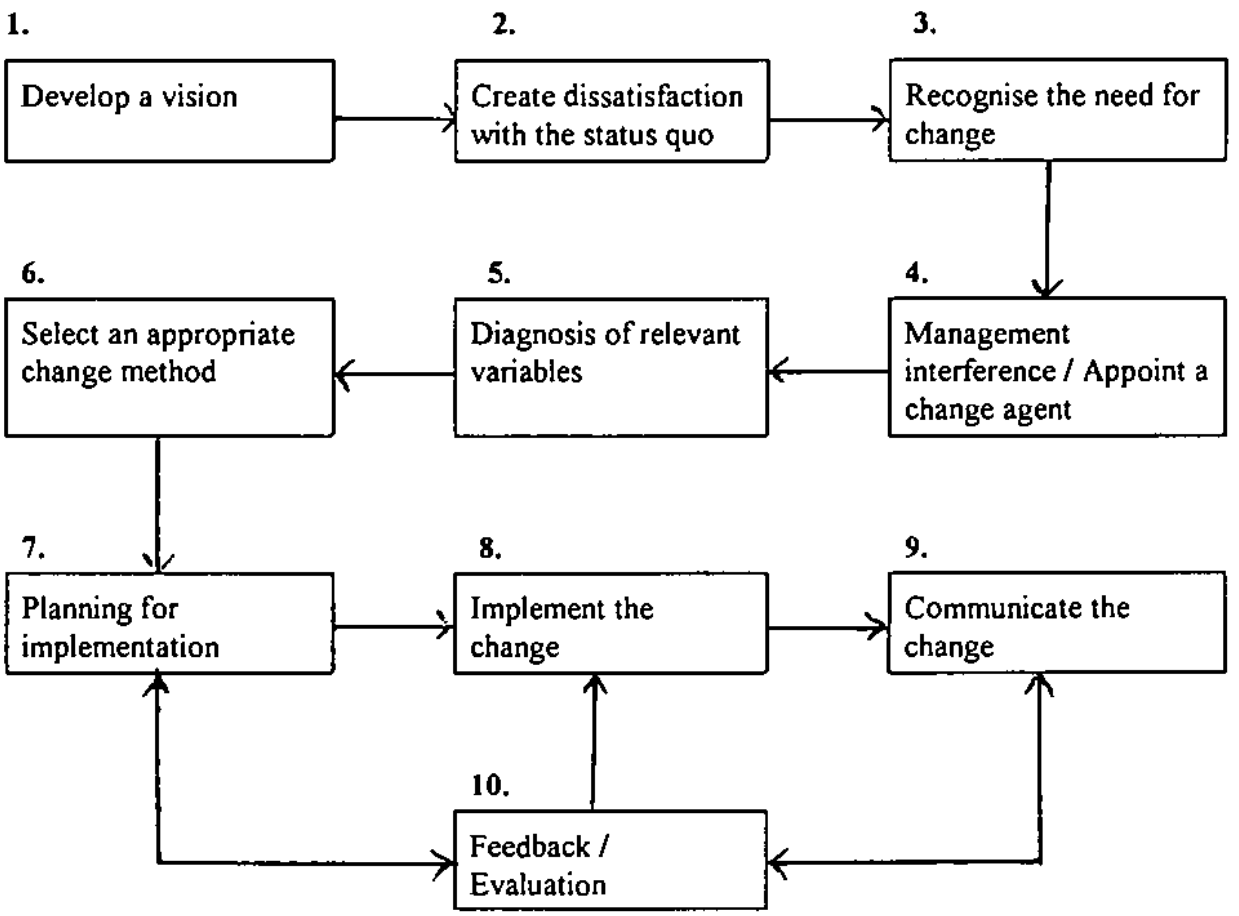


Figure 4.20 shows that the starting point in the change process is to develop a vision. According to Wilson (1994:85), the process through which the vision is developed can make a valuable contribution to the success of the change programme. It is necessary to articulate and describe the organisation's future state. Aspects to consider, are among other, the operating environment, goals and objectives, mission statement and organisational culture.

The second phase is to create dissatisfaction with the status quo. When people are content with habits and actions, change is unlikely to happen. Dramatise the fact that more of the same way of doing things is not enough - something different must be seen to be necessary (Manning, 1988a:77). This can be done by presenting people with facts which are unknown, invite guest speakers, take field trips or send people on seminars and workshops.

The next phase is to recognise the need for change. Mondy and Premeaux (1995:488) assert that the most important question to ask is whether change is necessary? Do not make changes merely for change sake. Once a need for change has been established, management must intervene and appoint a change agent (phase four). This can be management itself or a person inside or outside the organisation (Van Niekerk, 1988:184). Refer also to Section 4.11 of this chapter.

The fifth phase is the diagnosis of relevant variables. The change agent must determine what has brought on the need for change. For example, staff turnover may be caused by low pay, inferior working conditions or poor supervisors. Although turnover may be the immediate stimulus for change, the manager must understand its causes in order to make appropriate changes (Griffin, 1993:396).

Phase six involves the selection of an appropriate change method or technique. According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1996:690), an attempt should be made to select a change method which will achieve the need for change (identified in phase three). For example, if staff turnover is being caused by low pay, a new reward system may be necessary.

The next phase in the change process is to develop plans for implementation. This involves the setting of goals to bridge the gap between the current situation and the vision. Aspects to consider are the cost implication of the change, the effect of the change on other areas of the organisation and the degree of employee participation appropriate to the situation (Tearle, 1992:94).

The eighth phase is the implementation of the change programme. According to Chang (1994:59), this is the action step in which the final decision is implemented according to

established plans. Implementation, however, does not mean sitting back and watching unattended progress. Successfull implementation of change, requires monitoring, reporting on overall progress and adjusting targets if necessary.

Phase nine highlights the important aspect of communicating the change. Although communication is only listed here in the change process, it is a continuous process, beginning in phase one (Karp, 1996:63). It must be a two-way process, in which the desired outcomes are spelled out. Listening to reactions and suggestions is vital. Keep all relevant stakeholders informed about the proposed change at all times. The last phase is continuous feedback and evaluation. Manning (1988:66) views change as an iterative process, the results of each phase determining what is to follow. Feedback enables the change agent to detect progress and to adjust the course if necessary.

It could be deducted that implementing extensive organisational change is a long-term process. Although the change process is broken down into different phases, it is more likely to occur simultaneously. Turbulent times demand different responses in varied circumstances. The change agent needs a model of change which is appropriate for the situation (contemporary model) so as to achieve optimum fit with the changing environment (Burnes, 1996:186).

4.13 CONCLUSION

Organisations are never static, something about them is always changing (Thompson, 1995:157). These continuous changes in the environment force the organisation to adapt. This chapter focussed on the nature and extent of organisational change. Fundamentally, the changing of an organisation can be viewed as a process of substantive modification in an organisation. The change agent needs to understand the nature of organisational change in order to implement it successfully. It appears from the afore going that change management is not a distinct discipline with rigid boundaries. Analysis of the three schools of thought forming the core of change management theory, provides a framework within which organisational change can be discussed. The individual perspective, group dynamics school and open systems school was highlighted. The

forces or factors which necessitate change in the organisation can stem from the internal and external environment of the organisation. The next section dealt with the aspect of how to prepare an organisation for change, providing some ground rules for preparation for change. Various aspects need to be taken into consideration which can prepare the organisation before initiating and implementing change efforts.

Analysis of the areas of organisational change revealed the following major areas: strategy, structure and design, technology and operations and people. Change in one area may lead to changes in other areas. It seems that there are abundant approaches or strategies on how to deal with change. For the purpose of this study, three models proposed by Dunphy and Stace (1990:82), Gould (1996:278) and Calori and Atamer (1990:44) were examined. It should be clear that change is complicated by the fact that it does not always benefit everyone. Resistance to change and acceptance of change are crucial elements in managing organisational change. Resistance to change can take the form of five major types: psychological or personality, organisational, logical or rational, social and cultural factors.

In managing organisational change, there are a number of strategies or approaches which can be used to facilitate the transition of change. Models proposed by Carnall (1993:94), Lovell (1994:111) and Human and Horwitz (1992:19) were analysed which can assist organisations to cope with the effect of change. Some of the dangers or pitfalls which change efforts can encounter were discussed. This can be an indication why some transformation efforts fail. The crucial and central role of the change agent in the change process was also highlighted.

The last section of this chapter dealt with the change process. In order to conceptualise the change process, it is important to understand the constituents of change: substance, context and politics of change. The basic change process can be viewed as a three-step process: unfreezing, changing or moving and refreezing. After extensive research of various change models (see for example Chang 1994; Griffin 1993 and Tearle 1992), a model for change in organisations was developed. The change process was illustrated by means of ten different, interrelated phases. The following chapter will examine the facilitating role of training in organisational change (an interactive analysis).

CHAPTER 5

TRAINING AND TRANSFORMATION: AN INTERACTION ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 provided an organisational perspective to change management. The aim of this chapter is to examine the interactive role between training and transformation in the organisation. Dawson (1994:176) asserts that "training can be used as a vehicle for informing employees of the nature, consequences and opportunities afforded by change." Human and Horwitz (1992:96) concur that developing human potential through training is regarded as a feature considered appropriate in organisations which cope well with change. There is therefore a clear and direct link between training and its effect on the implementation of change in the organisation.

The first section of this chapter briefly highlights the composition or main elements of the interaction between training and transformation. This interaction comprises three building blocks and is illustrated by focusing on organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership. These three topics will be discussed briefly. Firstly, organisational development will be outlined: what it is, its nature and characteristics, the process, problems and critical issues and some major interventions. Secondly, the learning organisation will be described by emphasising aspects such as concept clarification, nature, characteristics and creation of the learning organisation and lifelong learning. To conclude this section, a brief overview of what transformational leadership is, its characteristics and behaviour and a transformational leadership model will be presented.

The next section provides a theoretical analysis of the role of training in managing organisational change. An analysis is made which indicates that training can be used to facilitate change in the organisation. Having identified the role of training in managing organisational change, the interaction of training and transformation in practice is examined by means of three case studies. The purpose

is to illustrate the transformation of benchmark organisations and the role training played in these transformations.

This chapter is concluded with the development of a model of training for transformation. The training and change models developed in Chapter 3 and 4 respectively, is used as a basis for the development of the training for transformation model. The aim in developing the model is to use it as a tool or guideline in the organisation, for bringing about change by means of training.

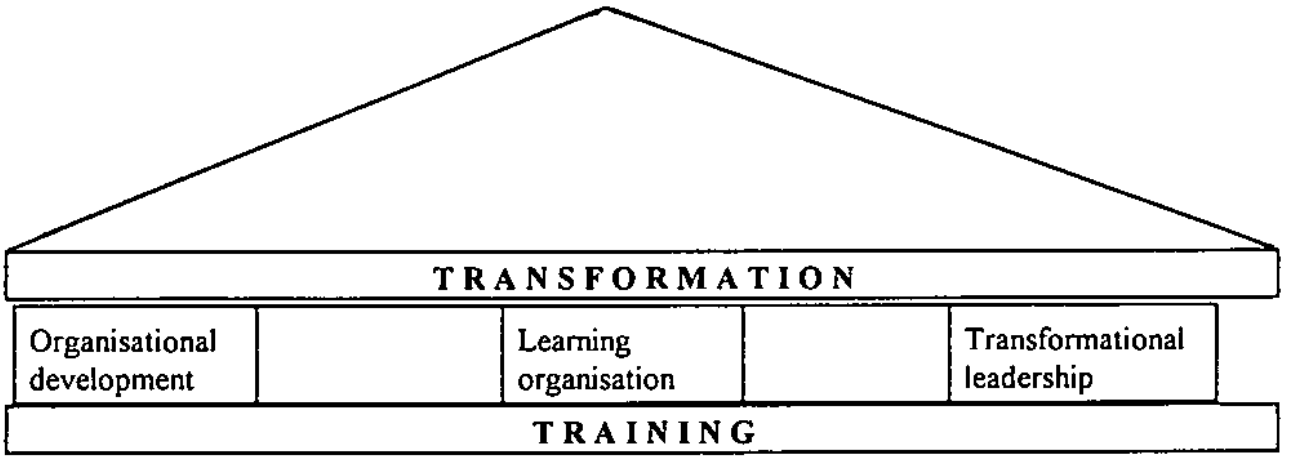
5.2 THE COMPOSITION OF TRAINING AND TRANSFORMATION INTERACTION

In analysing the literature on change management, three topics continually came to the forefront: **organisational development** (see for example Larwood, 1984:450 and Robbins, 1996:736), **the learning organisation** (Dawson, 1992:209 and Hendry, Johnson & Newton, 1994:230) and **transformational leadership** (Bowditch & Buono, 1994:235 and Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996:521).

The purpose of this section is to briefly highlight these three topics, within the context of training and transformation. It could therefore be said that organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership, form the architecture or building blocks of the interaction between training and transformation (refer to Figure 5.1). A typical slogan of the transforming organisation can be:

> "*Training for transformation through organisational development, in a learning organisation, by means of transformational leadership.*"

Figure 5.1: The Composition of Training and Transformation Interaction



The following paragraphs provide a brief overview of organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership. The aim is not to provide an extensive discussion of these three topics (which are subjects in their own right) as it falls beyond the scope and purpose of this study.

5.2.1 Organisational Development

Most authors (see for example Dunford 1992; Morris & Brandon 1993 and Nelson & Quick 1997) concur that organisational development is the implementation of planned organisational change. According to Hersey et al., (1996:498), the need for managers to be able to plan and implement change is a given and organisational development offers an integrated approach to change.

(a) Definitions

Greenberg and Baron (1997:563) define organisational development as "a set of social science techniques designed to plan change in organisational work settings for purposes of enhancing the personal development of individuals and improving the effectiveness of organisational functioning."

Bass and Avolio (1994:148) contend that organisational development implies a strategy which affects beliefs, values and attitudes within the organisation in order to adapt to the accelerated rate of change. Robbins (1996:736), however, postulates that organisational development is not an easily definable concept, but rather a term used to encompass a collection of planned-change interventions.

The above definitions capture the essence of organisational development in that it is concerned with the planning and implementation of programmes designed to improve the effectiveness with which an organisation functions and responds to change.

(b) Nature and Characteristics

Margulies and Raia (1972:1) argue that there are some considerable changes in the way which organisations function. All the ideas and techniques used for improving an organisation's effectiveness, and it's ability to cope with change, are commonly known as organisational development. This concept borrows from a number of disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, psychology and economics. The focus is on change and is directed towards improving organisational effectiveness.

Schermerhorn et al., (1997:279) indicate that organisational development is intended to assist the organisation and its members by:

* creating an open problem-solving climate
* supplementing formal authority with knowledge and competence
* moving decision-making points where relevant information is available
* building trust
* maximising collaboration between individuals and groups
* allowing people to exercise self-control and direction at work.

The overall purpose is therefore to improve the functioning of the organisation, its managers and employees, through planned renewal and continuous development. French and Bell (1990:79), Hampton, Summer and Webber (1982:761) and Newstrom and Davis (1993:294) highlight various characteristics of organisational development. Table 5.1 depicts some of the distinguishing characteristics of organisational development.

Table 5.1: Characteristics of Organisational Development

1.	It is an ongoing interactive process.
2.	It is a data-based approach to planned change.
3.	It is experienced based.
4.	Emphasises goal-setting and planning.
5.	Views organisations as a systems approach.
6.	Focuses on intact work teams.
7.	Uses a participation/empowerment model.
8.	Strives for humanistic values.
9.	Makes use of a change agent.
10.	It is a problem-solving process.

In viewing the characteristics outlined in Table 5.1, it appears that organisational development is particularly appropriate if an organisation is failing to accomplish its objectives and if the nature of the current organisation is contributing to this failure. It allows the organisation to improve its capacity to adapt more readily to environmental changes.

(c) Process

Although there are many approaches to organisational development, most authors (see for example Kast & Rosenzweig 1986; Mabey & Salaman 1995 and Newstrom & Davis 1993) concur that this complex process consists of a series of typical, rather distinct steps. The purpose of this process is

to improve the organisation from where it is now to where it should be (and even then the process continues). Steers and Black (1994:681) propose the following steps in the organisational development process:

* Initial diagnosis - the aim is to determine the nature of the organisation's problems.
* Data collection - surveys can be conducted to determine organisational climate and behavioural problems.
* Data feedback and confrontation - findings from the survey are fed back to participants and priorities for change are identified.
* Action planning and problem-solving - problem-solving groups are established to develop recommendations for change in the form of specific action plans.
* Use of interventions - depending on the problem, an intervention technique or method such team building is decided on.
* Evaluation and feedback - results are compared with initial goals and steps are taken to ensure that the resulting change sticks.

It is important to note that these steps are part of the whole process and need to be executed in order to gain the full benefits of organisational development. The process seeks to achieve change in such a manner that the organisation's members become more active and confident in maintaining organisational effectiveness. McGill (1977:117) also stresses that these steps are merely convenient markers and not rigid divisions - suggesting that any organisational act has a history which can be taught in terms of time and the sequence of events of which it is composed. The final outcome should be a more cohesive organisation with a greater focus on organisational goals.

(d) Problems and critical issues

Newstrom and Davis (1993:308) assert that although organisational development is a useful organisational intervention technique, and that the benefits outweigh the limitations, it is important that organisational development consultants and change agents are well informed about possible

problems. The chief advantage is that it tries to deal with changes in the organisation as a whole or in a major part thereof. Other benefits include improved motivation, productivity, job satisfaction, quality of work life and resolution of conflict. According to French and Bell (1990:299), there are number of problems and contingencies which can affect the viability of organisational development:

* Diffusion of the technique - people may loose sight of the basic ingredients and core technology of organisational development. The attention may be shifted to programmes which reduce understanding of the dynamics of the developmental nature of the change process.
* Semantics and definitions - some change programmes are labelled organisational development with only a few or none of its features.
* Prevailing management philosophy and assumptions - how people should be managed and treated in organisations (participative versus autocratic).
* Under-attention to task, technology and structure - overemphasising the human and social dynamics of organisations.
* Limited models - organisational development is limited to the planned model of change being utilised. There are a limited number of models for effecting permanent change.
* Cross-cultural assumptions - some of the assumptions underlying organisational development may not hold for all societies.
* Impact on managers and subordinates - often organisational development never emerges in the organisation because of fear of what might happen in an organisational development effort.
* Time and cost - organisational development represents a long-term and expensive investment and does not offer shortcuts to total organisational improvement.

Dunford (1992:307) also mentions the problem of the pace of change. Although organisational development involves slow, steady and continuous incremental steps, there is however, sometimes a need to respond quickly. Organisational development, as a participative approach, may cause some

participants to feel negative towards the proposed change if it is contrary to their value system or interests.

According to Sikes, Drexler and Gant (1989:73), the lack of attention to power can further affect the efficiency of organisational development. It is important to understand the political dynamics of organisational change. Organisational development is, however, often only focused on adaptation.

A further aspect mentioned by Greenberg and Baron (1997:573) is how ethical is organisational development. The very nature thereof involves the use of social science techniques in an attempt to change attitudes and behaviour. Organisational development is often seen as coercive and manipulative, because the values of the organisation are sometimes imposed on individuals, without taking them into account.

The purpose of highlighting the problems and critical issues in organisational development is to make the change agent aware of possible dangers or pitfalls and to ensure the effective functioning of this powerful intervention technique.

(e) Interventions

Schermerhorn et al., (1997:283) refer to organisational development interventions as activities which are initiated by the change agent to facilitate planned change and to assist the organisation to develop its own problem-solving capabilities. There is abundant literature (refer to Luthans 1995; Steers & Black 1994 and Thompson & Mabey 1994) on various organisational interventions or techniques. The purpose is to briefly examine some of the most common interventions used. Other types of interventions include process consultation, intergroup development, structural redesign and confrontation meetings.

(i) Survey Feedback

According to Gartner, Mahler and Nicholson (1989:397), the underlying rationale behind this technique is that employees must understand the organisation's strengths and weaknesses. It begins with the collection of data by means of questionnaire responses from organisational members. The results are presented to participants and discussed in smaller groups. Problems relating to communication, decision-making and other organisational processes are analysed and action plans dealing with these problems are developed.

(ii) Sensitivity Training

This technique (also labelled T-group or laboratory training) uses leaderless discussion groups to develop awareness and sensitivity to self and others. The objectives are to increase openness with others, tolerance for individual differences, awareness and understanding of group processes, to enhance listening skills and to establish realistic standards of behaviour (Hampton et al., 1982:766).

(iii) Team Building

This intervention utilises high interaction group activities to increase trust and openness among members (Hodge & Anthony, 1984:509). It attempts to get members of a group to investigate ways of working together and how to provide solutions to any problems in group functioning. It often takes place at off-site venues where members spend two to three days intensively working together.

(iv) Quality-of-work-life Programmes

Northcraft and Neale (1994:623) postulate that these programmes are characterised as attempts to enhance organisational effectiveness and employee well-being through a commitment to participative decision-making. The common goal is to humanise the workplace.

It should be clear that organisational development is an effective technique concerned with the planning and implementation of programmes designed to improve the effectiveness of organisations and their response to environmental changes. The value of organisational development as an approach to manage organisational change should not be underestimated.

A last aspect to warrant attention is the role of training in organisational development. McGill (1977:19) is of the opinion that sensitivity training as an organisational development intervention, at the time of inception, is identified as a new and exiting approach to individual training. Training can therefore be used as a planned managerial programme of individual and organisational growth. Effective change processes need to consider both the forces within the individual and the organisational situation surrounding the individual. Training programmes, utilising organisational development interventions, need to maximise the effectiveness of organisational training activities.

The following section highlights the nature and role of the learning organisation in transformation.

5.2.2 The Learning Organisation

Mabey and Salaman (1995:315) are of the opinion that the idea of the learning organisation has flourished as one way of "summing up the sorts of organisational qualities called for and valued in today's changing environment." Hendry et al., (1994:229) and Lessem (1991:17) concur that the learning organisation is heralded as the organisation of the future which calls for a new management order, because of the onset of unprecedented rates of change. Noer (1997:176) also postulates that organisations of the future will not survive without becoming communities of learning and that the learning organisation "is no academic fad or consultant's buzz word". The way in which the organisation learns can be the key to innovation, profitability and competitiveness.

(a) Definitions

According to Senge (1997:14), the learning organisation can be described as an organisation "that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future." Swieringa and Wierdsma (1992:71) contend that the learning organisation has, on the one hand, mastered the art of adapting quickly and, on the other hand, preserved its direction and identity. The learning organisation can therefore be viewed as the involvement of all employees in the organisation in identifying and solving problems, which will enable the organisation to continuously experiment and improve its capacity to deliver new goals and services to customers (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1996:680).

It appears, therefore, that the learning organisation facilitates the learning of all its members and has the capacity to adapt and to change continuously. Marx (1997:1), however, stresses that a learning organisation is not just a programme which must be implemented, but a philosophy aimed at the creation, mastering and transferring of knowledge.

Having identified what the learning organisation is, it is necessary to clarify the concept of "organisational learning." Both Argyris (1994:123) and Dawson (1992:230) assert that an organisation learns through individuals acting as agents for the organisation and is usually associated with notions of radical change. As individuals learn new ways of acting and developing new values, organisations, being a collection of people, can also learn and develop new assumptions, values and behaviour. It is, therefore, the individuals in the organisation who enable learning in ways which facilitate organisational transformation.

(b) Nature of Organisational Learning

According to Beardwell and Holden (1994:278), it is important to understand the process and nature of learning (also refer to Section 2.6) in order to facilitate the learning and development of individual employees and, ultimately, the organisation itself. The process of learning knows no boundaries. People bring the results of this naturally occurring and continuous process of learning into the

workplace and therefore have the potential to contribute to skills, attitudes and creative thinking which organisations need for survival in a changing world.

Hendry et al., (1994:230) argue that at, the broadest level, organisational learning is how organisations change. This, however, does not imply that organisational learning is simply about the management of change, but rather about elements and processes by which organisations develop and grow. Organisational learning is built on three key precepts:

* Organisations learn through individuals.
* Organisational learning is different from the simple sum of individual learning.
* It is a process of change in behaviour, beliefs, systems and structures.

Both Argyris (1994:8) and Dawson (1992:230) advocate approaches to organisational learning: double-loop and single-loop learning. Single-loop learning occurs when errors are corrected, using past routines and present policies. It involves improving organisational capacity to achieve known objectives - the organisation is learning without significant change in basic assumptions (Robbins, 1996:734). Double-loop learning implies that the learning organisation corrects errors by modifying the organisation's objectives, policies and routines. This type of learning involves changing the organisation's culture (Luthans, 1995:41). This correlates with Senge's (1997:14) classification of adaptive learning (single-loop learning) and generative learning (double-loop learning). For the learning organisation, adaptive learning must be joined with generative learning - the capacity to create.

Marquardt (1997:2) postulates that organisational learning must equal or exceed the rate of change, otherwise the organisation will die. Organisational learning exhibits the following common characteristics:

* It enhances intellectual and productive capacity, gained by organisation-wide learning.
* It builds on shared values, memory and knowledge.

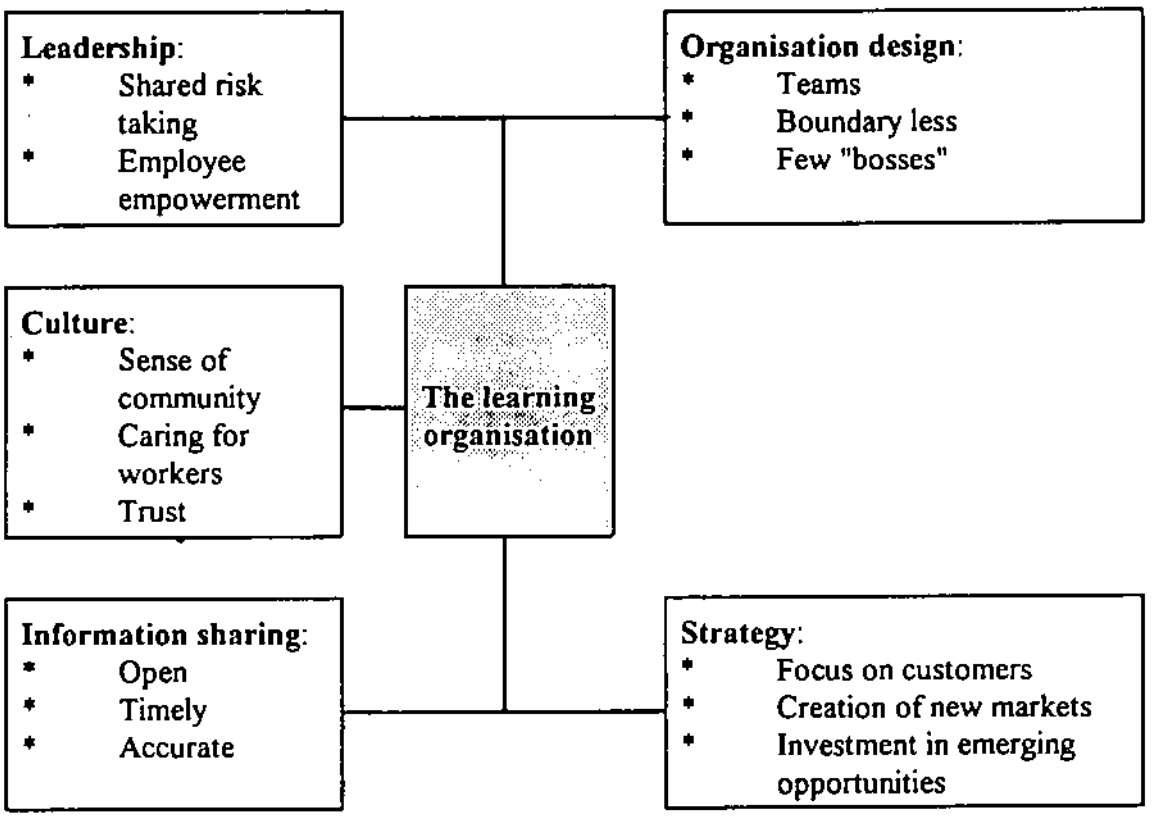
* It functions like an orchestra.
* It applies system-wide learning.

Gordon (1996:45), on the other hand, highlights some managerial implications of organisational learning. Managers must ensure that appropriate conditions for learning exist and must reinforce desired learned behaviour. The provision of environmental cues which encourage learning and a physical and emotional climate, supportive of learning, is also essential.

(c) Characteristics of the Learning Organisation

Mabey and Iles (1994:24) maintain that although each organisation is unique with an own identity, the learning organisation is an idealised state (a way of being, which is more than doing). Learning and working become synonymous. The process of transformation, as a central activity, enables the organisation to search within and without for new ideas, problems and opportunities for learning. Figure 5.2 depicts some of the basic characteristics of a learning organisation.

Figure 5.2: Characteristics of a Learning Organisation



Source: Hellriegel and Slocum (1996:681)

Figure 5.2 presents the basic characteristics of a learning organisation. Adding to these basic characteristics, Mabey and Iles (1994:25) and Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell (1991:18) characterise the learning organisation as one which has:

* learning strategies
* participative policy-making
* information technology to empower people
* internal exchange
* reward flexibility
* enabling structures

* frontline workers as environmental scanners
* inter-organisational learning
* a learning climate
* self-development for all.

It is, however, important to note that implementing all these actions does not necessarily mean that an organisation is a learning organisation. Learning must be a core part of all operations. Table 5.2 illustrates the difference between a traditional versus a learning organisation.

Table 5.2: Traditional versus Learning Organisations

FUNCTION	TRADITIONAL ORGANISATIONS	LEARNING ORGANISATIONS
Determine overall direction	Vision provided by top management.	Shared vision emerges from various places.
Formulation and implementation of ideas	Top management decides on what to be done and the rest of the organisation follows.	Take place at all levels within the organisation.
Conflict resolution	Through power and hierarchical influence.	Collaborative learning and integration of diverse viewpoints.
Leadership and motivation	Leader establishes vision, provides rewards and punishment and maintains overall control.	Leader builds shared vision, empowers personnel, encourages effective decision-making and inspires commitment through charismatic leadership.

Source: Adapted from Luthans (1995:45)

From Table 5.2 it appears that the learning organisation is a remedy for the fundamental problems inherent in traditional organisations. Robbins (1996:735) attests to the fact that no organisation has, or probably ever will, successfully achieve all the characteristics described. It should be an ideal to strive towards, rather than a realistic description of structural activities.

(d) Creating a Learning Organisation

Pedler et al., (1991:49) and Fisher and Torbert (1995:108) stress that although building a learning organisation is a challenge and that there is no single, guaranteed way of becoming a learning organisation, there are however, some guidelines and directions to begin this journey. Tobin (1993:178) argues that to bring the learning organisation to life, and to raise it properly, requires a series of nine action steps:

* Learn about learning organisations and decide if this is the direction that the organisation wants to follow.
* Determine the readiness for starting a learning organisation - assess the current status in terms of leadership, basic skills and teamwork.
* Prepare for the "birth" of the learning organisation - develop plans to build it.
* Conception - with the plans in place, it is now time to start announcing the new directions and informing all employees throughout the organisation.
* Provide sufficient training in each identified skill area - allow workers to practice those new skills and to learn from mistakes.
* "Kick-start" the programme - management must make a clear act of commitment to demonstrate the seriousness of the new approach.
* Institute a series of learning practices - incalculate employee's thinking with the values of the learning organisation.
* Encourage and reinforce learning - newly learned skills and information should be applied to the job situation and employees should be given responsibility for mastering the new skills.
* Be open to new ideas which will emerge - allow employees freedom to learn and share ideas.

These action steps indicate the long road to success in creating a learning organisation. Establishing a strong sense of urgency and shared commitment about becoming a learning organisation is of the utmost importance.

Wick and Leòn (1993:126) devised a formula for creating a learning organisation. This formula is presented in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Formula for Creating a Learning Organisation

Learning organisation =
Leader with vision X Plan/metrics X Information X Inventiveness X Implementation

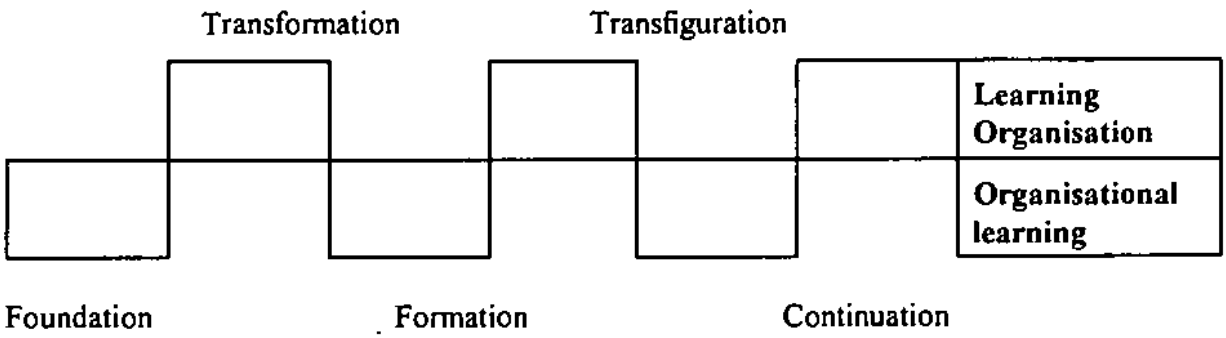
Source: Wick and Leòn (1993:127)

Employing this basic formula will create a unique learning organisation. If one element is missing, the organisation will either learn the wrong aspects or at a rate less than its full potential. A leader with a clearly defined vision, detailed, measurable action plans, rapid information sharing, inventiveness and the ability to implement the plan, is in the process of creating a learning organisation.

According to Swieringa and Wierdsma (1992:80), there are two basic approaches to becoming a learning organisation. The "tourist model" establishes precisely where the organisation wants to go, how to get there and then sets off (think first, act later). The "trekker model" suggests that the organisation, although not knowing exactly where to it is heading, chooses a direction and sets off. Organisational change takes place in a common, collective learning process. Using the "trekker model" implies that change is coming faster and there is hardly time to establish the precise direction and destination.

Mabey and Salaman (1995:349) highlight five development phases of the learning organisation (refer to Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4: Development Phases of a Learning Organisation



Source: Adapted from Mabey and Salaman (1995:349)

The lower three blocks in Figure 5.4 represent the initial phases of organisational learning. The foundation phase concerns basic skills' development and equipping learners with enthusiasm to learn more. The formation phase encourages and develops skills for self-learning and development (individual begins to learn about the organisation as a whole and its purpose). In the continuation phase, the learner and organisation become more independent, innovative and confident. The two upper phases in the model are evidence of a transition from organisational learning to the learning organisation. Transformation illustrates a complete change in the form, appearance and character of the organisation. During the transfiguration phase of the learning organisation, idealisation is the focal point. The organisation represents a way of life to be cherished because of its values. An organisation can therefore progressively develop into a learning organisation.

(e) Lifelong Learning

Authors such as Beardwell and Holden (1994:280) and Morton (1994:126) advocate the inculcation of a lifelong learning culture in the organisation to encourage a continuous need for learning.

Longworth and Davies (1997:22) define lifelong learning as "the development of human potential through a continuous, supportitive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, values, skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetimes and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment to all roles, circumstances and environments."

People continue learning throughout life, which implies continuous adaptation. Senge (1997:4) maintains that learning organisations are possible, because all people are learners - it is not only people's nature to learn, but people love to learn. Increased knowledge and improved skills enlarge the individual's capacities to adapt to the environment and to change it, if possible. Managers and change agents must therefore cultivate a learning culture in the organisation, which implies that the individual learns throughout its life in the organisation.

To conclude this section on the learning organisation, it is necessary to identify the role of training in the learning organisation. Greenberg and Baron (1997:92) argue that training is a systematic approach to incorporating learning in the organisation. Training can be used to prepare employees to meet the challenges and changes in the workplace and to upgrade and refine skills. The best training programmes often use many different approaches, thereby assuring that several different learning principles may be incorporated into training. Mabey and Salaman (1995:320) advocate that one of the elements of the learning organisation profile, is training programmes which are designed to support the change strategies and values held by top management. If learning is a priority, training programmes should be designed to maximise the balance between learning and doing.

According to Jones and Mann (1992:207), training should contribute to the development of the innovative capacity of the learning organisation. Changing times are forcing trainers to reconsider their role in the organisation. Initially, training within organisations was largely focussed on specific, well-defined skills which employees needed to improve job performance. Although this type of training remains important in the learning organisation, additional types of training are needed, in order to empower employees and to seek greater participation from them. In the learning organisation, where employees are expected to invent their own procedures and are empowered to

try new ways of functioning, the "old" training technology seems inappropriate. The following are four common approaches to the changing role of training in the learning organisation:

* Open training - the creation of a flexible and accessible range of good quality courses. Obstacles which impede participation in training courses must be removed. Self-study, the use of new technology and provisions in the learning environment need to be arranged.
* Responsive training - this is directed towards the creation of an environment in which learners are stimulated to find their own approach to key problems. Managers and personnel need to support each other in developing methods of handling critical tasks.
* On-site learning - this involves the dismantling of barriers between working and learning by adding an educational dimension to functions, regulations and systems.
* Collective competence - this implies the augmenting of individual and group competence by providing adequate working aids and facilities. The main concern is performance and not learning (Jones & Mann, 1992:209).

The last building block in the composition of training and transformation interaction is transformational leadership, which will be discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

5.2.3 Transformational Leadership

Hart and McMillan (1996:4) stress the important role of leadership in organisational transformation. The responsibility for orchestrating and sustaining the transformation of an organisation is vested in its leadership. Mondy and Premeaux (1995:349) concur that leadership is more vital during periods of sweeping organisational change. Authors such as Avolio (1994:1559); Bass (1994:10); Hater and Bass (1988:695) and Keller (1995:41) advocate that during rapid and dramatic change, there is a need for transformational leadership. This approach towards leadership involves specific behaviour, action and strategy which is required to bring about organisational transformation.

(a) Definitions

Kouzes and Posner (1987:118) view transformational leadership as the engagement between the leader and the followers in a way which gives rise to higher levels of motivation and morality. According to Conger and Kanungo (1988:282), transformational leadership demonstrates a concern for the individual needs of followers, encouraging leaders to look at old problems through intellectual stimulation. According to Bass and Avolio (1994:2), a transformational leader stimulates interest to view work from new perspectives, generates awareness of the vision of the organisation and develops people to higher levels of motivation, ability and potential.

It can therefore be deducted that transformational leaders are visionary figures who can arouse intense emotions in followers, having the ability to lead organisations through times of major changes. In analysing the literature on transformational leadership, it appears that it is also termed "visionary leadership" (Hersey et al., 1996:521), "strategic leadership" (Mondy & Premeaux, 1995:349) and "charismatic leadership" (Gordon, 1996:332). A debate exists however, on the difference between transformational and charismatic leadership. Although Luthans (1995:357) and Steers and Black (1994:420) use transformational and charismatic leadership synonymously, Greenberg and Baron (1997:447) and Yukl (1994:352) propose that charismatic leadership is generally more narrowly defined as an aspect of transformational leadership. This debate, however, falls beyond the scope of this study and for this purpose, charismatic leadership will be viewed as a dimension of transformational leadership.

(b) Characteristics

Bowditch and Buono (1994:236) advance that the transformational leader is inspirational and concerned with ideas rather than processes, has the ability to articulate and communicate a vision and has strong empathy skills. Steers and Black (1994:420) emphasise the following characteristics of the transformational leader: has high self-confidence, the ability to articulate a vision, is willing to

assume high personal risk, uses unconventional strategies and behaviour and is perceived as a change agent.

Tichy and Devanna (1986:271-280) provide a comprehensive analysis of the most common characteristics of the transformational leader (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Characteristics of Transformational Leadership

NO	CHARACTERISTIC	IMPLICATION
1.	Identified as change agent	Needs to make a difference by creating an adaptive, innovative and entrepreneurial organisation.
2.	Courageous and outspoken	Prepared to take a stand against the status quo in the organisation. Confront reality even if it is painful.
3.	Believes in people	Sensitive to the needs of others by empowering them.
4.	Value-driven	Articulates a set of core values and exhibits behaviours congruent to these values.
5.	Lifelong learning	Views failures as learning experiences with a strong desire for continuous self-learning and development.
6.	Able to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty	Able to cope with and frame problems in a complex and changing world.
7.	Visionary	Not only creates a dream, but translates the dream and image for others to share.

In analysing these characteristics, it seems quite clear that the transformational leader plays a vital role in the transformation of an organisation, due to the very nature and role of the transformational leader. Terminology such as "inspirational", "self-confidence", "courage" and "visionary", among others, spells out the real make-up of the transformational leader. The mere possession of these characteristics, however, does not necessarily imply transformational leadership. Tromp (1997:2), however, asserts that for organisations to survive and grow in a discontinuously changing business environment, they need leaders with very specific transformational leadership competencies. Table

5.4 depicts some competencies which organisational leaders should display, illustrating important strategic skills and management development challenges.

Table 5.4: Critical Skills and Management Development Challenges Facing Transformational Leaders

STRATEGIC THINKING SKILLS	MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES
1. Knowing the organisation and markets	1. Challenge of learning
2. Managing subunit rivalry	2. Power of teams
3. Identifying/overcoming threats	3. Time as a competitive weapon
4. Staying with the strategy	4. Dramatic leadership
5. Being an entrepreneurial force	5. Globalisation and transformation
6. Accommodating adversity	6. Flexibility and resilience
	7. Customer service responsiveness/quality
	8. Technology and information systems
	9. Systems thinking

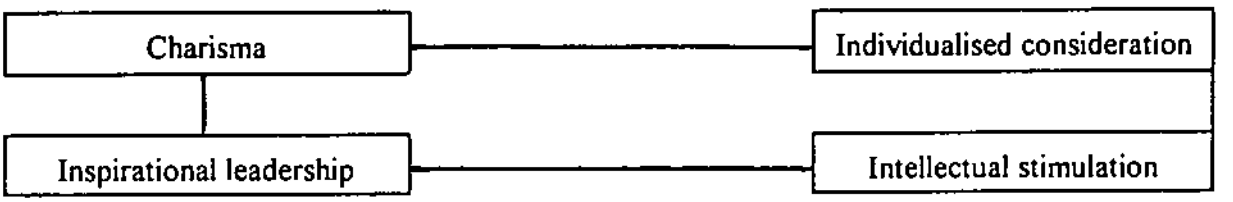
Source: Tromp (1997:2)

Clearly indicated in Table 5.4, is that learning and transformation are key management development challenges facing the transformational leader. The strategic thinking skills mentioned, should be used by the transformational leader in dealing with challenges facing management development.

(c) Behaviours

Brook (1993:46) highlights four specific competencies required by leaders managing organisations in transformation. These behaviours or competencies are depicted in Figure 5.5 below.

Figure 5.5: Transformational Leadership Behaviours



(i) Charisma

According to Brook (1993:46), charisma provides vision and a sense of mission, instills pride and gains respect and trust. It can be described as a relationship between the leader and followers and is an attributive phenomenon. Followers attribute charismatic qualities to leaders based on their behaviour and the perceived outcomes associated with it. The ability of a leader to transform followers will therefore depend on how the leader combines charisma with the other behaviours discussed below.

(ii) Inspirational Leadership

This involves emotional arousal and raising the levels of motivation of followers. The leader gets followers to visualise attractive future states. A demonstration of commitment to goals and a shared vision is vital. It is towards this vision that the leader mobilises the commitment of organisational members. The leader influences subordinates to exert themselves beyond their own expectations and self-interest. Examples of inspirational leadership behaviour is instilling pride in followers using

inspirational talks to build morale and providing personal encouragement to followers to build self-esteem (Bass & Avolio, 1994:3).

(iii) Individualised consideration

The leader provides followers with the support, encouragement and attention needed to perform well. (Greenberg & Baron, 1997:447). Followers are developed to higher levels of potential. New learning opportunities are created within a supportive climate. Individual differences are recognised and two-way communication is encouraged. The unique needs and capabilities of followers are therefore taken into account. It is basically an interactive process whereby the leader empathises with, listens to and assists followers to achieve aspirations. Recognition and expression of appreciation for good performance are vital.

(iv) Intellectual stimulation

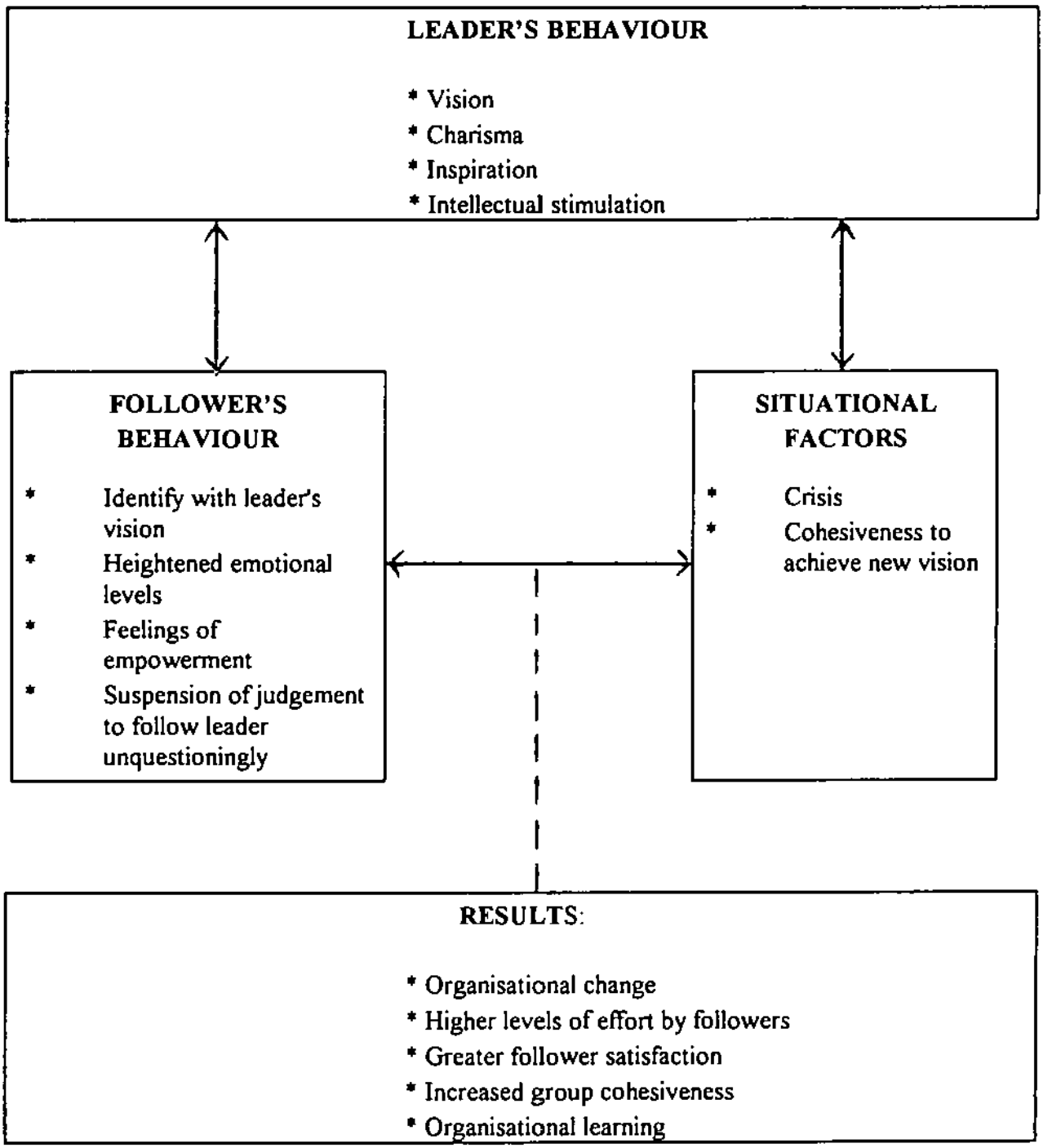
Schermerhorn et al., (1997:331) state that the transformational leader stimulates innovation and creativity, problem-solving, decision-making and judgement. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches and to reframe problems, incorporating arousal of and change in follower's cognitive and information structures, rather than in immediate behaviour. This leads to more pro-active thinking instead of reactive thinking. It is important, however, for the leader to be open to and stimulated by subordinate's reasoning and ideas.

It can be deducted from the above that although being a transformational leader is not easy, this type of leadership can be very effective in transforming an organisation. Portraying the four behaviours discussed above, can lead to the creation of an environment which makes people believe in and care about work and about enhancing organisational learning. Senge (1997:339) also noted that the learning organisation demands a new view of leadership, which is responsible for building the organisation - transformational leadership can provide the answer.

(d) Transformational Leadership Model

Hein and Nicholson (1994:84) mention that although transformational leadership provides a philosophical view of leadership, there are concrete principles which can be utilised. Anderson (1992:64) concurs that a leadership model is an appropriate map of what reality could look like and which provides a reference point for evaluating effectiveness, when trying a particular leadership intervention. Figure 5.6 illustrates a basic transformational leadership model.

Figure 5.6: Transformational Leadership Model



Source: Adapted from Hellriegel and Slocum (1996:471)

From Figure 5.6 it is important to note that for change to take place, there needs to be interaction between leader (exhibiting vision, charisma, inspiration and intellectual stimulation) and follower behaviour and the situation. For change to be effective, followers need to identify with the leader's vision, be aroused to heightened emotional levels and be empowered. The situation can be characterised by a crisis in the organisation (such as new legislation, outdated technology or competitor's action). The result of the interaction between the leader, followers and the situation can lead to transformation of the organisation. At the forefront of this transformational activity is the transformational leader whose purpose is to build the organisation and its employees into a single cohesive thinking unit. The transformational leader is one who can take the concepts of change and human relationships and apply them to the change situation (Hein & Nicholson, 1994:95). Tichy and Devanna (1986:4) state that transforming the organisation requires new vision, new frames of thinking about people, strategy and structure and that the call has gone out for transformational leaders.

According to Noer (1997:173), the idea of "new-reality leaders as macho sloganeers who sell yesterday's solutions to tomorrow's problems" is incorrect. Organisational leaders who really make a difference, do so by facilitating transition. The following are three types of facilitation competencies required by transformational leaders:

* Intrapersonal insight (self-transition): self-awareness, clarity on own needs and agenda and valid data on how he is perceived by others.
* Interpersonal competence (work group transition): empathetic listening, give and receive feedback, reflect feelings and emotions, coaching and counselling ability.
* Stimulate collective dialogue (total organisational transition): refrain from individual action, believe in collective learning and problem-solving.

The last aspect to be discussed in this section is the role of training in transformational leadership. Bass (1990:27) postulates that "transformational leadership can be learned and it can and should be

the subject of management training and development." Conger and Kanungo (1988:312) agree that leadership training provides the individual with an awareness of the nature and dynamics of leadership and with the behaviour involved in it. Through training, the individual discovers his own standing with regard to this behaviour and, thereby, the potential for developing leadership qualities. Training further builds the requisite skills for fulfilling leadership roles. This implies that for transformational leadership to be effective, the training programme needs to take into account the social influences on trainees and their disposition. It is important, however, that the elements of transformational influences be identified in clear terms, in order to facilitate training of transformational leaders. This opinion is also held by Yukl (1994:453) who alleges that training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership in organisations. Various training programmes can be designed to increase skills relevant to managerial effectiveness and advancement, and conceptual and interpersonal skills.

It should therefore be clear that training for transformation is facilitated and cultivated through organisational development in a learning organisation by means of transformational leadership. These three aspects can be regarded as the basis for the interaction between training and transformation.

In Section 5.3, an analysis is made of the role of training in managing organisational change.

5.3 THE ROLE OF TRAINING IN MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Mullins (1996:636) advocates that the stages of training (refer to Figure 3.1) need to be related to the context of the external environment in which the organisation is operating. The wide range of forces acting upon organisations (see Section 4.4) makes the need for change inevitable. Training for change is therefore vital for the long-term survival of the organisation. Both Dawson (1994:64) and Lievegoed (1991:42) concur that increasing emphasis is being placed on the need for continuous training to support change. Lakhani (1996:11) stresses that training is the seed which will help the organisation to grow, but, at the same time, attention needs to be given to the organisation's systems

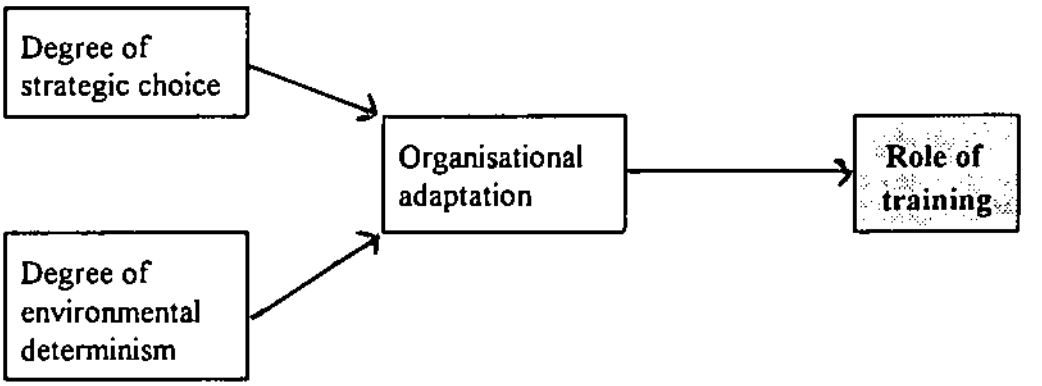
and values and the distribution of power. Many trade unions, for example, recognise the importance of training in relevant skills to sustain job security.

The challenge of training and development as a solution to both performance problems and mechanisms for change, is highlighted by various authors. Human and Horwitz (1992:150) stress the importance of viewing individual development as an investment in human capital. This development can enhance the capacity of people to cope with change. Lovell (1994:132) contends that, in the context of organisational change, problems may arise on issues such as stress management, assertiveness, career planning and time management and that the provision of information and training can assist individuals to cope with change.

Human (1991:17) argues that the training of managers is crucial in a changing South Africa. Management training, like other strategic issues, needs to be managed in a volatile and constantly changing context. There is a need to design organisations which promote and enhance learning in order to adapt to changing environments. Blunt and Jones (1992:311) also believe that the upgrading of managerial capabilities is a continuing need in situations of rapid change. According to Joyce and Woods (1996:255), there is a need to develop strategic managers. Much of the training of strategic managers has however been limited in its applicability to contemporary conditions. Developmental approaches to strategic management, which involves participative planning and creative learning, should be seen as a continuation of the educational process for managers.

Jones and Mann (1992:45) also propound the developmental importance of training as a function of organisational adaptation. Two independent variables can influence organisational adaptation: external determinants and strategic choice (refer to Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7: Determinants of the Role of Training



Source: Jones and Mann (1992:48)

Figure 5.7 examines the degree to which variations in the role of training may be understood as a function of organisational adaptation. It shows that the measure of strategic choice enjoyed by an organisation, together with the influence of environmental determinants, affects the role of training in the organisation. Figure 5.8 illustrates the relationship between strategic choice and environmental determinants in organisational adaptation.

Figure 5.8: Relationship Between Strategic Choice and Environmental Determinants in Organisational Adaptation

High

Strategic Choice	3 Strategic choice Adaptation by design	2 Differentiated choice Adaptation within constraints
	4 Undifferentiated choice Adaptation by chance	1 Minimum choice Adaptation or selection is out

Low High

Environmental Determination

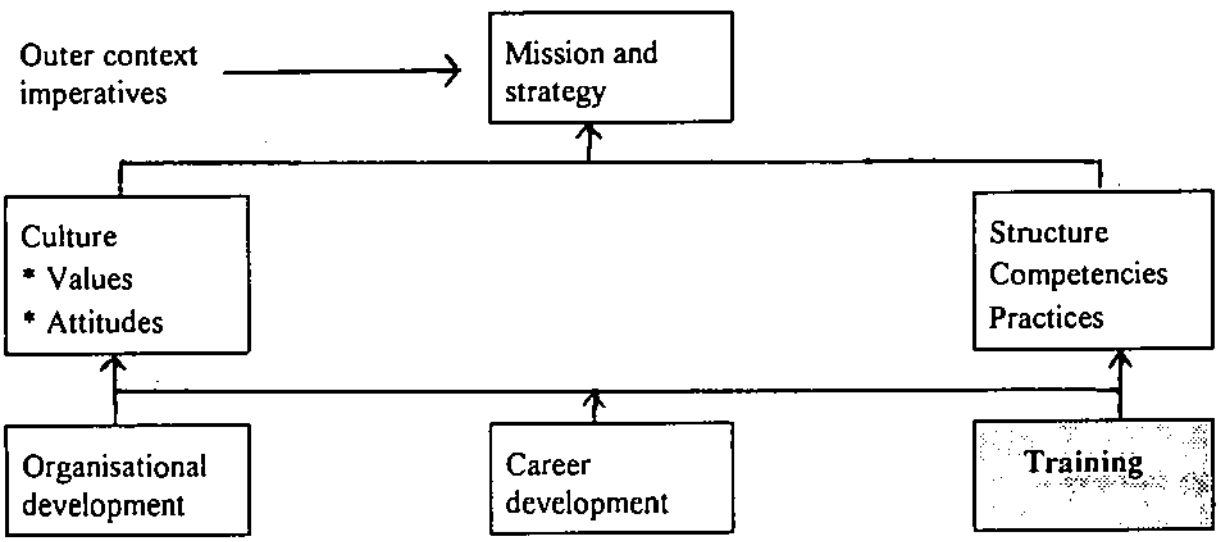
Source: Jones and Mann (1992:45)

Organisations in Quadrant 1 of Figure 5.8 are exposed to strong environmental pressures and have few available strategic choices. The role of training is primarily for survival. Organisations in Quadrant 2 experience powerful external constraints, characterised by differentiated strategic choice. As strategic choices are limited in scope by external constraints, training does not have a fully developmental role. This results in a hybrid training role - training for improvement. Organisations dealing with Quadrant 3 situations have few external constraints and freedom of strategic choice. The tendency is to move into areas which imply that goal-directed change is a strong feature. The role of training can be viewed as facilitating the prospecting of new activities - hence training for development. Quadrant 4 organisations are characterised by few strategic choices and external pressures. Training on organisational level seems to be directionless - random training (Jones & Mann, 1992:48-49).

It is clearly emphasised in Figure 5.8 that training can play an important role in the development or adaptation of an organisation to external changes or pressures.

According to Thompson and Mabey (1994:218), there are two ways in which training (a component of human resources development) can influence the management of organisational change. The first role is to respond to externally driven changes at organisational level (shifts in strategic action). The second role is an internal one - developing and shaping the appropriate competencies, practices and attitudes which will assist the organisation to deliver its products and services. This dual role of training in managing organisational change is depicted in Figure 5.9.

Figure 5.9: The Role of Training in Managing Strategic Change



Source: Adapted from Thompson and Mabey (1994:219)

Figure 5.9 shows that the stimulus for change comes from the external environment. The development areas can be viewed as a set of key leverage points in bringing about effective organisational change (of which training is one). Strategic changes need to be anticipated and then interpreted in terms of the necessary new skills and attitudes. Based on this, is the design and

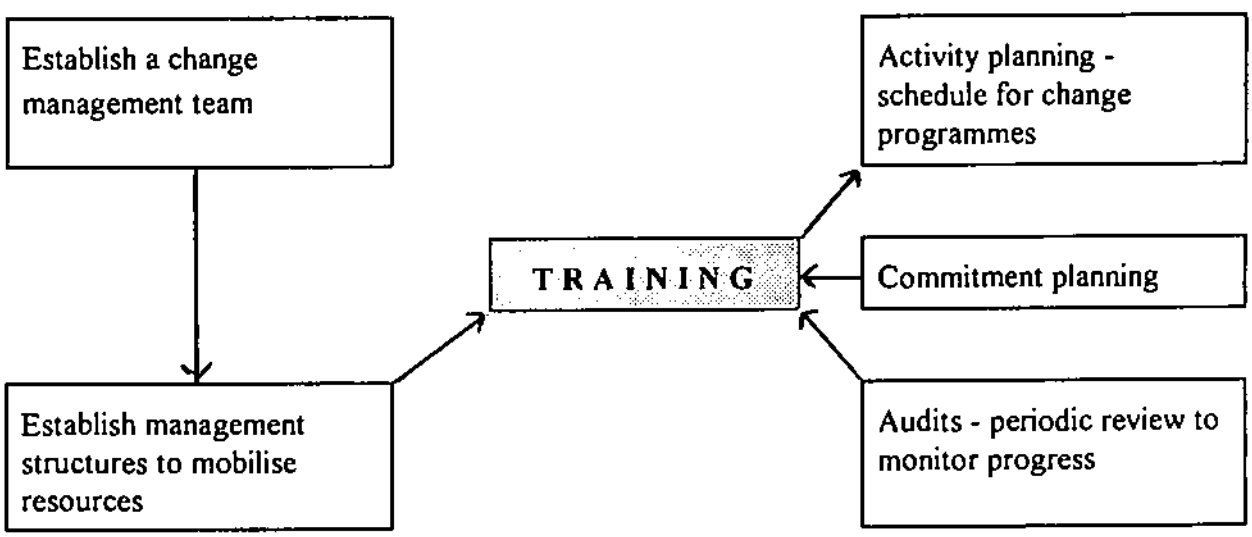
implementation of appropriate development activities - hence organisational and career development and training. Training initiatives are ultimately linked to the mission of the organisation.

Bowman and Jarrett (1996:220) and Thompson (1995:172) also indicate the use of training as a strategy to facilitate the transition of change. Educating and training people for change beforehand can assist in understanding why the change is necessary. Some disadvantages of using training as a strategy for making change are listed below:

* Organisations can use training as a substitute for change and a defence against change.
* Training can be provided for the wrong group within the organisation, because of not directly addressing the change.
* There can be training without the support from other parts in the organisation.

For training to serve as a vehicle for change, change agents must ensure that training is used for the correct purposes. The crucial role of training in the stage of planning the proposed change is emphasised by Burnes (1996:332) and illustrated in Figure 5.10.

Figure 5.10: The Role of Training in Planning the Change



As illustrated in Figure 5.10, training is the key element in any change project. The result of training can be the development of new skills, that people are left with the ability to pursue continuous improvement or that they are made aware of the need for change.

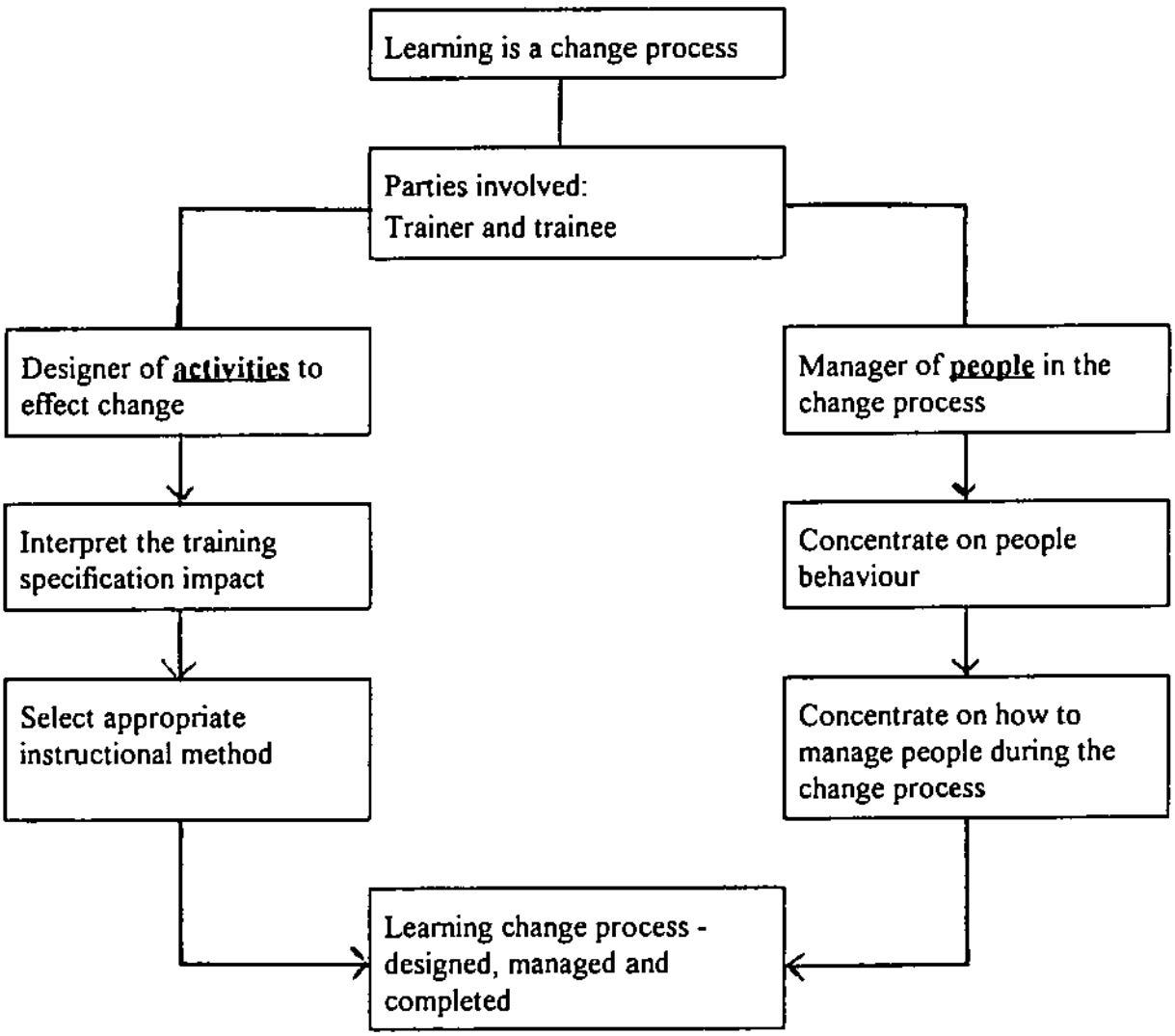
Besides the key role of training in planning the change, Brill and Worth (1997:62) indicate the role of training in initiating the change process. Through a seminar or workshop, people can examine personal needs, levels of morale and leadership styles. This new insight and perspective can help people to disconnect from old habits and to open up to initiating change in the organisation.

According to Bennis et al., (1970:70) and Kanter et al., (1992:510), the use of training during the implementation of change is also important. This means that people need to be reoriented, redirected or engaged in new activities which require new knowledge, motivation or skills. Major changes involve many new skills. A change in behaviour patterns and the work environment can both benefit from training programmes.

Another aspect which Havelock and Havelock (1973:59) mention is that training designs will vary in detail, depending on the scope of the change for which the training programme has been designed. The change agent should have clear knowledge on what, when, who and why change is taking place. This will have a direct impact on the design of the actual training programme.

McMahon and Carter (1990:90) are of the opinion that the word "change" is often used indiscriminately, ceasing to indicate the dynamic interaction required for it to succeed. With regard to training, it fails to asses the issues involved and the planning required to manage the actual change process. Learning and training can fundamentally be viewed as a change process. This learning change process as depicted in Figure 5.11 is a joint venture between the trainer and trainee, with a clear delineation of responsibilities. The model focuses on how the trainer should go about designing the learning process to affect change and how to manage the trainees involved in the change process.

Figure 5.11: The Learning Change Process Model



Source: McMahon and Carter (1990:92)

The learning change process model in Figure 5.11 is based on two key tasks undertaken by the trainer: designing of activities and managing people. The designing of activities to effect change or learning entails the design of learning activities which will enable trainees to acquire competence (knowledge, skills and attitudes). It is the task of the trainer to ensure that the learning process and

performance specifications are translated into action processes. The learning outcome or specified performance is used to select the most appropriate instructional method. It is important to create the right learning environment or learning change process which reflects the intent of the performance objective. The second component of the learning change process model is the managing of people. Within a training group, however, a wide range of individual differences exist: learning styles, levels of motivation, cultural background, value systems and experience. All these differences impact in a way which creates a potentially volatile environment in which the training programme is presented. The trainer must therefore adopt certain behaviour to move the trainee to the desired behaviour or performance. Completion of these key tasks represents the completion of the learning change process (McMahon & Carter, 1990:93-106).

Tobin (1993:198), on the other hand, advocates the creation of a virtual training organisation and states that the "traditional training organisation", if it is to assist with organisational transformation, needs to transform itself. The traditional training organisation focuses on the development of individual skills, does not participate in the organisation's planning efforts and is not a change agent. Training must therefore not only be seen as a functional area in the organisation, but needs to possess the capabilities necessary to help transform the organisation.

Bellingham and Cohen (1989:73) warn against the myth that training programmes are magic bullets which can transform or develop people and organisations to be more productive. Ascribing to the myth that all training courses makes a difference is dangerous, for the following reasons:

* When large amounts of funds are invested in training which does not produce the intended results, it is easy to reach the conclusion that people and organisations cannot change and training is a waste of money. Training under the right conditions and for the right reasons can secure the future of an organisation.
* It reinforces the reputation that training is the "stepchild" in the organisation.

* It leaves managers with the impression that training programmes are short-term experiences with no lasting effect.
* If managers believe that training is sufficient on its own, the need to create an environment which nurtures personal development is ignored. Training then ends up as an "exposure experience" causing no change in the fundamental character of the organisation.

Empirical evidence of the importance of training and organisational change, as key activities in human resources management, is provided by Hofmeyer, Rall and Templer (1995:108). Table 5.5 illustrates some of the rank order of human resources activities (based on a survey among 205 human resource professionals).

Table 5.5: Rank Order of Human Resources Activities in Terms of Importance

ACTIVITY	IMPORTANCE
Organisational change	1
Affirmative action/black advancement	2
Introducing participative management	3
Training	4
Management development	5
Human resources planning	6
Industrial relations	7
Employment equity/removal of discrimination	8
Cross-cultural management	9
Cross-cultural communication	10

Source: Adapted from Hofmeyer et al., (1995:111)

Table 5.5 clearly shows that organisational change is regarded as the most important human resources activity in the organisation and that training is ranked fourth (out of a possible 17 activities of which all were not listed). Human resources managers should therefore pay particular attention to organisational change and training as two key human resources activities.

To conclude this section, the role of training in managing organisational change is simplistically presented in Figure 5.12 below.

Figure 5.12: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change

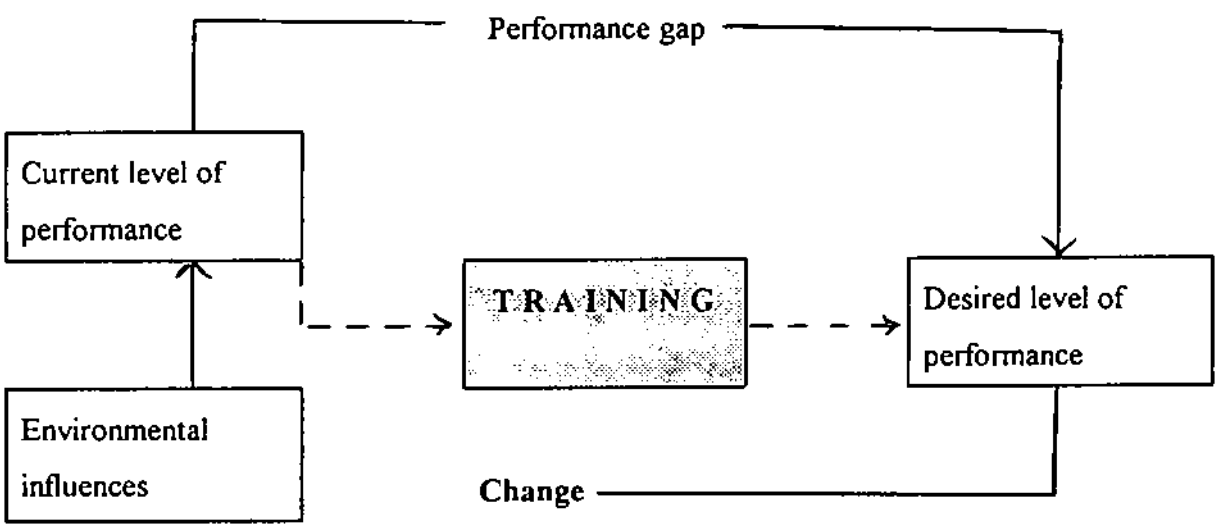


Figure 5.12 shows that environmental influences (for example, a change in technology) can have an influence on the current level of performance of employees. This creates the need for new levels of performance - hence the existence of a performance gap. In order to change this imbalance or gap, training can be used as a vehcile to reach the new levels of performance.

In the following section, an analysis is made of training and transformation in practice by means of three case studies.

5.4 THE INTERACTION OF TRAINING AND TRANSFORMATION IN PRACTICE: A CASE STUDY APPROACH

This section investigates three organisations which have undergone major change and the role played by training in these change interventions. The idea is not to present these case studies as if it is part of a representative sample survey. In each case study, the practical dynamics of change (how it actually happened in practice) is highlighted. The three organisations which are examined are: Motorola, National Health Services (United Kingdom) and Avis Europe Car Rental. The reason for selecting these three international organisations is that no appropriate South African case study on how training facilitated organisational transformation could be found. Two of the selected organisations (Avis and Motorola), however, do operate in South Africa.

5.4.1 Training and Change at Motorola

Motorola, a United States organisation, enjoyed the reputation in the mid 1990s, as a world-class competitor in electronics. The organisation is the world leader in the production of cellular phones, computer modems, two-way mobile radios and paging services. Motorola's enviable position currently contrasts with that in 1979 when it became evident to top management that the Japanese could bury the organisation with their high quality products, pushing Motorola into a secondary role in the electronics market.

Managers were challenged with improving quality and customer services, cutting cycle times and costs and increasing productivity. At the executive-development and manufacturing-force level, Motorola has expended a large amount of time and money to educate, train, retrain and motivate its workforce. Motorola managers conduct an energetic programme of scouting plants around the world to look for advanced, new and adoptable production techniques. To improve co-operation and interaction between functional areas and across organisational levels, management training

programmes have been set up to breach the barriers between design, purchasing, production, distribution and marketing. These efforts resulted in the Bravo pager being designed, developed and produced in eighteen months instead of the normal three to five years.

The organisation has further embarked on a programme to eliminate defects throughout the organisation. The programme, Six-Sigma, is aimed at zero-defect manufacturing. Educational activities at the organisation's training and education centre, which has been dubbed "Motorola University", provide educational support for the concept of quality improvement. The main aim of increasing productivity has been to shrink the organisational structure by removing layers of unnecessary supervision and widening spans of control. The desire, however, was not to sacrifice employees in the changeover process.

Several initiatives have been implemented to make Motorola a more customer-driven organisation. These included developing and evaluating a management system which essentially turns the organisation inside-out, increasing the number of visits made to customers by sales and top level managers and to introduce techniques which attempt to help managers and employees to think about customers as they perform their jobs. Motorola has also been an industry leader in lobbying for and attacking unfair trade practices. A strong belief pervading the organisation is that the products which make Motorola healthy today, will not be the ones to make the organisation healthy in 20 years. To encourage development in new areas, Motorola has several organisations on new venture programmes, called "New Enterprises."

(a) Specific Techniques for Change and Improvement at Motorola

The following are some techniques used by Motorola for change and improvement in the organisation:

(i) Training and Development

Motorola has had the foresight to realise that nothing less than top-to-bottom employee education and retraining is needed to change how the organisation operates if it is to compete effectively. Motorola developed one of the best and largest corporate-training programmes in the United States. The programme not only directly improves Motorola, but also increases the self-worth of employees and commitment to the organisation. Motorola executives believe that all employees need to be trained continually. In a symbolic and substantial way, the organisation supports a thinking workforce, as shown by the following programmes:

* Tailored Executive Development

This programme focuses on training executives to understand corporate strategy and how to achieve it. The main objectives of this programme are: to increase senior executive's knowledge of future external events and the potential effect thereof on Motorola and to enhance the ability of these executives to influence Motorola's future in the face of sweeping internal and external change.

* Competitive Awareness Programme

This programme educates and trains 2500 managers each year. Sixteen hours of training make them aware of Motorola's competition and what the organisation can do about it.

* Workforce Training

Motorola conducts a massive education and training programme for its employees, which is conducted primarily at Motorola University. The charter of this university is not so much to educate people, but to be an agent for change, with emphasis on retraining workers and redefining jobs. The programme also plays an important role in transmitting the organisation's work culture. In addition

to courses in technical and business skills, emphasis is placed on remedial mathematics and improved reading skills. Motorola's large in-house training programmes compete with those developed and offered elsewhere.

(ii) Quality Function Development (QFD)

This is a new and potentially powerful customer diagnostic tool. It brings the ideas of the customer into the design and production process. The objective is to reduce design time, labour defects and costs.

(iii) Quality Audit

The quality audit attempts to put the manager in the customer's situation. The objective is for management to see how the customer is being treated from the customer's viewpoint.

(iv) Next Operation as Customer

This technique can be used to improve service and product quality. It requires every employee to view the next user of the product or service on which they are working as a customer. The next customer may be the next department, person, process or operation to receive that product or service.

Source: Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1994:156-162)

(b) Evaluation of the Case Study

Motorola's move to its current position in the market is based on a relentless drive to improve product and service quality. To accomplish this, Motorola has invested heavily in its human resources - educating and training both management and the workforce in the techniques of quality improvement. Time and money to educate, train and retrain, both at executive-development and manufacturing level, is a major priority. Although not the only measure for change and improvement, training seems to be the most important. Motorola developed one of the best and largest corporate-training programmes in the United States. The charter of Motorola University is not so much to educate people (which makes it different from other educational institutions), but to be an agent for change. Training is therefore not utilised just for the sake of having a training programme in the organisation, but to facilitate change in the organisation. Quality and training both receive strong support from top management, backed by financial resources to fund training and to compensate employees who have learned the necessary skills to continuously improve performance. Management realises that being successful requires better anticipation of change, willingness to commit resources and the capability to recognise the need for constant improvement.

5.4.2 Learning to Achieve Transformation in the National Health Service

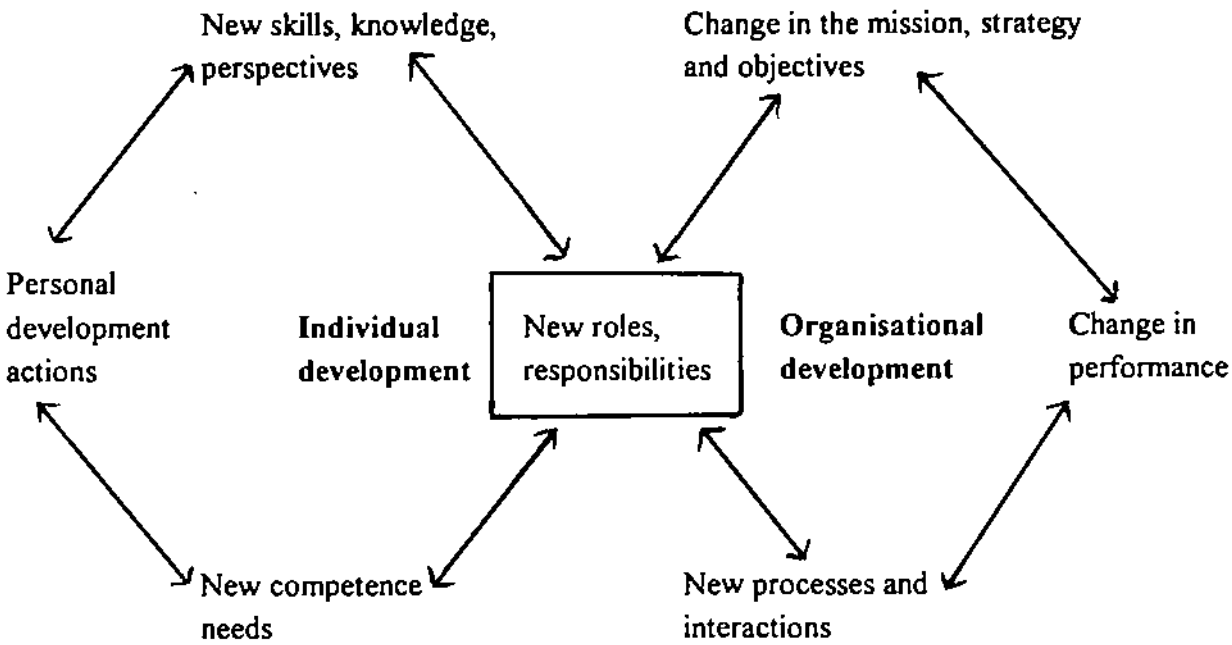
The National Health Service (NHS) in the United Kingdom has witnessed and been responsible for bringing about unprecedented strategic and operational change. These changes have involved redistribution of power and authority, evolution of management and control functions closer to the point of service delivery, promotion of greater flexibility and responsiveness to client needs. This has been matched by the recognition of the need for a new approach to training and developing people, which not only helps to embrace and manage current changes, but which promotes the organisational resilience to adapt in a continually dynamic environment. The concept of learning is not new to the NHS - education and training have been cornerstones of personnel practice for many decades. The

growing popularity of the learning organisation concept in some areas of the NHS seems to have been derived from four interrelated factors:

* Because the future methods of operation of NHS organisations cannot be precisely defined, success will depend on the innovation and courage of individuals and their ability to learn and develop new ways of working.
* Change in the NHS is inevitable. Successful change management will neither lie in reluctant reactions to future changes, nor in minimising their impact, but in building an organisation which is flexible and responsive to the needs of the population it serves.
* Organisational change can provide an opportunity for individual learning and development. Organisations should therefore seek opportunities for personal development through the process of organisational change (refer to Figure 5.13).
* The continued future success of health service organisations will depend on the collection, transfer and assimilation of knowledge and expertise.

This case aims to illustrate some of the issues involved in applying the learning organisation concept in the NHS. Figure 5.13 shows the interrelationship between individual and organisational change.

Figure 5.13: The Interrelationship Between Individual and Organisational Change



Below are some of the key steps which were taken to develop the new health authority along the lines of a learning organisation.

(a) Creating a Vision

The vision was developed and shared with a range of stakeholders and built up over a period of time. Training activities included workshops and seminars, with a strong focus on envisioning corporate roles and values. Creating roles which promoted flexibility and processes which enabled information flow, learning and feedback, were further critical aspects of the change.

(b) Building Teamwork From the Top

The NHS was formed after a couple of mergers. A merger is often described as one of the most emotionally charged of all change situations. It often brings together two parties with a history of accentuating differences rather than similarities of identity and culture. Integrated teamwork, at the earliest possible stage of the process, is critical to establish common understanding and trust. A merger project group was therefore formed.

(c) Developing and Applying Models of Learning

The process of organisational change and learning holds that:

* Organisational development and growth occur through an ongoing process of learning which involves an assessment of the need for change, and development and implementation of action plans.
* This cycle of learning should occur continually and entail an ongoing review of progress and questioning the status quo.
* An organisation needs to draw on all resources available in order to promote effective learning.

(d) Understanding the Process of Learning and Change

All organisational change involves some kind of loss to the individual employed. The need to understand the effect of the change on motivation, morale, emotional stability and performance needs to be recognised. In the process of loss and transition, the individual goes through a process of shock, denial, defence, guilt and depression, gradually moving on to adaptation and internalisation.

Understanding these change processes was critical to the building of a learning climate to spread and understand the issues of the change, and to develop insight into how to handle it. A factor often overlooked is that learning itself involves feelings of loss and consequent resistance. Learning further entails giving up old perceptions, assumptions and states of knowledge. Time spent on understanding these processes at all levels of the organisation, and providing support for personal transition, is critical when starting a learning organisation.

(e) Instilling Learning and Feedback Mechanisms

From the above it can be seen that a vision of the new is the first step in putting the learning organisation concept to work: an early priority must be to demonstrate the benefits of joint learning in the future of the organisation. This was done by looking for opportunities of joint problem-solving and by identifying the competencies necessary to enable the characteristics of the learning organisation to be fulfilled. The process of maintaining individual learning logs was started to help individuals to record their learning goals and to monitor learning experiences.

Source: Adapted from Burgoyne, Pedler and Boydell (1994:158-167)

(f) Evaluation of the Case Study

The learning organisation concept can be seen to be critical to successful change and not just something that needs to be done. Only by being fully commited and by examining the barriers to learning, presented by current structures, systems, practices and styles, can true progress be made. Understanding the implications of personal role, action and style, is a prerequisite for achieving real change. The purpose of the learning organisation needs to be brought to life, making it an integral part of the vision and purpose of the organisation. It is further important to understand the processes of change and learning. The threat of moving to a more fluid, questioning and open working environment needs to be recognised and participative, developmental and counselling mechanisms

should be put in place to support people through the transition. It is important to recognise the need for new approaches to developing people. The crucial role of training in this regard cannot be overemphasised. The merger project group which was formed, provided a forum for sharing concerns and misgivings about the implications of the changes for individuals. The process of organisational change should be linked to a learning model and activities should be planned accordingly. Organisational change can, therefore, provide an opportunity for individual learning, training and development. Given the inevitability of change, organisations should provide opportunities for personal development, through the process of change.

5.4.3 Continuous Change and Improvement at Avis Europe Car Rental

Avis Europe Ltd is the leader in the rent-a-car business in Europe. Avis Inc. was established in 1946 by Warren Avis with three cars at Willow Run Airport, Detroit. Avis is represented in 96 countries, delivering a consistent and recognisable service from more than 2700 locations. The success story of Avis can be summed up in three very famous words: "We try harder." This became the centrepiece of a long-term advertising campaign and one of the most famous advertising slogans of all times. The standard was set. In 1963 Avis produced an advertisement which asked customers to complain if they found something wrong. Setting standards in such a public way and generating enthusiasm has been on-going for more than 30 years. How has this happened? Avis had built continuous improvement into its culture - it has succeeded in making the continuous change process implicit. If culture is the bedrock of success, training, measurement, information systems and recognition are the building blocks of Avis' excellence.

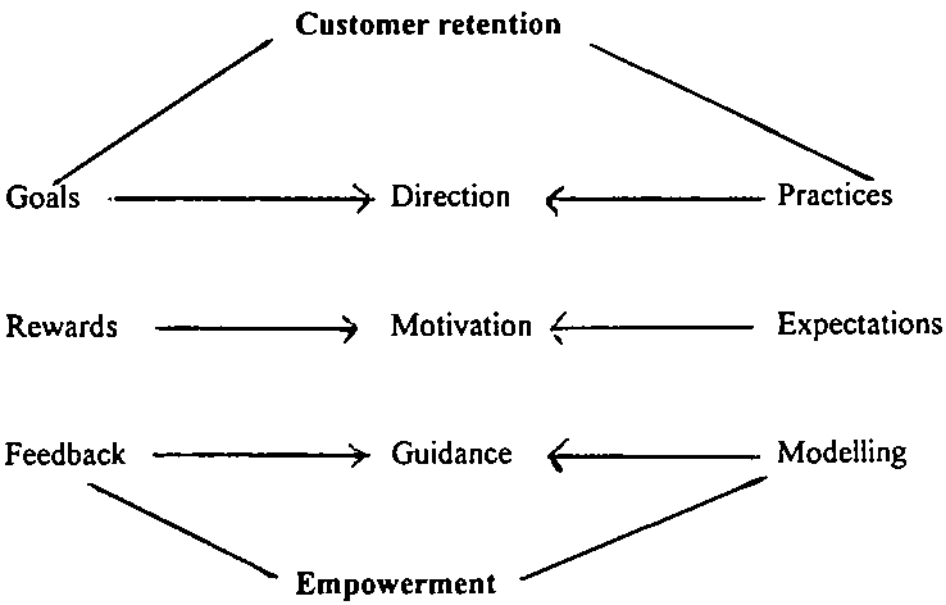
(a) Vision, Values and Leadership

Avis entered Europe with the vision of building the best and fastest-growing car rental business. This vision has not changed in over 30 years. It is not surprising that each and every employee is clear about what the organisation is trying to achieve. This vision has driven its people, networks, outlets and technology. The organisation has a business planning process that matches its empowering culture. Guidelines are set for achievement, people, customer satisfaction, revenue growth and financing. Annual planning is supplemented by profit improvement plans (PIP's). Avis needs to be seen as an organisation where values and culture are clearly understood and lived.

(b) Process of Management

Avis works through six key organisational and managerial processes (refer to Figure 5.14) which are aligned to its strategy of customer retention and empowerment of staff.

Figure 5.14: Avis's Management and Organisational Processes



Avis Management Services (AMS), the headquarters of the Avis Group, combines corporate leadership with specialist support functions. AMS provides policy determination and strategic direction. The model in Figure 5.14 reflects Avis' value of simplicity and the link, through the actions of management, between customer retention and empowerment. The main processes are: goals and practices (providing direction), rewards and expectations (through motivation) and feedback and modelling (providing guidance). Management sets direction by what it measures and what it pays attention to. Measurement starts with the customer, integrating the results with management of the organisation. Expectation setting begins with recruitment. Avis focuses on hiring people who are entrepreneurial by nature and who like people. "Spirit of Avis" is a recognition programme - a reward is given to those who demonstrates the values by action. Importance of keeping tight control on costs is fostered through a reward scheme called Positive Ideas - Profitable Solutions (PIPS). This award is given for employee suggestions which simplify procedures, reduce errors and costs and improve quality. Management also gives guidance through feedback and by the way they behave. Business measurement at Avis is based on a scoreboard which reflects operational

as well as financial aspects. The "key issues and strategy meeting" (KISM) is a fortnightly meeting of senior managers (the title says it all).

(c) Understanding Customers

The organisation has three mechanisms for understanding it's customers: surveys, enquiries and complaints and meetings with staff and management. Each month more than 12 000 customers are selected at random from those who have rented a car in the previous month. These customers are sent a questionnaire and ask to record their level of satisfaction. The training and customer service functions use the data to identify where changes are necessary.

(d) Operational Excellence

Avis always maintains a tight control on costs. The Wizzard system is a real-time, on-line reservation and rental administration system, handling 2.5 million transactions per day. A Wizzard cardholder can complete a rental agreement in less than two minutes. This system also provides vital data for sales and marketing.

(e) Engaging People

People are the heart of this organisation. The organisation rarely recruits senior people - employees are encouraged to grow and develop their careers with Avis and a priority is to recruit from within. This policy demands huge investments in training and development. The chief executive officer claims: "Marketing might win customers, but it's training that keeps them." The organisation has an extensive training programme. The Avis Rental Sales Agent Development Programme is based on developing 144 competencies with independent assessment throughout which takes 18 months

to complete. These competencies are not only developed through formal courses but through a living, breathing example of success - Avis itself.

Source: Adapted from Jackson (1997:173-184)

(f) Evaluation of the Case Study

A long-term approach towards change, is to build continuous improvement into the organisation's culture. Avis has succeeded in making the naturally occurring, continuous change process implicit. Avis' culture of continuous change appears to be the bedrock of its success. Training is one of the building blocks of its excellence. The vision of Avis is the driving force behind what it does with its people, outlets and technology. The profit improvement plan, which cascades to all levels of the organisation, is the one mechanism which ensures continuous improvement. The focus is on hiring people who are more entrepreneurial oriented by nature and therefore more inclined to innovation and change. Avis' success is based on an in-depth understanding of customer needs and how to satisfy those needs. It appears that people are at the heart of the organisation, which demands significant investment in training and development. Avis provides an extensive training programme for front-line staff to develop knowledge, skills and behaviour.

Analysis of the above case studies shows how these organisations were transformed and the role of training in these transformations. Central to all these transformations is the facilitated role of training. The following are some of the main conclusions which can be drawn from these case studies:

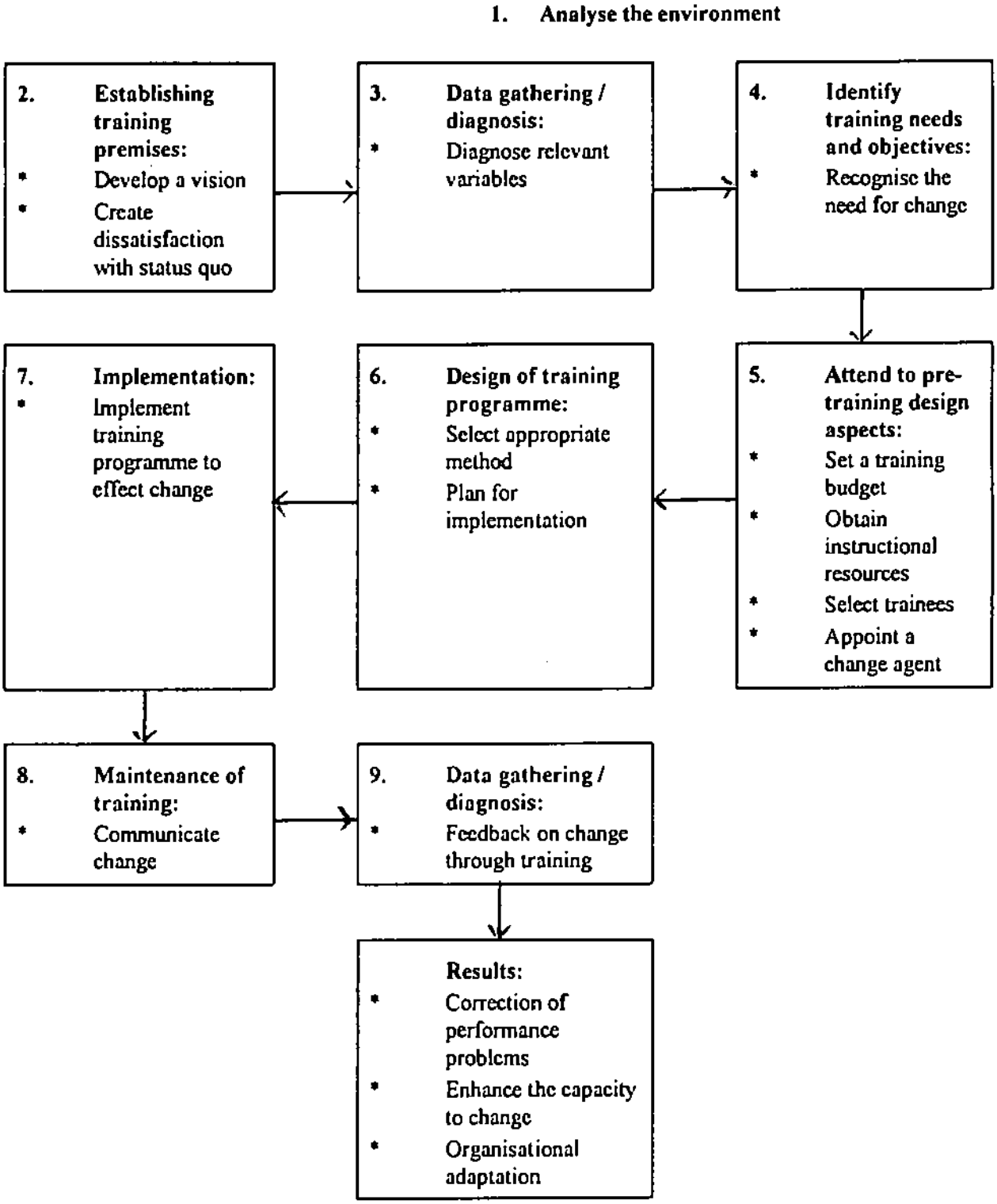
* People should be trained, not only to improve knowledge, skills and attitudes, but to be agents for change in the organisation.
* Accomplishing change in the organisation requires investments (time and money) in human resources, by educating and training both at executive development and manufacturing level.
* Management requires better anticipation of change and not mere reaction to it.

* Organisational change should be seen as an opportunity for individual training in the organisation.
* The continuous change process needs to be made implicit by building continuous improvement into the organisation's culture.

5.5 A MODEL OF TRAINING FOR TRANSFORMATION

The previous theoretical analysis of the various aspects with regard to training and change serves as a foundation for the development of a model of training for transformation. The model which is presented in Figure 5.15, is basically a composition of Figure 3.1 (training model) and Figure 4.20 (change model). The training for transformation model is depicted in Figure 5.15 below.

Figure 5.15: A Model of Training for Transformation



In analysing the model of training for transformation, nine main components can be identified. Component one shows an analysis of the environment in which the organisation operates. Before any training takes place, an analysis should be made of all factors or forces in the environment (internal and external) which make the need for change inevitable. These forces in the environment might, for example, be new processes, low productivity, competitor's actions or political, economic or technological changes, to mention a few. It is therefore important to have a clear picture of the environment in which the organisation operates before embarking on a training programme to bring about the change.

The next component of the model deals with the aspect of establishing training premises. As was mentioned in Section 3.4, this involves the development of a training philosophy and setting of a training policy. The training philosophy should reflect the organisation's perception of the importance of it's human resources potential. This should include the concept of valuing organisational members, by providing training to improve performance and enhance capacity to adapt to change. In order to put the training philosophy into effect, a training policy needs to be set, which will serve as a guideline for action. Some of the aspects which could be covered in a training policy are training for change and instilling a culture of learning in the organisation. At this stage, a vision specifically linked to change is called for, which articulates the future state of the organisation and which creates dissatisfaction with the status quo. The training philosophy, reflected in the training policy, should therefore embrace the value of continuous adaptation.

The third component of the model illustrates the need for gathering data and for diagnosis, analysing the organisation as a whole (it's needs in terms of training), a performance or task analysis and a person/employee analysis (refer to Section 3.5). These analyses can provide valuable information for determining the training needs of the organisation. In terms of change, it means a diagnosis of the relevant variables, which have brought on the need for change. These variables could be revealed during the analysis of the organisation, task or employee.

Identification of training needs and objectives is the result of the previous analysis and diagnosis (Component 4). Once a diagnosis has been made of all relevant variables, the real need for change can be recognised. Based on the need for change, it is possible to identify the training needs and objectives. The training need should be translated into a training objective, indicating the desired outcome of the training programme. If, for example, low productivity has been identified as a relevant variable (during the data gathering or diagnostic stage) then one of the objectives of the training programme can be to increase productivity levels by say 20%. The training objective therefore provides the performance, conditions and standards for the learning activity to ensure the trainee has mastered the requirements of the activity.

Component 5 proposes the idea of attending to pre-training design aspects. Before designing the actual training programme, various aspects need to be considered. This includes issues such as a training budget (cost implication of proposed changes), obtaining instructional resources (physical, financial and human support needed to implement the changes by means of a training programme), selection of trainees (those employees who need to change or improve knowledge, skills and attitudes) and the appointment of a change agent or trainer who will launch and administer the training programme.

The following component pays attention to the design of the actual training programme required to bring about the proposed change. Based on the identified needs and objectives, the actual training programme can be designed. Aspects such as learning content and sequence, determinants of learning, lesson planning and arranging of training activities need consideration. In order to bring about the change, appropriate methods need to be selected. Various training methods can be used to facilitate the proposed changes, such as apprenticeship, role playing, business games, coaching, job rotation and many more. At the same time, plans need to be developed for implementing the training to bridge the gap between the current situation and the vision.

The implementation of the training programme to facilitate change is highlighted in Component 7 of the model. Training implies change and is realised by the actual implementation of the training programme. The training programme (intended to make changes in the organisation) is

put into action or practice. Maintenance of training (Component 8) involves ensuring maintenance of transfer of training over a period of time. The impact of training is brought to the workplace. To make change possible it is important to communicate why training takes place.

The last component is that of continuous evaluation or feedback. Through feedback it is possible to detect progress and to adjust course if necessary. It needs to be established whether the training activity has met its goals, ensuring that the need for change has been satisfied. Did the training programme facilitate the proposed change in the organisation?

All of these components in the model give rise to certain end results. Correction of performance problems, enhancement of the capacity to change and upgrading of managerial capabilities could be the result of the successful facilitation of change, leading to organisational adaptation.

5.6 CONCLUSION

Increased emphasis is being placed on the need for continuous training to support change in the organisation. This chapter indicated the important link between the role of training in the organisation and the managing of organisational change.

Based on the literature search in Chapter 4 (change management), three topics emerged as being central to transforming an organisation. It was shown that training for transformation is facilitated through organisational development in a learning organisation by means of transformational leadership. These three topics constitute the basis for the interaction between training and transformation.

Firstly, organisational development, can be regarded as the planning and implementation of programmes designed to improve the effectiveness with which an organisation functions and it's response to change. It can therefore be regarded as a collection of planned-change interventions. Various characteristics of organisational development were highlighted (see for example French

& Bell 1990; Hampton et al., 1982 and Newstrom & Davis 1993). The organisational development process was discussed by means of a six-step process. Various problems and critical issues in organisational development were also examined. Four of the most common organisational development interventions were viewed: survey feedback, sensitivity training, team building and quality-of-work-life programmes.

Secondly, the learning organisation was viewed as an organisation which facilitates learning for all its members, and which has the capacity to adapt and change continuously. It appeared that the learning organisation could be characterised along various dimensions. Although building a learning organisation is a challenge and an arduous task, certain guidelines and action steps can be used. An important aspect related to the learning organisation is the cultivation of a lifelong learning culture in the organisation. In order to adapt to changing circumstances, the individual needs to learn throughout his life in the organisation.

In order to bring about transformation in the organisation, the abilities of a transformational leader are required. The transformational leader guides followers to view work from new perspectives, to focus attention on the vision of the organisation and develops people to higher levels of motivation and potential. It appears that transformational leadership is characterised by four types of behaviour: charisma, inspirational leadership, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. A transformational leadership model was also analysed.

It is concluded from the above that training for transformation is facilitated through organisational development in a learning organisation by means of transformational leadership. The next section of the chapter provided a theoretical analysis of the role of training in transformation. It can be deducted that training plays a central role in all transformational activities. The interaction of training and transformation in a practical context, was also discussed. This was done by briefly analysing three case studies, illustrating the facilitating role of training in organisational transformation.

The last section dealt with the development of a training for transformation model. The model which consists of nine components can serve as a guideline in facilitating change through training in the organisation.

The scope and methodology of the empirical research is outlined in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: SCOPE AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Reaves (1992:8) defines research "as a systematic way of answering questions about the world." Groenewald (1986:1) concurs that research is a process which attempts to control, revise or expand knowledge about the nature and operation of reality. Two key tasks are involved in empirical research: obtaining systematic and reliable knowledge about the research problem and developing means for interpreting and explaining observations and findings.

This chapter examines the manner in which the research project was planned and executed. The first aspect to be outlined is the research approach followed in this study. The second aspect to be investigated is the research design of the study. The research design consists of two important components: sample design and survey design. Sample design includes aspects such as defining the population and sample, sample size and sampling technique to be used in the research project. Survey design deals with aspects such as questionnaire design (content and format), pilot study and data collection, processing and analysis.

The method of data collection used in this study was a mail survey in the form of self-administered questionnaires. Particular attention is paid to the aspect of low response rates associated with mail surveys.

6.2 THE RESEARCH APPROACH

Most researchers (see for example Bailey 1982; Dooley 1990 & Neuman 1997) concur that there are basically two main approaches to research: quantitative and qualitative. In this study, a quantitative approach is used. The numerical values assigned to the observations of variables are intended to reflect different degrees of the measured dimension (issues of measurement are of primary importance). Reaves (1992:16), however, asserts that although less emphasis is given

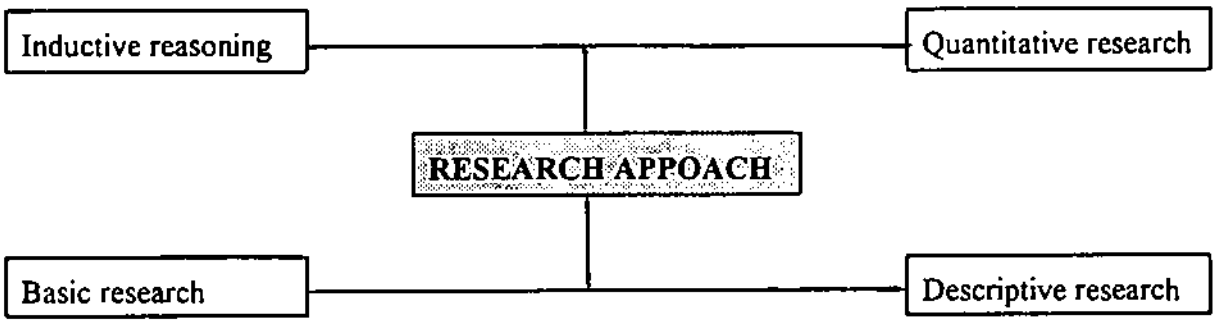
to exploring the personal and individual experiences of people, this does not imply that meaning and feelings have no place in quantitative research. It merely insists that these experiences should be quantified or measured on some scale.

The type of research in this study can further be classified as basic research. According to Huysamen (1994:34), the purpose is to develop theories by testing hypotheses which have been derived from these theories. Simon and Burstein (1985:97) also stress that basic research needs to be conducted within a unifying conceptual framework so as to build on previous research in the particular field of study. The testing of hypotheses often involves abstract and specialised concepts, but does not mean that it cannot have practical applications.

The nature of this research project can be categorised as descriptive research. Struwig (1997:25) states that descriptive research is designed to describe charactersitics of a population or phenomenon. The researcher has a general understanding of the situation under investigation, but lacks conclusive evidence. Questions such as who, what, when, where and how is answered. This study investigates the facilitating role or influence of training in organisational transformation.

During the empirical survey, a sample was drawn rather than collecting data from the population. Mouton (1996:80) states that this approach is called inductive generalisation and implies the generalisation of findings about the sample to the target population. The sample in this study is all training practitioners registered with the South African Board of Personnel Practices. Figure 6.1 illustrates the research approach of the study.

Figure 6.1: The Research Approach



The following section highlights the research design of this study.

6.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Guy, Edgley, Arafat and Allen (1987:92), the research design refers to "the plan of procedures for data collection and analysis that is undertaken to evaluate a particular theoretical perspective." Hedrick, Bickman and Rog (1993:38) also contend that the research design serves as an architectural blueprint of a research project which ensures that the data collection and analysis activities of the study are adequately tied to the research objectives. Groenewald (1986:43), however, alleges that it not only refers to the manner in which data is collected in conjunction with operational decisions, but also to the manner in which the data is arranged in order to yield findings according to strategic decisions.

Smit (1995:15) provides the following objectives of a research design:

* To control the answers to research questions.
* To eliminate or balance out variances which may have a differential effect on research results.

Emory and Cooper (1991:139) state that research design is a complex concept which may be viewed from different perspectives. There is, however, no simple classification system to define

all the variations which must be considered. Table 6.1 shows the different research design perspectives of this study and answers questions such as: who was analysed (unit of analysis), when did analysis take place (time frame), where did it take place (research setting) and why did it take place (research purpose)?

Table 6.1: Research Design Perspectives of this Study

CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA	TYPE OR EXAMPLE
1. Degree of problem crystallisation	Formal study (not exploratory)
2. Method of data collection	Survey
3. Researcher's control of variables	Ex post facto (no control over variables, report on what has happened or is happening)
4. Purpose of the study	Causal research
5. Time dimension	Cross-sectional study (at a given point in time)
6. Topical scope	Statistical study (breadth and not depth)
7. Research environment	Field study (actual environmental conditions)

The development of an effective research design can therefore be seen as the basic plan which guides the data collection and analysis phases (economically and accurately) of the research project and is consistent with the study objectives.

Aspects to be discussed in this section include sample and survey design and data collection and processing procedures.

6.3.1 The Design of the Sample

The role of sampling as an integral step in the research design process is stressed by various researchers (see for example Alreck & Settle 1995; Labovitz & Hagedorn 1981 and Sudman 1976) and is most frequently used in survey studies. Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991:318) view

sampling as a formal process aimed at obtaining a representative portion of some whole, thereby affording valid inferences to and generalisations of it. It is therefore important for the researcher to know how close the approximation is likely to be to the result, if the entire population or universe was approached. Various aspects of the sample design of the study such as the population, sample, sample size and sampling technique is dealt with in the following paragraphs.

(a) Defining the Population

Although Bailey (1982:85) asserts that the ideal would be to study the entire population or universe, it is not always possible or feasible. According to Emory and Cooper (1991:242), a population is the "total collection of elements about which one wishes to make some inferences." Alreck and Settle (1995:55) mention three key tasks in identifying populations:

* Ensure that the population consists of those people who actually possess the information sought by the researcher.
* Identify all the major factors which would qualify respondents.
* List the criteria for inclusion/exclusion of respondents together with the decision rules to be used.

The target population therefore consists of the organisations, people, problems or systems to which or to whom the survey findings are to be applied. For the purpose of this research project, the target population was chosen from South African organisations. The main aim of the study is to investigate the facilitating role of training in organisational transformation. All organisations with a training department or section, headed by a training practitioner or director, could therefore be regarded as the target population.

(b) Defining the Sample

A sample is a portion or subset of a larger group called the population and can be regarded as a miniature version of the population (Mouton, 1996:135). Balsley and Clover (1988:95) state that

the most basic characteristic of a sample is that it must be representative of the population from which it is taken. Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991:319) are of the opinion that sampling is often viewed as a compromise to be avoided whenever possible. Examining a sample rather than a population is, however, usually preferable because of its greater feasibility, economy and accuracy.

Fink (1995:4) provides the following checklist for obtaining a sample which represents the target population:

* Survey objectives need to be stated precisely.
* Eligibility criteria need to be clear and definite.
* The sampling method or technique needs to be carefully selected.

The sample selected for this study was drawn by the South African Board for Personnel Practices (SABBP). It would be impractical to include all organisations in South Africa. The data base provided included all registered training practitioners with the SABBP. The following are characteristics of the SABBP (who provided the sample):

* It is the only professional council which registers members in the relevant field.
* Members need to have certain academic qualifications.
* It provides a network forum for members.
* Most members are consultants in practice.
* The organisation provides accreditation to members.
* It is not only a member organisation (which looks after the interests of members), but also caters for the professional interests of members.
* It acts as a watchdog for the profession.

The ideal would have been to include all training practitioners in South Africa, but such a data base was not available. All registered members who act as training specialists were therefore included in the sample. It was felt that these training specialists would be able to provide an objective and expert opinion with regard to the facilitating role of training in transformation,

because they are involved with training in South African organisations. Some difficulty was experienced in acquiring an appropriate sample or data base for the study. The only other large, national personnel or human resources institution is the Institute for Personnel Management (IPM), but they were unable to provide a data base for the research project. Most organisations listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) are reluctant to participate in surveys due to continuous exposure to research projects by various research organisations. It was therefore decided not to make use of these organisations.

(c) Sample Size

An important consideration for the researcher is to decide how large a sample should be. Simon and Burstein (1985:412) maintain that the rational way to choose a sample size is by weighing the benefits one can expect to gain from information against the cost of increasing the sample size. The size of the sample usually depends on the size of the population. Sommer and Sommer (1991:230) identify the following factors in making a decision on sample size:

* Size of the population
* Available resources and time constraints
* Strength of the effect (when independent variable has a strong and clear effect on dependent variable, a smaller sample can be used)
* Number of subsets to be compared
* Refusal and spoilage rate

The major criterion to use when deciding on sample size is the extent to which the sample is representative of the population. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:96) and Parasuraman (1991:495) state that one usually expects to have a 95% chance that the sample is distributed in the same way as the population.

The sample selected for this study consists of 374 training practitioners registered with the South African Board for Personnel Practices. Nine training practitioners from abroad were excluded from the sample, due the fact that only South African organisations are to be included. It was felt

that conditions in these organisations abroad and the perceptions of these people may be different from that of their South African counterparts. The total sample size is therefore 365.

(d) Sampling Technique

Research literature (see for example Bailey 1982; Dooley 1990 and Fink 1995) reveals that sampling techniques can be classified into those yielding probability samples (probability of selection of each respondent is known) and non-probability samples (probability of selection is unknown). These two categories consist of different sampling techniques (a discussion of which falls beyond the scope of this study). In this research project, probability sampling is used.

Sudman (1976:58) warns that the most difficult task in sampling from lists is in finding the appropriate list. Mailing lists are primarily derived from membership and subscription lists. In this study, all 365 training specialists, registered with the SABPP, were chosen as the sample.

The survey design used for the empirical study will be discussed in the following section.

6.3.2 Survey Design

Oppenheim (1992:7) argues that surveys are too often carried out on the basis of insufficient design and planning or no design at all. Survey literature (see for example Behr 1988; Emory & Cooper 1991 and Neuman 1997) abounds with the fact that faulty inferences can be made from insufficient evidence, misguidedly collected and wrongly assembled. The survey can therefore be regarded as a method of collecting data by means of observation, interviews and questionnaires. According to Dooley (1990:131), a survey design consists of two components: type (cross-sectional, longitudinal, panel and trend surveys) and medium of contact (face to face, telephone and mail). Table 6.2 provides an outline of this study's survey design.

Table 6.2: Survey Design

	EXAMPLE	EXPLANATION
TYPE	Cross-sectional	Conducted at one time (29 June - 24 July 1998)
MEDIUM	Mail	Questionnaires

Based on the size of the sample (365), a mail survey by means of questionnaires was best suited to this study. According to Balsley and Clover (1988:158) and Huysamen (1994:148), some relevant advantages of mail surveys are: relatively low cost, wide reach, no interviewer bias, personal and economic data is given more completely and accurately and respondents can answer the questionnaire in their own time. The aspect of low response rates, which is a major disadvantage of mail surveys is dealt with later in this chapter.

(a) Questionnaire Design

Sommer and Sommer (1991:129) refer to a questionnaire as " a series of written questions on a topic about which the respondent's opinions are sought." In survey research, the questionnaire is regarded as an important information-gathering technique. Alreck and Settle (1995:115), however, postulate that the questionnaire remains a complex instrument of data collection. Questionnaire design consists of various components such as content, format, wording and layout and pre-testing. The content and format of the questionnaire is briefly dealt with in the following paragraphs.

(i) Questionnaire Content

The main aim of this study is to investigate the interactive role between training and transformation in the organisation. The questionnaire used in the survey should therefore collect all the data necessary to achieve the research objectives. The questionnaire (the content of which is shown in Table 6.3) is divided into three sections.

Table 6.3: Questionnaire Content

SECTION	TOPIC	CONCEPT EMPHASISED	QUESTION NO.
A	Transformation	Organisational development	1 - 10 & 41
		Learning organisation	11 - 25
		Transformational leadership	26 - 40
B	Training	Facilitating role of training in application of the building blocks of change	1 - 11 & 35
		Role of training in managing organisational change	12 - 25
		Training for transformation model	26 - 34
C	Classification data	Main activity	1
		Number of employees	2
		Annual gross revenue in rand	3
		Training department	4
		Change agent	5
		Type of environment	6
		Degree of transformation	7
		Personal viewpoints	8
		Case study participation	9
		Designation	10

(ii) Questionnaire Format

Most researchers (see for example Bless & Higson-Smith 1995; Kane 1987 and May 1993) concur that questionnaire format or response structure refers to the degree and form of structure imposed on responses. The options range from open or unstructured (free choice of words) to closed or structured (specified alternatives). Neuman (1997:240) asserts that although each type

has advantages and disadvantages, the crucial issue is not what is best, but under what conditions it is appropriate. In this study, both close-ended and open-ended questions are used.

According to Alreck and Settle (1995:113), scales are used to obtain responses which will be comparable to one another and which is a "representation of the categories or continuum along which respondents will arrange themselves." The questionnaire contained both an ordinal and a nominal scale of measurement. Blalock and Blalock (1982:39) refer to an ordinal scale of measurement as mutually and exhaustive categories which can be placed on a continuum in order of its value on the property. A nominal scale of measurement refers to the measurement of categorical data which has no underlying categories, units or intervals and assigned numerical values to the data (Oppenheim, 1992:156).

The type of ordinal scale used in Section A and B of the questionnaire is a 5-point Likert-type scale. Guy et al., (1987:150) state that with a Likert scale, respondents are asked to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with all statements in the instrument. The five response categories provided for each statement in the questionnaire were: disagree strongly, disagree slightly, neither agree nor disagree, agree slightly and agree strongly. Section A of the questionnaire involves a series of statements related to the attitude in question, that of organisational change. Section B involves statements related to training in the organisation. Section C of the questionnaire contains a nominal scale of measurement in which respondents were asked to provide some classification data about themselves and their organisations.

Questions one to fourty of Section A (organisational change) are close-ended questions, posed in the form of a 5-point Likert-type scale. Question 41 is the only open-ended question in Section A, investigating the type of organisational development technique used by organisations. Questions one to thirty five of Section B (training) are close-ended questions. In Section C (classification data), all questions are close-ended (numerical values or yes/no alternatives) except for questions one (main activity), nine (participation in a case study) and ten (respondent's designation), which are open-ended questions.

(b) Pilot Study

Huysamen (1994:198) alleges that it is mandatory to test survey questionnaires on a small group of individuals who are representative of the population, the main aim being to identify any possible mistakes and to gather any relevant comments or suggestions. Due to the fact that the questionnaire had never been used before in any research project, it was issued to 40 organisations in the Port Elizabeth-Uitenhage area for testing (convenient sample). Wherever possible, it was issued to human resources managers and training specialists to complete. The questionnaire was also given to academics in the field of management, training, industrial psychology and statistics in order to identify any problem areas and to obtain suggestions. After processing and analysing the data obtained, the questionnaire was refined by making a few minor changes to the wording and the sequence of the questions. Thereafter, the questionnaire was ready to be used in the actual data collection procedure.

(c) Data Collection

Blalock and Blalock (1982:92) are of the opinion that enough diverse and fascinating data collection methods exist to satisfy even the most resistant researcher. The main objective is to combine the methods of data collection with the explanation, measures and design selected for studying a particular phenomenon. According to Smit (1995:17), this phase of the research process entails making operational decisions (practical methods of investigation) and organisational or administrative decisions (eg. aids necessary for data collection and time and financial considerations).

A total of 365 covering letters, questionnaires and return-paid envelopes were posted on 29 June 1998. A reminder postcard was sent on 6 July 1998. The following measures were implemented to avoid the problem of low response rates associated with mail surveys:

* The questionnaire was pretested during a pilot study to facilitate acceptability.
* The issues of anonymity and confidentiality were ensured.

* The covering letter was drafted by an advertising agency in Johannesburg to make it more appealing and to attract attention.
* Covering letters were personally signed by the researcher to make them less impersonal (see Appendix B).
* Reply-paid envelopes were included with the questionnaires.
* Questionnaires were professionally printed in blue and white to make them more attractive.
* Attention was given to the length of the questionnaire to ensure that it would not take up too much of the respondents' time (can be completed within 10 to 15 minutes).
* Questionaries were posted in the middle of the year when it is not such a busy time for most organisations.
* A reminder postcard (see Appendix C) was sent to all respondents one week after the mailing of questionnaires.
* Respondents were advised that results of the study would be made available to those interested, on request.

(d) Data Processing

According to Emory and Cooper (1991:450), a customary first step before analysing the data is to edit the raw data. The primary purpose of the editing process is to ensure that the information in the questionnaire is ready to be transferred to data storage. An important aspect of data processing is the coding of data, which describe the process of interpreting, classifying and transferring data to the data storage medium (Newman (1997:295).

Questionnaires which were received from respondents were inspected, edited, coded and transferred for storage. The purpose is to ensure that the data is: accurate, consistent with other information, uniformly entered, complete and arranged to facilitate coding. The coding of questionnaires was carried out by the researcher in conjunction with the statistician responsible for assisting with the analysis of data. All questionnaires received from respondents were given a reference number (Q1 - Q182) and the receipt date was noted. A summary of the return of questionnaires is given in Table 6.4 below.

Table 6.4: Return of Questionnaires

	SAMPLE SIZE (QUESTIONNAIRES POSTED)	TOTAL RESPONSE	NUMBER RECEIVED	%
Usable questionnaires	365	198	182	91.92
Non-response:				
Incorrect			0	0
Reasons		198	16	8.08
Total response	365		198	54.25
Total usable response	365		182	**49.86**

The response rate of this survey is 54,25% (198 questionnaires from a possible 365 included in the sample). The effective response rate (usable questionnaires) is 49,86 % (182 responses from a possible 365). It appears that the measures taken (refer to section 6.3.2 (c)) to deal with the aspect of low response rates usually associated with a mail survey, were successful. The data was thereafter ready for statistical analysis.

(e) Data Analysis

The data which had been collected needed to be organised and interpreted. The researcher needs to engage in some process of data reduction and data analysis (Labovitz & Hagedorn, 1981:83). Mouton (1996:161) stresses that the researcher, through the application of various statistical and mathematical techniques, focusses on specific variables in the data set. The following are examples of the techniques used during the data analysis stage of the research project and will be examined in Chapter 7:

* Descriptive statistics
* Factor analysis
* Reliability of measuring scales

* Analysis of variance
* Correlation coefficients
* Chi-square Test

6.4 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this chapter was to outline the research design of this study. The research objectives, hypothesis and how the research design could facilitate achievement was the focul point.

The first section analysed the research approach followed in the study. A quantitative research approach was followed. Numerical values were assigned to the observations of variables (organisational change and training), which reflect the different degrees of the measured dimension. As the purpose is to develop theory and to test hypotheses, the research can be classified as basic research. The nature of the research project was categorised as descriptive research. Inductive generalisation was used and implies the generalisation of findings about the sample to the target population (a sample was drawn rather than collecting data from the whole population).

The second section was devoted to the research design of the study which deals with sample and survey design. Sample design includes aspects such as defining the population and sample, sample size and sampling technique. A simple random sampling technique was used in drawing 365 training practitioners registered with the South African Board for Personnel Practices.

Survey design includes aspects such questionnaire design, pilot study, and data collection, processing and analysis. In order to obtain the necessary data, a mail survey in the form of self administering questionnaires was used.. The content and format of the questionnaire was also highlighted. A pilot study was conducted among 40 organisations in the Port Elizabeth-Uitenhage area in order to detect any mistakes in the questionnaire and to obtain valuable suggestions or

comments. The collection, processing and analysis of data was also discussed. Special measures were taken to deal with the problem of low response rates in mail surveys. A response rate of 54,25% and an effective response rate (usable questionnaires) of 49,86% was obtained.

Chapter 7 provide an analysis of the presentation and interpretation of the survey results.

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the statistical procedures used to empirically assess the facilitating role of training in organisational transformation. The data obtained for this study has been collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire, received from 182 respondents. The questionnaire consists of three sections: organisational change, training in the organisation and classification data.

Guy et al., (1987:308) state that the basic intent of data analysis is to examine a body of data for the hypothesised relationships and to exhibit these results in a clear and understandable manner. Labovitz and Hagedorn (1981:142) elaborate further that analysis of data involves both descriptive and inference statistics. A preliminary data analysis is conducted to reveal the characteristics of the basic components of the data which has been collected. The data is summarised in meaningful and manageable proportions by means of frequency distributions and descriptive statistics (such as the mean, median, quartile and standard deviation).

Factor analysis is used to group a number of variables together in a smaller set of factors measuring the same aspect. The BMDP statistical software package (Programme 4M) is used to perform this factor analysis.

The last section deals with the search for relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Inferential statistical techniques, such as Pearson product moment correlation coefficients, Chi-square and analysis of variance (ANOVA) are used to search for relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

This chapter makes no reference to any implications or recommendations, as this aspect is covered in Chapter 8.

7.2 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

Before a researcher embarks on using sophisticated statistical techniques, it is important to get a feeling of the data (Parasuraman, 1991:625). A researcher is often in a position of having so much data that it is almost impossible to make adequate interpretations. Through frequency distributions and descriptive statistics the researcher is able to summarise data into manageable proportions.

Hays (1994:77) views a frequency distribution as the recording of data which is grouped into classes and indicates the number of cases that fall in each class. Schacht and Stewart (1995:29) concur that raw or ungrouped data is placed in predetermined categories and describes the rates of occurrence of variable observations. It puts the data in order so that visual analysis can be made and to provide a convenient structure for simple computations. According to Cooper and Weekes (1983:62), descriptive statistics describe some of the essential features and measures some collective property of the data set. The most common types of descriptive statistics used in this study are: measures of central tendency (mean and median), measures of position (quartile) and measures of dispersion or variability (standard deviation).

Measures of central tendency refer to numerical values indicating the centre of the distribution (Howell, 1989:44). The two most common measures of central tendency which are used in this study are the mean and median. According to Bakeman (1992:63), the mean value is expressed by adding together the values of the quantities or cases under investigation and divide this sum by the total number of cases. The median is the middle value of a set of data and shows half of the values above and half below the median (Phillips, 1992:26). Measures of position are useful for comparing data within one population or between different populations (Mantzopoulos, 1995:42). The quartile measurement of position is used in this study, indicating the 25th and 75th percentile of a distribution. The last descriptive statistic used is the measure of dispersion, spread or variability. Steyn, Smit, du Toit and Strasheim (1994:123) emphasise that calculating a mean implies that all observations are not identical and that the variation is the degree to which observations vary from the mean score. This variation is indicated by the standard deviation.

The descriptive statistics for this study were obtained by using the BMDP statistical software package. The results obtained in the three sections of the questionnaire (refer to Section 6.3.2 (a) and Table 6.3 in Chapter 6 for a layout of these sections of the questionnaire) are presented in frequency distributions and by means of descriptive statistics in the following sections.

7.2.1 Section A: Organisational Transformation

Section A of the questionnaire investigates the nature and extent of organisational transformation. Three main variables or factors are analysed: organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership.

(a) Organisational Development

The first 10 questions of Section A of the questionnaire analyse the aspect of organisational development (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of variables A1 to A10). Table 7.1 illustrates the descriptive statistics for this part of the questionnaire.

Table 7.1: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section A of the Questionnaire: Organisational Development

VARIABLE	MEAN	MEDIAN	QUARTILE Q1	QUARTILE Q3	STANDARD DEVIATION
A1	3.46	4.00	2.00	4.00	1.15
A2	2.75	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.29
A3	3.22	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.10
A4	3.43	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.10
A5	3.49	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.06
A6	3.38	4.00	2.00	4.00	1.07
A7	3.71	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.02
A8	3.34	4.00	2.00	4.00	1.09
A9	3.40	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.96
A10	3.42	4.00	2.00	4.00	1.14

In analysing the mean values in Table 7.1, it appears that all the variables, except for A2, have a mean value above three (neutral point, indicating neither agreement nor disagreement). It is only the aspect of not having strict and formal lines of authority on which respondents tend to disagree (mean value of 2.75). All the median values are between three and four, indicating that the research data tends to cluster around these values. This point in the distribution divides the total observations into two parts which are equal in number. The first quartile (Q1) is that point that cuts off the lowest 25% of the distribution. It indicates that 25% of the respondents lie below points two and three on the scale (neither agree nor disagree and disagree slightly). The third quartile (Q3) indicates that 75% of respondents lie on or below point four of the scale (agree sightly). There are no large deviations from the mean values. The highest standard deviation was obtained for variable A2 (strict and formal lines of authority), indicating variability in values allocated. The lowest standard deviation is for variable A9 (activeness and confidence of members in maintaining organisational effectiveness), indicating less variability which indicates that most respondents felt the same about this variable. Table 7.2 shows the frequencies and

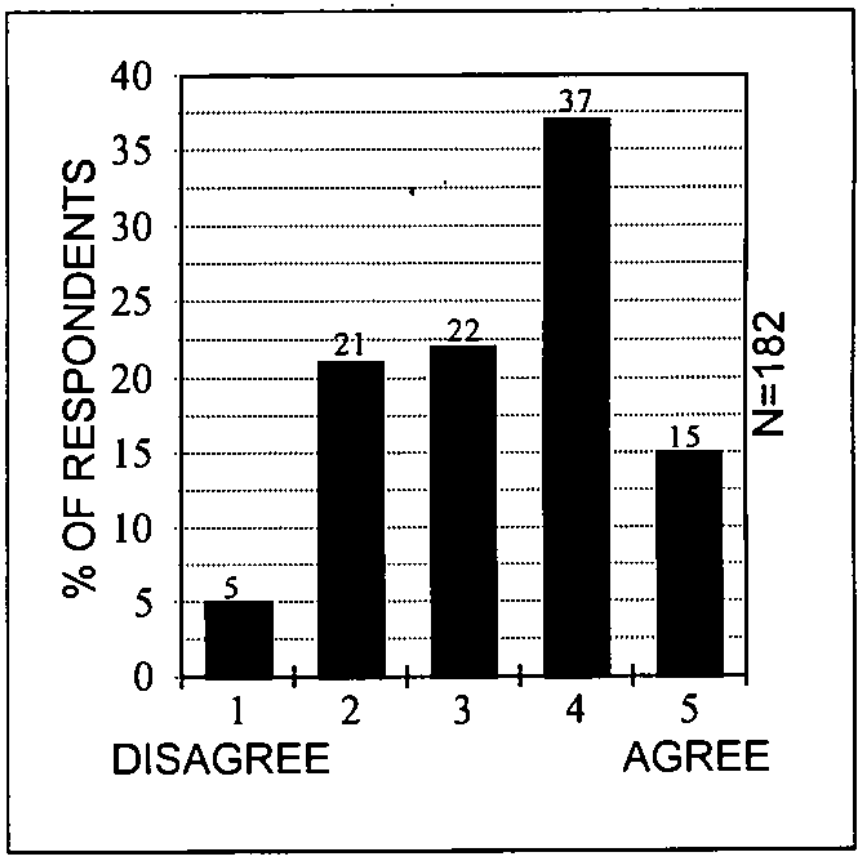
percentages of the data for Section A of the questionnaire which deals with organisational development.

Table 7.2: Frequency Distribution Results for Section A of the Questionnaire: Organisational Development

VARIABLE	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A1	7	4	41	23	30	16	69	38	35	19
A2	36	20	52	29	35	19	40	22	19	10
A3	12	7	36	20	55	30	58	32	21	11
A4	9	5	30	17	48	26	64	35	31	17
A5	6	3	31	17	41	23	74	41	29	16
A6	7	4	39	22	35	19	79	43	22	12
A7	5	3	21	12	35	19	82	45	39	21
A8	6	4	44	24	40	22	66	36	26	14
A9	0	0	42	23	44	24	77	43	19	10
A10	7	4	40	22	39	21	62	34	34	19

In analysing the results in Table 7.2, it appears that point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest value for all the variables, except for variable A2, for which point two (disagree slightly) obtained the highest value. This implies that most of the respondents agree slightly on all the variables with regard to organisational development and that it is only for variable A2 that most of the respondents disagreed slightly in not having organisations with strict, formal lines of authority. Overall it appears that respondents agree with the statements with regard to organisational development. Figure 7.1 provides a graphical presentation of the above frequency distribution results.

Figure 7.1: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section A of the Questionnaire: Organisational Development



The X-axis in Figure 7.1 represents the five points on the Likert-type scale: disagree strongly (1), disagree slightly (2), neither agree nor disagree/neutral (3), agree slightly (4) and agree strongly (5). The Y-axis indicates the percentage of respondents for each point for all of ten variables. The number of respondents is 182 for each variable (except for A5). It appears that 26% of the respondents (5%+21%) indicate disagreement with the variables or statements with regard to organisational development. Twenty-two percent of the respondents neither agree nor disagree with the variables and can be regarded as neutral or indifferent. The majority of respondents, 52%, (37%+15%), indicate agreement with the statements with regard to organisational development. It can therefore be deduced that most respondents agree with the statements which characterise organisational development. The highest percentage of respondents (37%) indicate slight agree with the statements and only five percent disagree strongly. The distribution in Figure 7.1 can be classified as unimodal (it has one distinct peak) and is negatively skewed (the bulk of

the distribution shows relatively high scores and the tail of the distribution occurs among the low values of the variables). The frequency distribution for variable A41 (organisational development techniques) is given in Figure 7.2 and 7.3 below.

Figure 7.2: Extent to which Organisational Development Techniques are Implemented

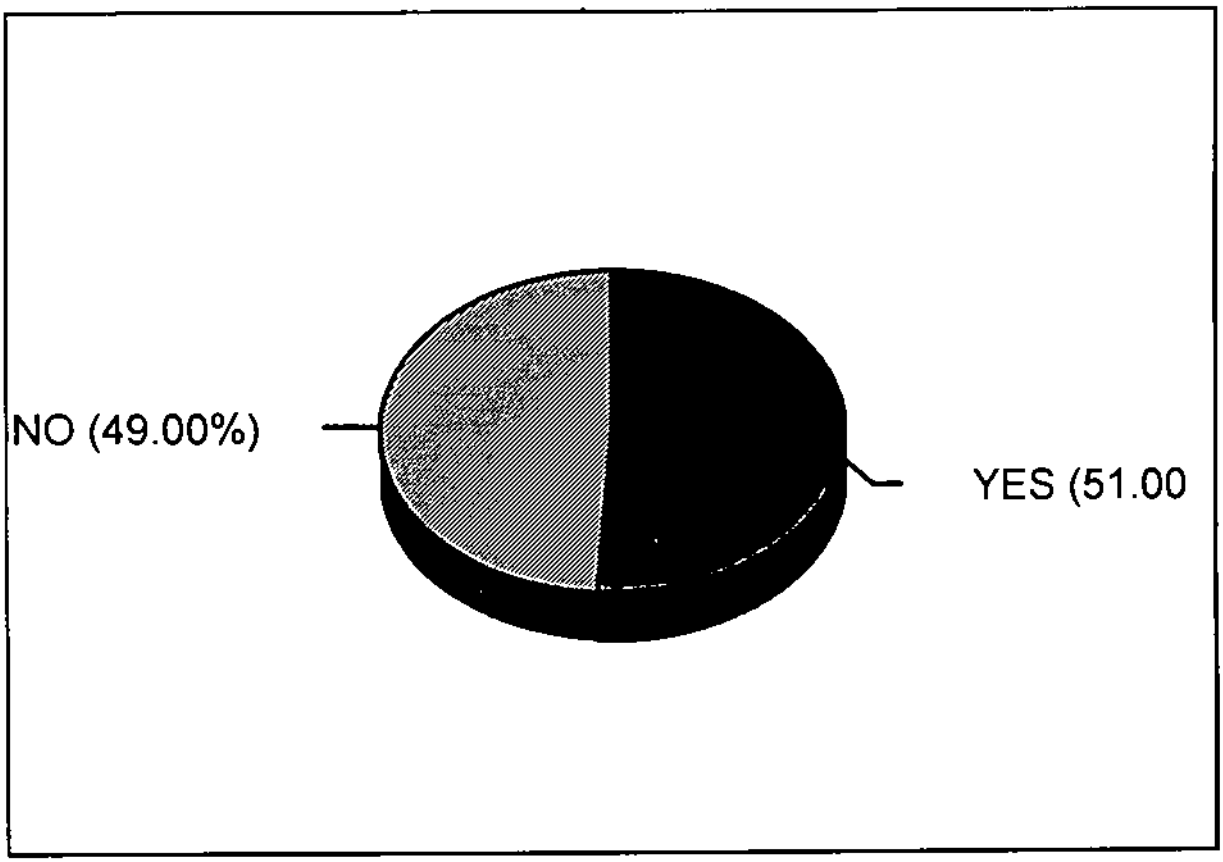
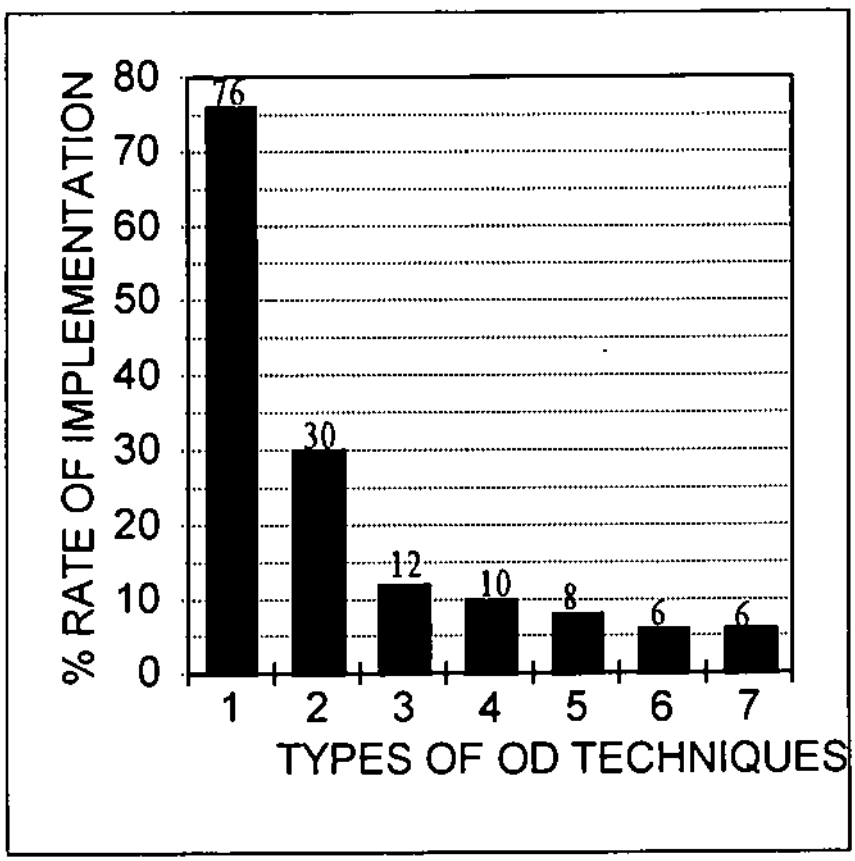


Figure 7.2 illustrates that the majority of organisations (51%) implement organisational development techniques of some kind. Fourty nine percent of respondents indicate that specific organisational development techniques are not used in their respective organisations. Although the majority states that organisational development techniques are being implemented in the organisation, a relatively high percentage (49%) of respondents indicate that these techniques are not being implemented. A possible reason for this could be the fact that this is an open-ended question in the questionnaire (A41) and respondents did no know or did not want to answer an

open-ended question. Figure 7.3 depicts the frequency distribution of the most common types of organisational development techniques used by organisations.

Figure 7.3: Types of Organisational Development Techniques Implemented by Organisations



1= Team Building
2= Quality-of-work-life Programmes
3= Diversity/cultural Training Programmes
4= Sensitivity Training
5= Survey Feedback
6= Life Skills Development
7= Quality Assurance Programmes

Figure 7.3 highlights the most common types of organisational development techniques used by organisations (the total percentage does not add up to 100%, due to the fact that respondents could indicate the use of more than one technique). It appears that those organisations who do make use of organisational development techniques favour the team building technique (76%).

The second most common type of organisational development technique is quality-of-work-life programmes (30% of respondents indicate that this method is implemented). Twelve percent of respondents indicate that diversity or cultural training programmes are being used as an organisational development technique. Sensitivity training (10%) and the survey feedback method (8%) is also being used as organisational development techniques. Six percent of respondents indicate that life skill's development and quality assurance programmes are also used as organisational development techniques. A variety of other techniques such as value chain analysis, vision workshops, management change programmes and business reengineering are also used to a lesser extent, but is not shown in Figure 7.3.

(b) The Learning Organisation

Variables 11 to 25 of Section A of the questionnaire outline the characteristics and the application of the learning organisation concept (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of variables A11 to A25). Table 7.3 indicates the results of the descriptive statistics for this part of the questionnaire. The mean, median, quartile and standard deviation values of these 15 variables or statements are highlighted.

Table 7.3: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section A of the Questionnaire: The Learning Organisation

VARIABLE	MEAN	MEDIAN	QUARTILE Q1	QUARTILE Q3	STANDARD DEVIATION
A11	3.35	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.13
A12	3.43	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.94
A13	2.57	2.00	2.00	4.00	1.16
A14	2.57	3.00	2.00	3.00	1.07
A15	3.35	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.13
A16	3.55	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.05
A17	3.36	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.08
A18	3.33	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.07
A19	3.41	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.10
A20	3.31	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.17
A21	3.45	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.13
A22	3.58	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.10
A23	3.40	3.50	3.00	4.00	1.13
A24	3.57	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.10
A25	3.44	3.50	3.00	4.00	1.04

The results in Table 7.3 indicate that all variables, except for A13 and A14, have mean values above three (neither agree nor disagree). On average, respondents seem to be neutral with regard to the statements dealing with the learning organisation. The mean value for variable A13 and A14 is 2.57. It appears that respondents tend to disagree slightly with regard to implementing flexible reward structures and using front-line members as environmental scanners. These two aspects concerning the learning organisation are not widely practiced among researched organisations. The median values range between three (neutral) and four (agree slightly). These values can be regarded as the middle points which divide the scores into two exact halves. The median for A13 (flexible reward structures) is two, indicating the central point which seems to be

the most typical for the characteristic being observed. In analysing the quartile, it appears that the first quartile (Q1) is between two and three on the scale and cuts off the lowest 25% of the distribution. The third quartile (Q3) lies on point four of the scale (agree slightly) and implies that 75% of the data falls below this quartile. Only variable A14 has a third quartile value of point three on the scale. The standard deviation scores reflect that there is not too much distortion from the mean values (it ranges from 1.04 to 1.17). The lowest standard deviation (0.94) is obtained for variable A12. Most respondents agree, to some extent, that participative policy-making should form an integral part of the learning organisation. Table 7.4 highlights the frequencies and percentages for the data dealing with the learning organisation.

Table 7.4: Frequency Distribution Results for Section A of the Questionnaire: The Learning Organisation

VARIABLE	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A11	8	4	39	22	48	26	55	30	32	18
A12	1	1	33	18	55	30	72	40	21	11
A13	34	19	67	37	34	18	38	21	9	5
A14	30	17	60	33	55	30	29	16	7	4
A15	7	4	43	24	42	23	59	32	31	17
A16	0	0	40	22	39	22	66	36	37	20
A17	9	5	34	19	46	25	69	38	24	13
A18	4	2	44	24	50	28	56	31	28	15
A19	9	5	33	18	40	22	71	40	27	15
A20	8	4	46	25	45	25	48	27	35	19
A21	8	4	34	19	44	24	60	33	36	20
A22	4	2	32	18	44	24	59	32	43	24
A23	9	5	34	19	48	26	58	32	33	18
A24	8	4	25	14	41	23	69	38	38	21
A25	3	2	36	20	52	28	60	33	31	17

Inspection of the frequency data in Table 7.4 reveals that for all the variables, point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest frequency (869 or 32%). As mentioned previously, for variables A13 and A14, point two on the scale obtained the highest frequency. The frequency distribution results are graphically displayed in Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section A of the Questionnaire: The Learning Organisation

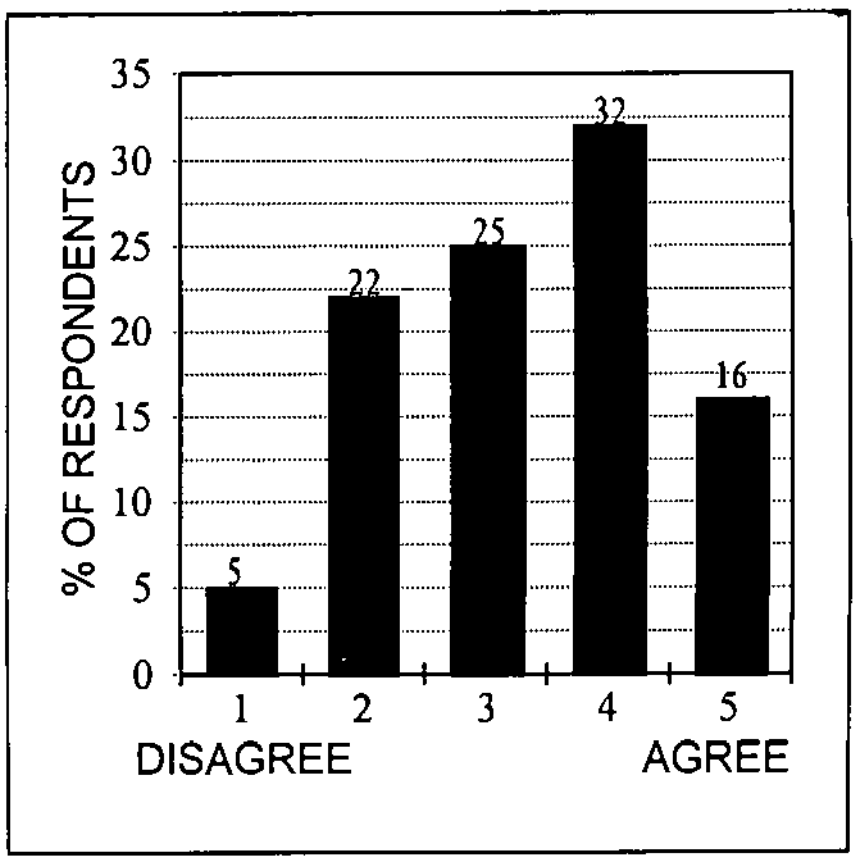


Figure 7.4 illustrates the frequency distribution percentages for the five points on the Likert-type scale. It is shown that 27% (5% + 22%) of respondents tend to disagree with the statements regarding the learning organisation. Twenty-five percent of respondents neither agree nor disagree with the variables concerning the learning organisation. Fourty-eight percent (32% + 16%) of respondents indicate agreement with the aspects on the learning organisation. It therefore appears that the majority of respondents do not agree with the variables regarding the

learning organisation. In terms of degree of asymmetry or skewness, the distribution of results seems to be negatively skewed (the tail of the distribution is to the left among the lower values of the variables). Kurtosis, which is a measure of the peakness of the distribution, shows that the distribution is thicker and more peaked in the tail and can be classified as leptokurtic.

(c) Transformational Leadership

The last part of Section A of the questionnaire (variables A26 to A40) concentrates on the aspect of transformational leadership in the organisation (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of these variables). The descriptive statistics for this part of the questionnaire is outlined in Table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section A of the Questionnaire: Transformational Leadership

VARIABLE	MEAN	MEDIAN	QUARTILE Q1	QUARTILE Q3	STANDARD DEVIATION
A26	2.99	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.18
A27	3.43	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.02
A28	3.32	3.00	3.00	4.00	0.97
A29	3.32	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.11
A30	3.66	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.99
A31	3.51	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.05
A32	3.42	3.50	3.00	4.00	1.15
A33	3.07	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.24
A34	3.08	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.04
A35	2.99	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.07
A36	3.13	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.15
A37	3.11	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.15
A38	3.28	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.13
A39	3.14	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.17
A40	2.97	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.14

The mean values in Table 7.5 are above three (neither agree nor disagree), except for variables A26, A35 and A40. It appears that respondents disagree slightly with regard to the following aspects being practice in their respective organisations: viewing failures as learning experiences with a strong desire for continuous development, taking the unique needs and capabilities of followers into account and leaders who arouse intense emotions in followers. The median values for these variables cluster around point three and four on the scale and indicate the lower and upper halves of the distribution (range between neutral and agree slightly).

The first quartile (Q1) indicates that 25% of the distribution data lies on or below point two and three of the scale. Except for variables A27, A28, A31, A32 and A33, the first quartile is at point two (disagree slightly). The third quartile (Q3) indicates that 75% of the distribution data lies on or below point four (agree slightly). An analysis of the standard deviation scores reveals that there is not much variability in the data set due to the low standard deviation values. The lowest standard deviation scores are shown by variable A28 (0.99) and A30 (0.99) which implies that most respondents tend to have the same opinion about leaders who are sensitive to the needs of others (by empowering them) and a desire for continuous self-learning and development

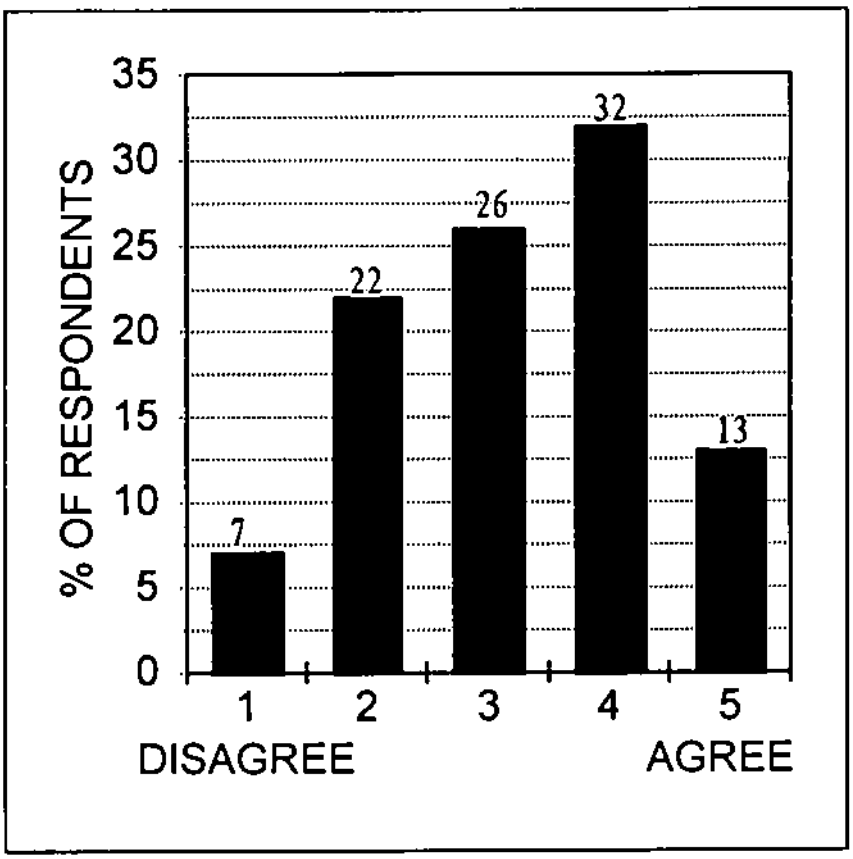
Table 7.6 depicts the frequency distribution results for the data set on transformational leadership.

Table 7.6: Frequency Distribution Results for Section A of the Questionnaire: Transformational Leadership

VARIABLE	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A26	18	10	53	29	44	24	47	26	20	11
A27	5	3	31	17	52	29	68	37	26	14
A28	4	2	37	21	55	30	69	38	17	9
A29	9	5	38	21	48	26	60	33	27	15
A30	1	1	26	14	46	25	69	38	40	22
A31	7	4	27	15	42	23	76	42	29	16
A32	8	4	36	20	47	26	54	30	37	20
A33	25	14	36	20	45	25	53	29	23	12
A34	9	5	54	30	44	24	64	35	11	6
A35	17	9	42	23	59	33	53	29	11	6
A36	14	8	45	25	49	27	51	28	23	12
A37	16	9	43	24	48	26	55	30	20	11
A38	10	6	42	23	41	23	64	35	24	13
A39	13	7	50	28	41	22	54	30	24	13
A40	18	10	48	26	56	31	42	23	18	10

An overview of the frequency distribution results in Table 7.6 highlights the fact that point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest frequency for all the variables, except for A26 (for which point two obtained the highest frequency) and A35 and A40 (for which point three obtained the highest frequency). These frequency distribution results are visually displayed by means of a histogram in Figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section A of the Questionnaire: Transformational Leadership



It can be deduced from Figure 7.5 that 29% of respondents (7% + 22%) disagree with the statements with regard to transformational leadership. Twenty-six percent of respondents neither agree nor disagree with the aspects related to transformational leadership. Fourty-five percent of respondents (32% + 13%) tend to agree with the variables on transformational leadership. It therefore appears that the majority of respondents do not agree completely with the aspects on transformational leadership, as practiced in their organisations. The frequency distribution can be regarded as negatively skewed, as most of the scores are among the lower values of the variables. The kurtosis of the distribution (degree of peakedness) can be regarded as leptokurtic, due to the fact that the distribution is thicker and more peaked in the tail. Table 7.7 provides a summary of the descriptive statistics for Section A of the questionnaire in terms of ranking order (highest to lowest mean values). Variables with the five highest and five lowest mean values are highlighted.

Table 7.7: A Summary of the Ranking Order of Mean Values of Variables in Section A of the Questionnaire

VARIABLE	HIGHEST MEAN VALUES	VARIABLE	LOWEST MEAN VALUES
A7	3.71	A26	2.99
A30	3.66	A40	2.97
A22	3.58	A2	2.75
A24	3.57	A14	2.57
A16	3.51	A13	2.57

Refer to Annexure 1 for a description of the variables mentioned in Table 7.7.

The highest mean value (3.71) is indicated by variable A7 (the encouragement of work teams in an organisation). The variable, organisations who have a desire for continuous self-learning and development (A30), obtained the second highest mean value (3.66). Variable A13 and A14 obtained the lowest mean value (2.57). On average, respondents tend to disagree slightly on the implementation of flexible reward structures and the use of front-line members as environmental scanners. The second lowest mean value (2.75) was obtained by variable A2 (disagree slightly that organisations do not have strict, formal lines of authority. The descriptive statistics and frequency distributions for Section B of the questionnaire are highlighted in the subsequent paragraphs.

7.2.2 Section B: Training in the Organisation

This section of the questionnaire analyses the nature and extent of training in the organisation and consists of 35 variables. The following aspects are viewed: the role of training in organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership; the role of training in managing organisational transformation and a model of training for transformation.

(a) The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership

The first 11 variables of this section of the questionnaire investigate the facilitating role of training in organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of variables B1 to 11). Table 7.8 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics for this section of the questionnaire.

Table 7.8: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership

VARIABLE	MEAN	MEDIAN	QUARTILE Q1	QUARTILE Q2	STANDARD DEVIATION
B1	3.65	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.09
B2	3.60	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.01
B3	3.64	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.97
B4	3.67	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.96
B5	3.51	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.03
B6	3.68	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.94
B7	3.56	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.10
B8	3.49	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.06
B9	3.27	4.00	2.00	4.00	1.31
B10	3.50	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.99
B11	3.26	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.11

All the mean values in Table 7.8 range between point three (neutral) and four (agree slightly) on the scale for all variables. The highest mean value is for B6 (3.68) and indicates that most respondents concur that training programmes maximise the balance between learning and doing. The lowest mean values are indicated by variables B11 (3.26) and B9 (3.27). It indicates that respondents do not concur that training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership

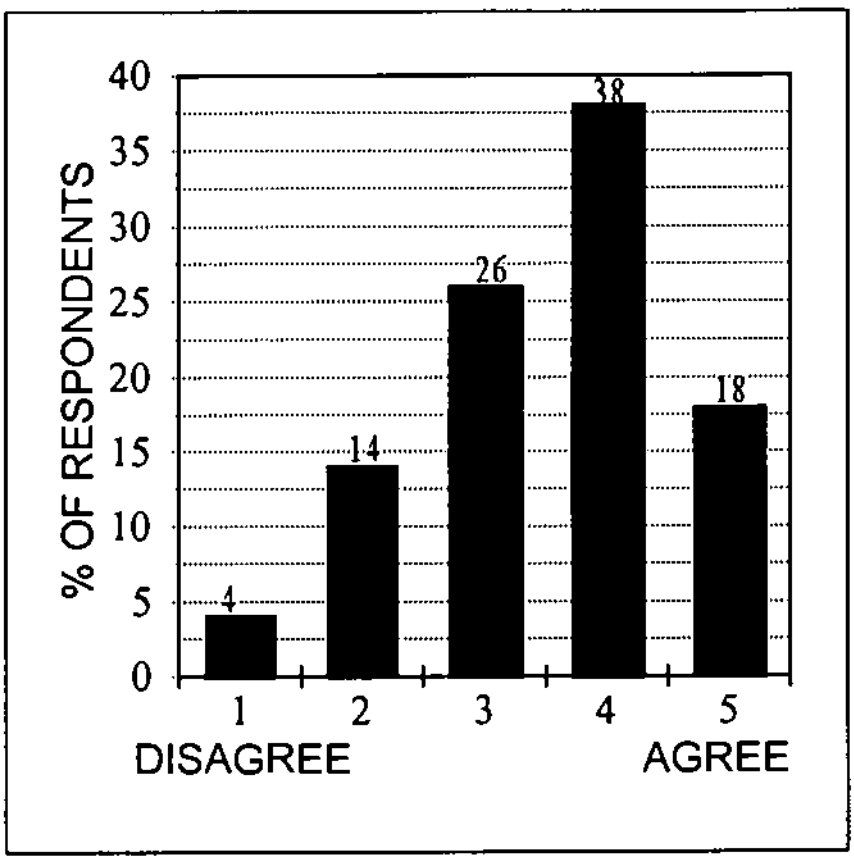
in the organisation and that transformational leadership is an important subject of management training and development. The median for all the variables is four (agree slightly), except for B11, with the median of three (neutral). Respondents tend to agree slightly with the statements in this part of the questionnaire. The first quartile (Q1) indicates that 25% of the distribution lies on or below point three (neutral) of the scale (the only exception is for variables B9 and B10 for which Q1 equals two). The third quartile (Q3) shows that 75% of the distribution lies on or below point four (agree slightly) of the scale. The variation in the scores is reflected by means of the standard deviation, showing that there is not much deviation in the scores. The lowest standard deviation is indicated by variable B6 which indicates that respondents do not vary much in their opinion that training programmes maximise the balance between learning and doing (this correlates with the high mean value for this variable). The highest standard deviation is shown by variables B9 (1.31) and B11 (1.11) and indicates that respondents vary in the their opinions about these aspects (this correlates with the low mean values for these variables). Table 7.9 shows the frequency distribution results for this part of the questionnaire.

Table 7.9: Frequency Distribution Results for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership

VARIABLE	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
B1	8	4	20	11	42	23	70	39	42	23
B2	6	3	17	9	56	31	68	38	35	19
B3	3	2	24	13	40	22	83	46	32	17
B4	1	1	22	12	51	28	70	38	38	21
B5	5	3	27	15	53	29	65	36	32	17
B6	4	2	13	7	56	31	73	40	36	20
B7	6	3	27	15	49	27	57	32	42	23
B8	8	4	26	14	45	25	74	41	29	16
B9	24	13	29	16	37	21	57	31	35	19
B10	5	3	28	15	43	24	83	46	23	12
B11	9	5	42	23	47	26	60	33	24	13

The frequency distribution results in Table 7.9 indicates that point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest frequency for all variables in this section of the questionnaire. Point one on the scale (disagree strongly) obtained the lowest frequency for all variables. Variable B9, however, shows a relatively higher frequency on point one of the scale, indicating that 13% of respondents disagree strongly that transformational leadership is an important subject of management training and development. These frequency distribution results are graphically illustrated in Figure 7.6.

Figure 7.6: Histogram of Frequency Distribution Results of Section B of the Questionnaire: The Facilitating Role of Training in Organisational Development, the Learning Organisation and Transformational Leadership



The histogram in Figure 7.6 indicates that 18% of respondents (4% + 14%) disagree with the statements regarding the facilitating role of training in the three factors of Section A of the questionnaire (organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership). Twenty-six percent of respondents are neutral in their opinions about the variables in this section of the questionnaire. Fifty-six percent of respondents (38% + 18%) agree with the statements in this part of the questionnaire. It therefore appears that the majority (56%) agrees that training does play a facilitating role in the application of organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership. The frequency distribution results seem to be negatively skewed and the kurtosis can be described as leptokurtic.

(b) The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation

This part of Section B of the questionnaire concentrates on the role of training in managing organisational transformation (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of variables B12 to B25). A summary of the descriptive statistics for these variables is highlighted in Table 7.10 below.

Table 7.10: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation

VARIABLES	MEAN	MEDIAN	QUARTILE Q1	QUARTILE Q2	STANDARD DEVIATION
B12	3.53	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.00
B13	3.77	4.00	3.00	5.00	1.04
B14	3.70	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.98
B15	3.84	4.00	3.00	5.00	1.02
B16	3.29	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.00
B17	3.36	3.50	2.00	4.00	1.15
B18	3.64	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.00
B19	3.63	4.00	3.00	4.00	0.86
B20	3.56	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.06
B21	3.66	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.09
B22	3.38	4.00	2.75	4.00	1.14
B23	3.40	3.50	3.00	4.00	1.05
B24	3.47	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.01
B25	3.73	4.00	3.00	5.00	1.02

It appears that all the mean values lie between point three (neutral) and point four (agree slightly) on the scale. The highest mean value is obtained by variable B15 (3.84), indicating that respondents concur that upgrading of managerial capabilities is necessary in situations of rapid change. The lowest mean value is shown by variable B16 (3.29), implying that respondents have different opinions about training programmes that should respond to shifts in strategic action of

the organisation. The median values indicate that most respondents agree slightly (point four on the scale) with the variables in this part of the questionnaire. The only exceptions are for variables B16 (3.00), B17 (3.50) and B23 (3.50). The first quartile (Q1) shows that 25% of the distribution lies on or below point three of the scale (neutral), except for variables B16, B17 and B22 (Q1 is on point two of the scale). The third quartile (Q3) suggests that 75% of the distribution lies on or below point four of the scale (agree slightly). The only exceptions are for variables B13 and B25 (Q3 is on point five of the scale). The standard deviation scores indicate no large deviation between the values of these variables. The lowest standard deviation is obtained for variable B19 (0.86), indicating that respondents do not vary much in their opinions that training designs should vary in detail, depending on the scope of change for which the training programme has been designed. The highest standard deviation is reflected by variable B17 (1.15), revealing that respondents do not concur that training initiatives should be linked to the mission of the organisation.

The frequency distribution results for this section are given in Table 7.11.

Table 7.11: Frequency Distribution Results for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation

VARIABLE	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
B12	2	1	33	18	42	23	77	42	28	16
B13	4	2	18	10	45	25	64	35	51	28
B14	3	2	21	12	41	22	80	44	37	20
B15	4	2	19	11	31	17	77	42	51	28
B16	3	2	47	26	43	23	73	40	16	9
B17	8	4	42	23	41	23	59	32	32	18
B18	6	3	13	7	59	33	66	36	38	21
B19	1	1	18	10	53	29	86	47	24	13
B20	4	2	33	18	37	21	73	40	35	19
B21	7	4	22	12	41	23	68	37	44	24
B22	11	6	34	19	41	22	67	37	29	16
B23	8	4	28	16	55	30	65	36	26	14
B24	4	2	32	18	46	25	74	41	26	14
B25	2	1	22	12	47	26	63	35	48	26

It can be deduced from Table 7.11 that, for all the variables in this section of the questionnaire, point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest frequency distribution. Overall, the majority of frequencies, tend to cluster around point three, four and five on the scale (ranges between neither agree nor disagree and agree strongly). The lowest frequencies for all the variables are on point one of the scale (disagree strongly). The frequency distribution results are illustrated by means of a histogram in Figure 7.7 below.

Figure 7.7: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section B of the Questionnaire: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation

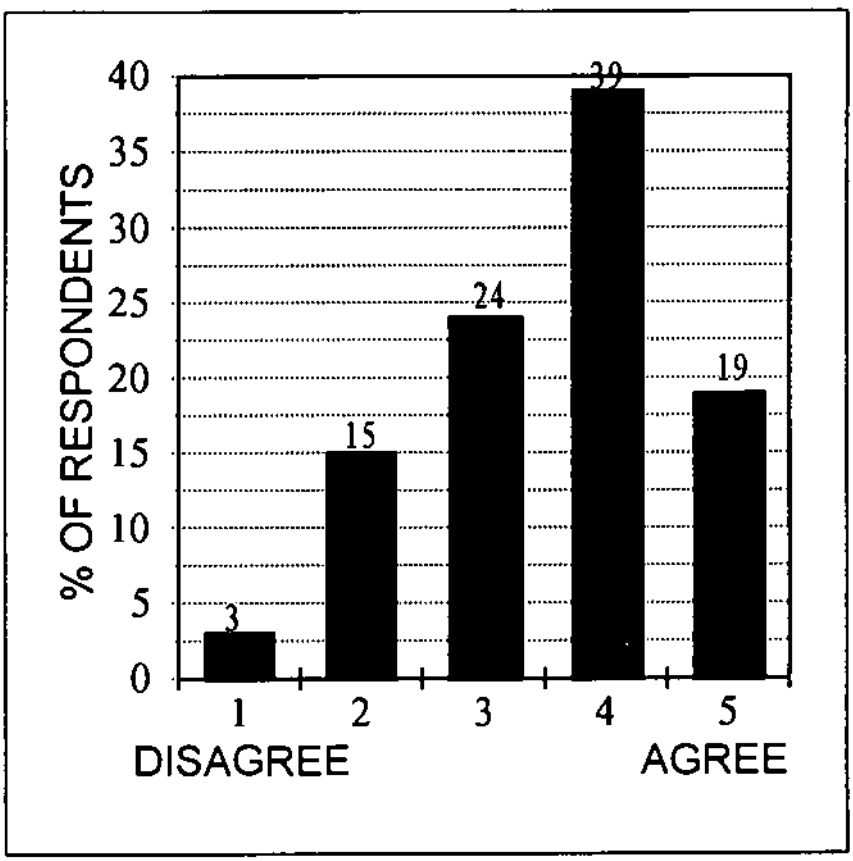


Figure 7.7 reveals that 18% of respondents (3% + 15%) disagree with statements regarding the role of training in managing organisational transformation. Twenty-four percent of respondents neither agree nor disagree with the variables in this part of the questionnaire. The majority of respondents (58%) indicate agreement with the aspects regarding the role of training in managing organisational transformation (39% + 19%). It can be deduced that most of the researched organisations do implement the aspects mentioned and therefore use training as a mechanism to bring about transformation in the organisation. The distribution can be regarded as negatively skewed and is leptokurtic.

(c) The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

The last part of Section B of the questionnaire (B26 to B35) deals with the application of a training for transformation model (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of these variables). The descriptive statistics for these variables are shown in Table 7.12 below.

Table 7.12: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

VARIABLE	MEAN	MEDIAN	QUARTILE Q1	QUARTILE Q2	STANDARD DEVIATION
B26	3.43	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.07
B27	3.33	3.00	3.00	4.00	1.03
B28	3.05	3.00	2.00	4.00	1.27
B29	3.53	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.00
B30	3.62	4.00	3.00	4.00	1.03
B31	4.01	4.00	4.00	5.00	0.89
B32	3.77	4.00	3.00	5.00	1.02
B33	3.88	4.00	3.00	5.00	1.12
B34	3.82	4.00	3.00	5.00	1.11

All the mean values of the variables cluster around point three of the scale (neutral), except for variable B31. The highest mean value is indicated by variable B31 (4.01), suggesting that respondents concur that in order to bring about change, the appropriate training methods need to be selected. The lowest mean value is shown by variable B28 (3.05), implying that respondents do not concur that the training policy should explicitly emphasise the aspect of training for change. For all the variables, the mean value is four (agree slightly), except for variables B27 and B28. Respondents seem to be indifferent towards the application of a training philosophy and training policy which enhances the capacity to adapt to change. The first quartile (Q1) varies between points two, three and four of the scale, indicating that 25% of the distribution lies on or below these points. The first quartile for variable B31 is four (agree slightly). The third quartile (Q3)

of the distribution lies on point four (variables B26 to B30) and point five (variables B31 to B34). The standard deviation, which indicates the variability of the scores, seems to be relatively low. The lowest standard deviation score is obtained for variable B31 (0.89), indicating that respondents tend to agree that in order to bring about change, the appropriate training methods need to be selected (this correlates with the high mean value for this variable). The highest standard deviation score is indicated by variable B28 (1.27), suggesting that respondents vary in their opinions that the training policy should explicitly emphasise the aspect of training for change (this correlates with the lowest mean value for this variable). The frequency distribution results for these nine variables are shown in the subsequent paragraphs.

Table 7.13: Frequency Distribution Results for Section B of the Questionnaire: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

VARIABLE	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
B26	7	4	33	18	45	25	69	38	28	15
B27	4	2	40	22	53	29	62	34	23	13
B28	18	10	57	31	35	19	41	23	31	17
B29	5	3	24	13	50	28	74	41	28	15
B30	4	2	26	14	41	23	75	41	36	20
B31	3	2	11	6	20	11	95	52	53	29
B32	3	2	21	11	38	21	72	40	48	26
B33	10	5	14	8	23	13	76	42	59	32
B34	9	5	16	9	29	16	72	39	56	31

In analysing the frequency distribution results in Table 7.13, it appears that for all the variables, point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest frequency. The only exception is for B28 which obtained the highest frequency for point two on the scale. Respondents disagree slightly with the application of a training policy which explicitly emphasises the aspect of training

for change. In general, respondents tend to agree with the application of a training for transformation model. Figure 7.8 graphically displays the frequency distribution results.

Figure 7.8: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of Section B of the Questionnaire: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

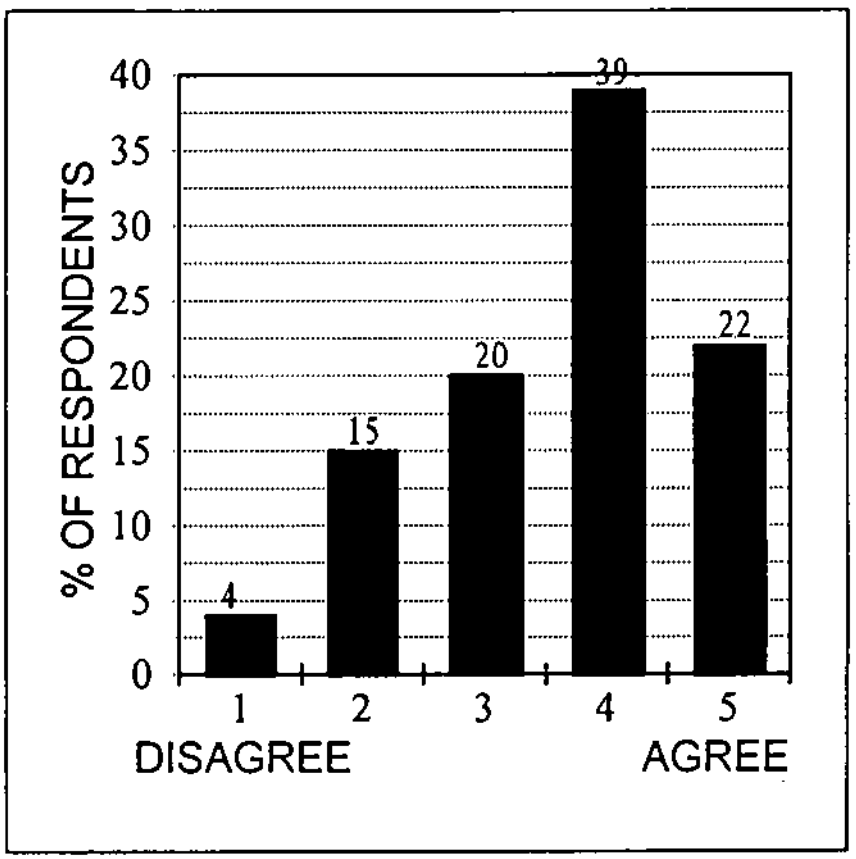
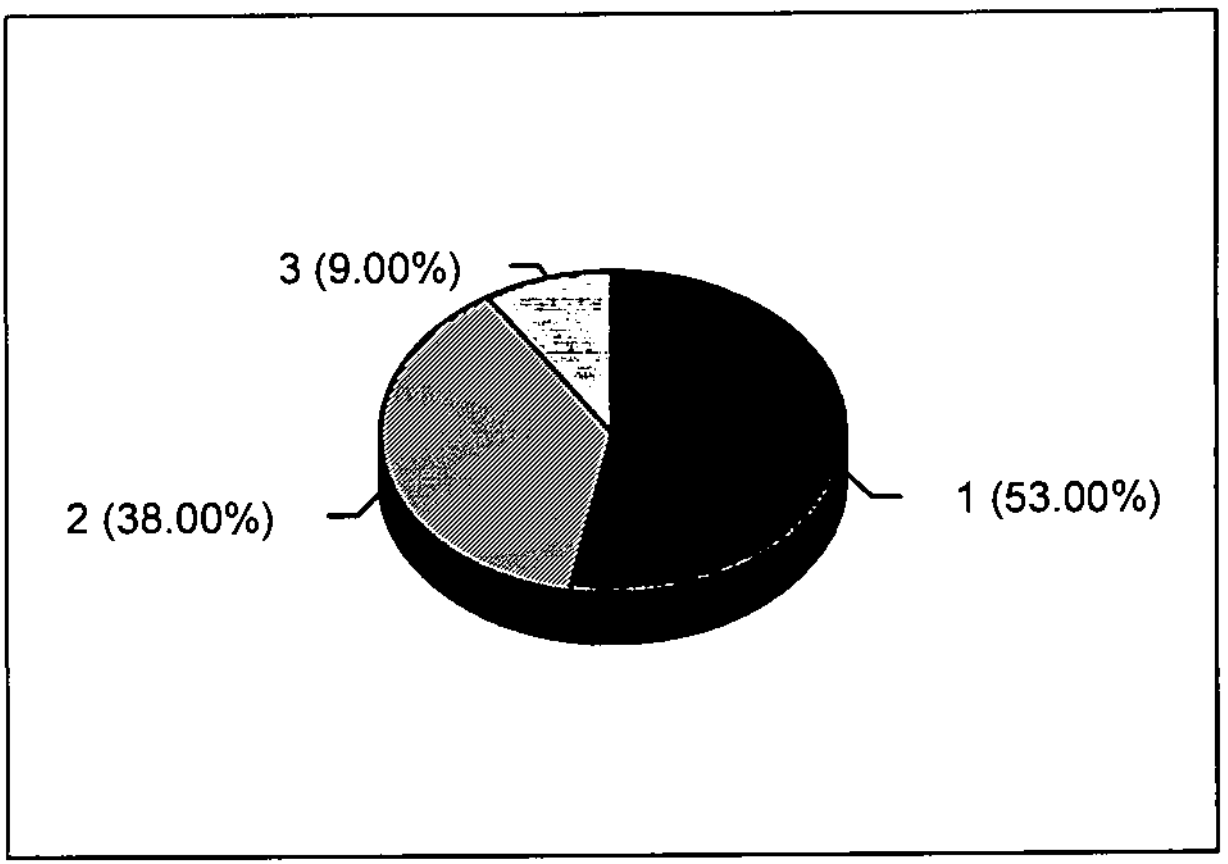


Figure 7.8 shows that 19% of respondents (4% + 15%) disagree with the application of a training for transformation model. Twenty percent of respondents neither agree nor disagree with the application of a training for transformation model. Sixty-one percent of respondents (39% + 22%) agree with the variables in this part of the questionnaire. The majority of respondents therefore agree with the statements that constitute a training for transformation model and that these elements of the model are applied within an organisational context. It appears that organisations do apply most of the elements contained in a training for transformation model. The distribution can be classified as unimodal (it has one distinct peak), is negatively skewed (the tail of the distribution occurs among the low values of the variables) and is leptokurtic.

The last variable of this section of the questionnaire (B35) deals with pre-training programme design aspects and is measured on a different scale (often, sometimes and never). The frequency distribution results are illustrated in Figure 7.9.

Figure 7.9: Extent to which Attention is given to Pre-training Programme Design Aspects



1= Often 2= Sometimes 3= Never

The illustration in Figure 7.9 indicates that 53% of respondents often pay attention to the training budget, obtaining of instructional resources and the selection of trainees. Thirty-eight percent of respondents indicate that attention is sometimes given to these pre-training programme design aspects. Nine percent indicate that attention is never given to these aspects. It appears that attention given to the training budget is the aspect that receives the most attention in the pre-

training programme design phase of the training process. A summary of the five highest and five lowest mean values for the variables in Section B of the questionnaire is provided in Table 7.14.

Table 7.14: A Summary of the Ranking Order of Mean Values of Variables in Section B of the Questionnaire

VARIABLE	HIGHEST MEAN VALUE	VARIABLE	LOWEST MEAN VALUE
B31	4.01	B28	3.05
B33	3.88	B11	3.26
B15	3.84	B9	3.27
B34	3.82	B16	3.29
B32	3.77	B27	3.33

Refer to Annexure 1 for a description of the variables mentioned in Table 7.14.

Table 7.14 provides an analysis of the ranking order of the mean values for the variables in Section B of the questionnaire. The highest mean value of all the variables in this section is for B31 (4.01). Most respondents agree slightly that, in order to bring about change, the appropriate training methods need to be selected. Some variables contained in the model of training for transformation are among the variables with high mean values: transfer of training to the workplace is ensured by practising what is learnt (B33); continuous feedback (B34) and training implies change which is realised by the actual implementation of the training programme (B32). The lowest mean value is for variable B28 (3.05), indicating that respondents differ in their opinions about a training policy which explicitly emphasises the aspect of training for change. Low mean values are also obtained for variables B11 (training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership) and B9 (transformational leadership is an important subject of management training and development).

The frequency distribution results for Section C of the questionnaire are highlighted in the following section.

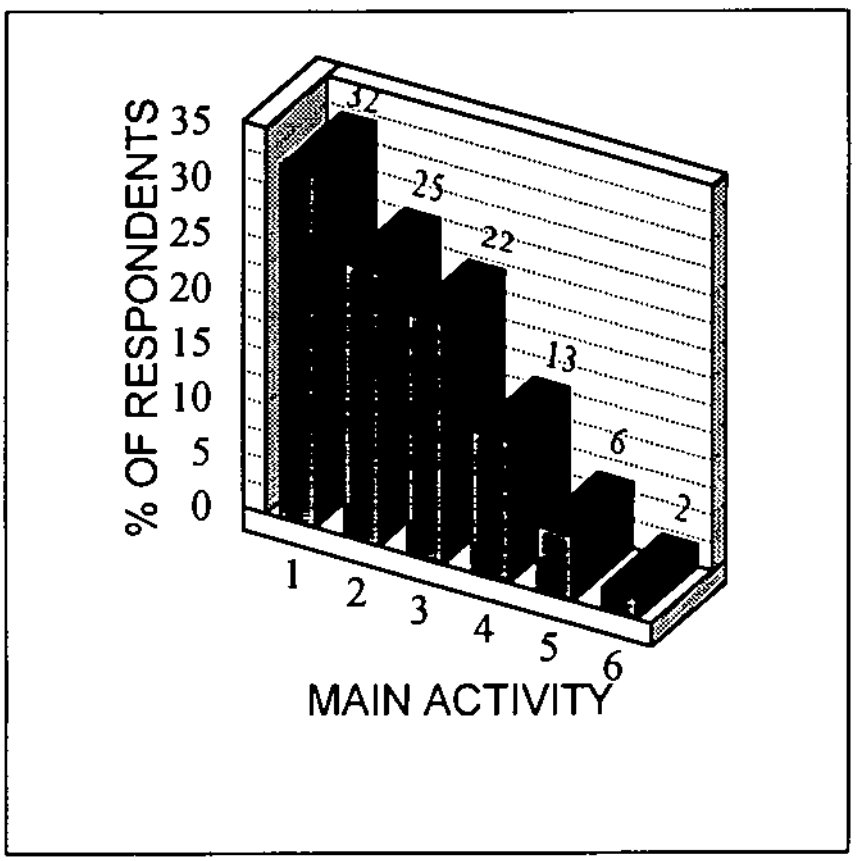
7.2.3 Section C: Classification Data

Ten different aspects regarding biographical and other classification data of respondents are analysed in this part of the questionnaire. The frequency distribution results of these variables are discussed in the following paragraphs (refer to Annexure 1 for a description of these variables).

(a) Main Activity

The main activity or type of business of respondents' organisations is analysed in this section. It is an open-ended question in which respondents need to indicate the main activity of their organisations. For purposes of analysis, the various types of main activities are reduced to six categories. Figure 7.10 illustrates the main activity of organisations to which respondents belong.

Figure 7.10: Main Activity of Organisations



1=	Service	4=	Trade
2=	Manufacturing	5=	Electricity
3=	Finance	6=	Construction

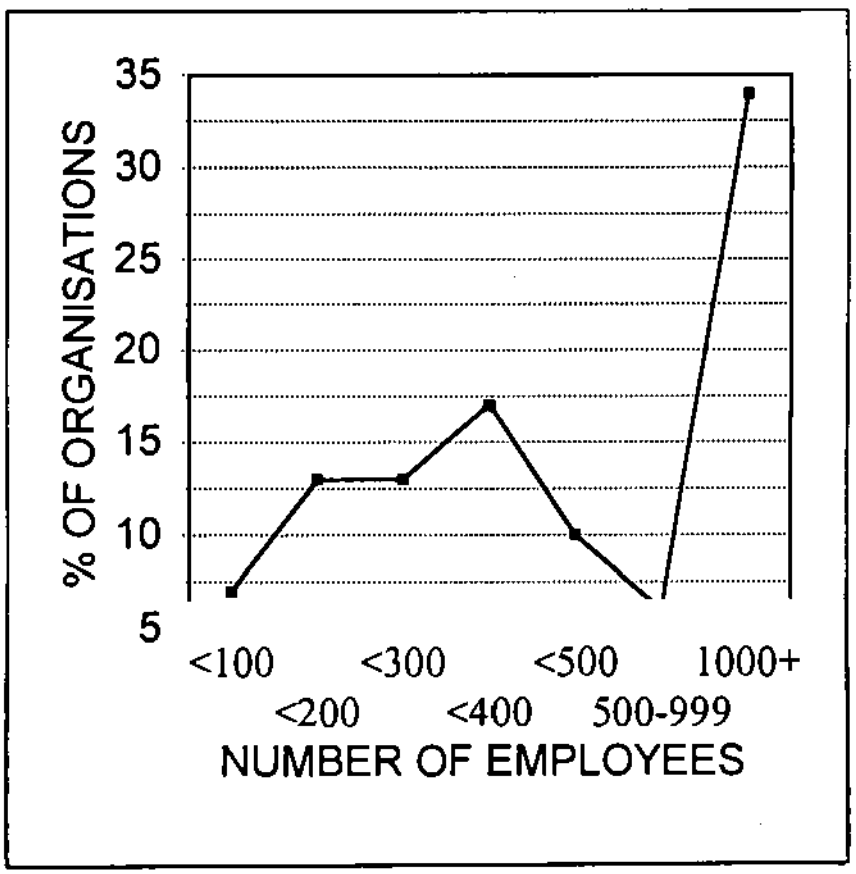
Figure 7.10 indicates that 32% of the responding organisations' main activity is in the service industry. Almost one third of respondents are therefore employed in organisations whose main activity is service related (eg. communication; education and training; transport, postal and health). Twenty-five percent of respondents represent the manufacturing sector (eg. sugar, agriculture, engineering, mining and motor cars). Twenty-two percent of respondents are employed in organisations whose main activity is finance (eg. banking and insurance), while thirteen percent of respondents represent the trade sector (eg. clothing, food and property). The

least representative type of main activity is construction (2%) and electricity (6%). Out of a total of 182 responses, 150 respondents completed this question (non-response of 18%).

(b) Number of Employees

This variable aims to establish the employment size of organisations, based on the number of employees. A nominal scale is used and respondents are asked to indicate the number of employees in their respective organisations (according to seven different categories). The frequency distribution results are provided in Figure 7.11.

Figure 7.11: Number of Employees



It can be deduced from Figure 7.11 that 34% of the organisations have an employment size of more than 1000 employees. Organisations with an employment size of less than 100 represent

seven percent of the response group. In categorising these employment sizes into small, medium and large organisations, it appears that the following categories are significant:

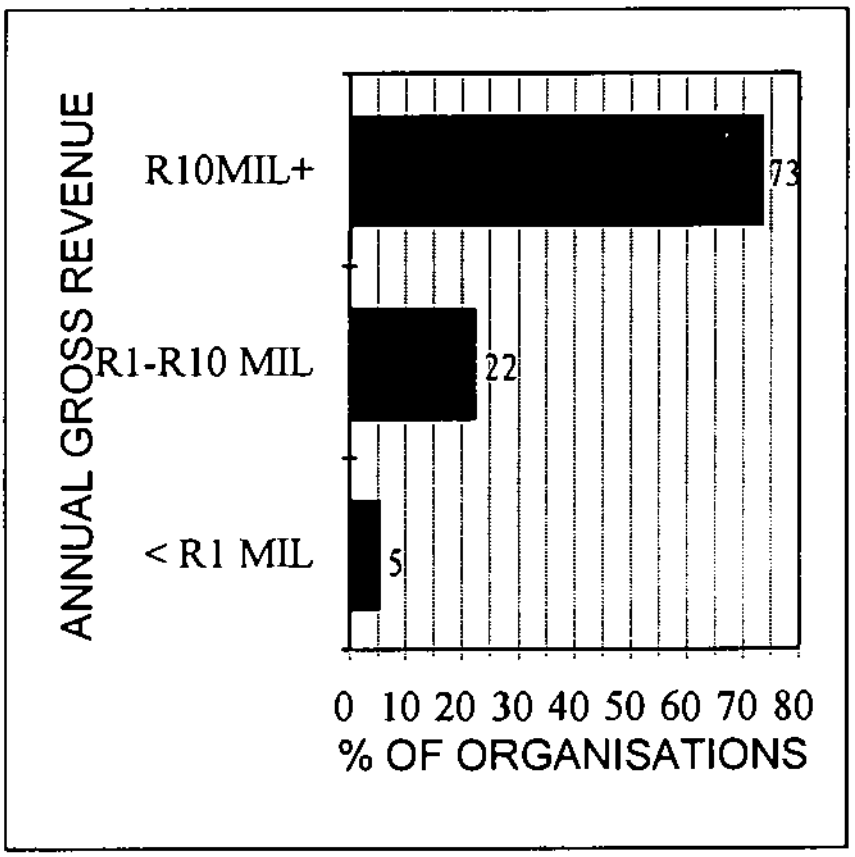
* Small organisations (<100-199): 20%
* Medium size organisations (200-499): 40%
* Large organisations (500-1000+): 40%

The above classification is not used for referring to small, medium and large organisations per se, but is merely used for purposes of analysis. Relatively small organisations represent only 20% of the response group. The majority of organisations which constitute the response group can be categorised as medium size (40%) and large organisations (40%) respectively. From this it can be deduced that the data analysis for this study and recommendations is based on larger organisations (which are more likely to have fully developed training departments and posts for change agents than a smaller organisation).

(c) Annual Gross Revenue in Rand

This variable attempts to establish the income level of participative organisations. The frequency distribution results are illustrated in Figure 7.12 below.

Figure 7.12: Annual Gross Revenue in Rand

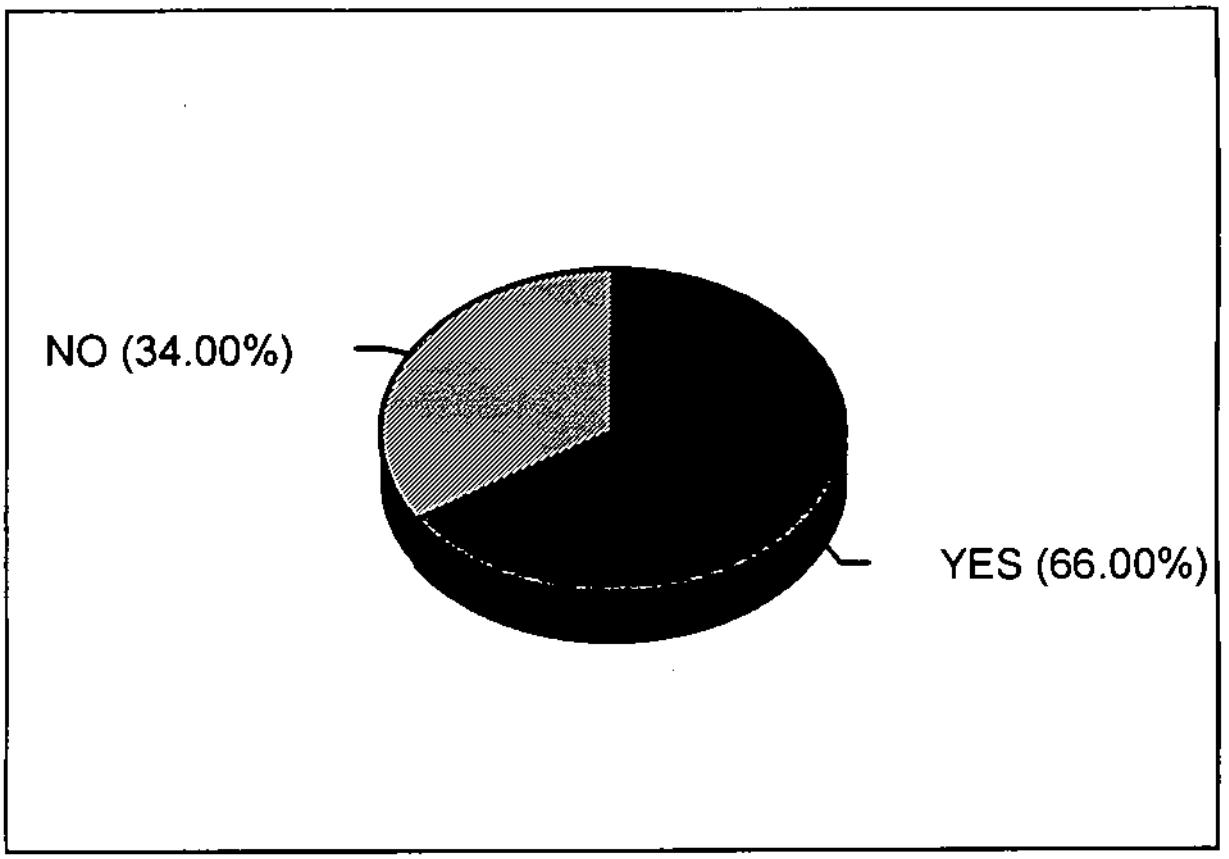


Seventy-three percent of participative organisations have an annual gross revenue of more than 10 million rand. Twenty-two percent of organisations have an annual gross revenue of between one and ten million rand, while only five percent have an annual gross revenue of less than one million rand. The majority of organisations in the response group are therefore from the higher income level.

(d) Existence of a Training Department

The fourth variable in this section of the questionnaire examines the existence of a fully developed training department or section in the organisation and respondents were asked to indicate by means of a yes or no alternative. Figure 7.13 shows the results of this variable.

Figure 7.13: Existence of a Training Department

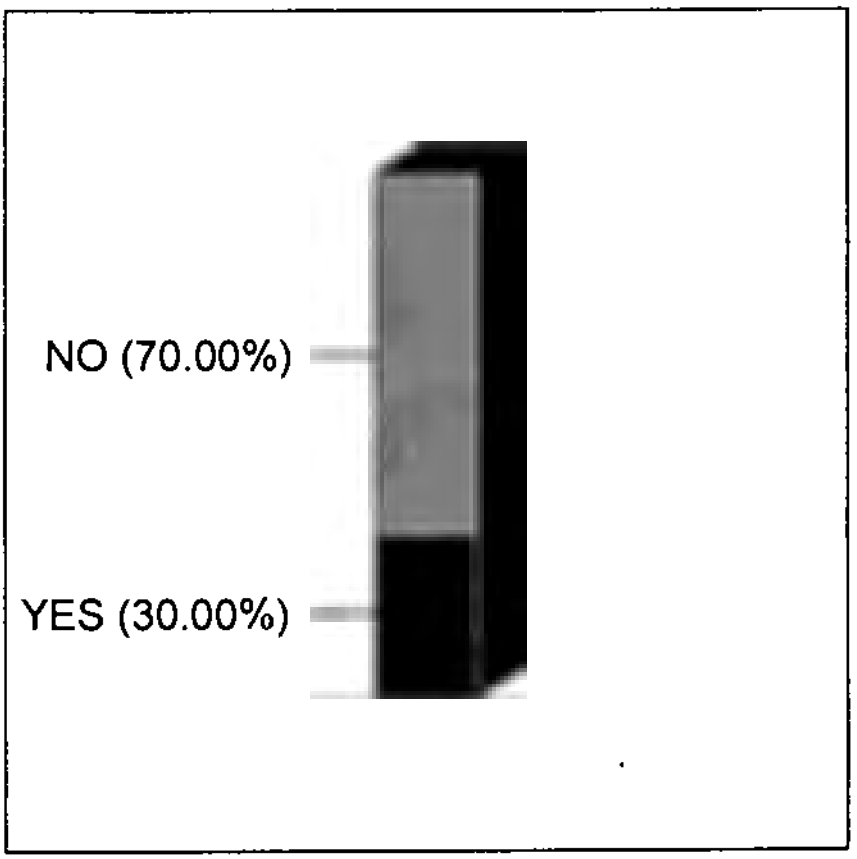


The majority of respondents (66%) indicated that their organisations have a fully developed training department or section. The training function in these organisations is therefore not a sub-section of the human resources or any other department, but is a fully developed, independent department (like finance, production and marketing for example). Thirty-four percent of respondents indicate, however, that training is not regarded as a separate function or department, but forms part of another department (human resources for example).

(e) Organisational Structure: Post for a Change Agent

This variable tests whether responding organisations have a specifically designated post for a change agent. Figure 7.14 indicates the frequency distribution results with regard to this aspect.

Figure 7.14: Organisational Structure: Post for a Change Agent

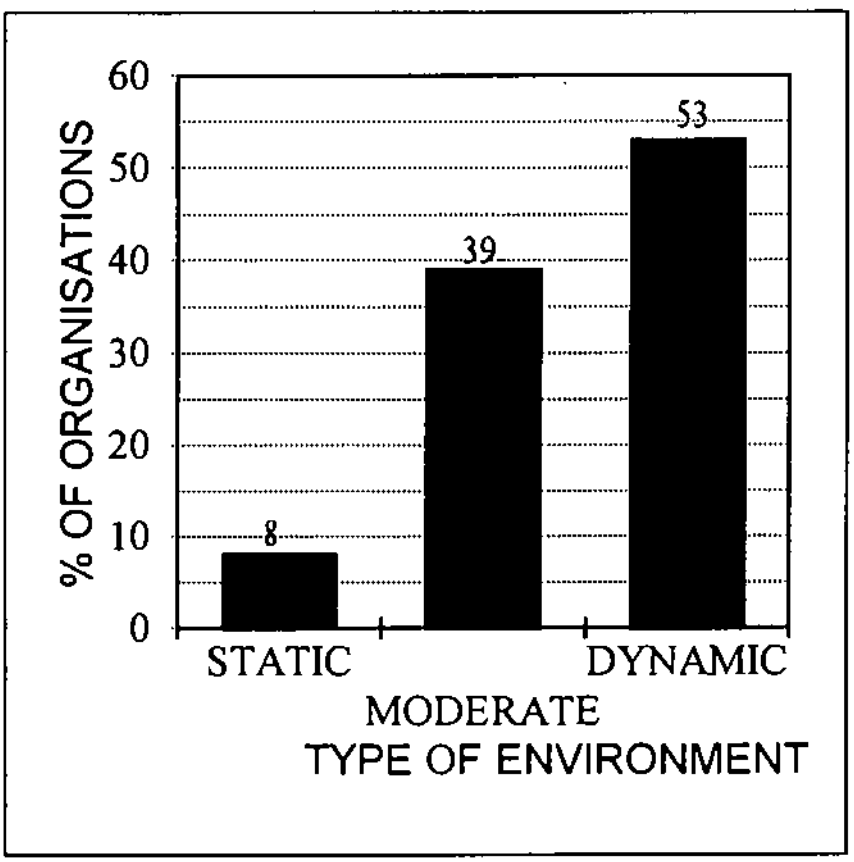


The above figure clearly shows that 70% of respondents indicate that their respective organisations do not have a specifically designated post for a change agent, while only 30% do have such a position in their organisational structure. It can therefore be deduced that more than two thirds of responding organisations do not make provision for such a post and that the management of change in the organisation is handled on a different basis by someone else not specifically designated for this task (for example the marketing manager or managing director) or by an outside consultant. The second part of this question deals with the aspect of using an outside consultant as a change agent (if not having its own change agent). Of those respondents who indicated that there is not a specifically designated post for a change agent, 34% indicate that they do make use of an outside consultant or change agent and 66% does not even use outside change agents.

(f) Type of Environment

Respondents were asked to characterise the environment (with regard to change) in which their organisations operate, in terms of static, moderate and dynamic. The outcome is shown in Figure 7.15 below.

Figure 7.15: Type of Environment

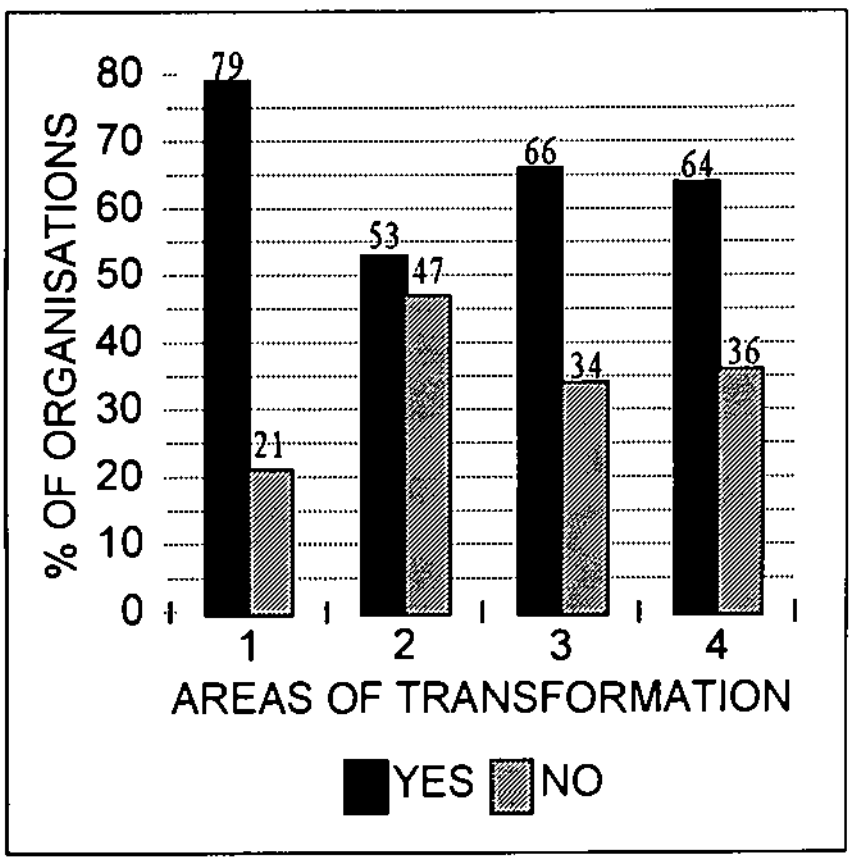


From Figure 7.15 it should be clear that more than half (53%) of participative organisations describe their environments as dynamic. These organisations operate in environments characterised by continuous change and innovation. Thirty-nine percent of the organisations view their environments as influenced by moderate changes and innovations. Only eight percent characterise the environment in which the organisation operates as static. It can therefore be deduced that most of these organisations are exposed to continuous changes and innovations which make their environments dynamic.

(g) Degree of Organisational Transformation

This part of the questionnaire establishes whether respondents regard their organisations as a transformed organisation in the following fields or areas: organisational politics, economy technology and social/cultural. Figure 7.16 reveals the opinions of respondents.

Figure 7.16: Degree of Organisational Transformation



1= Organisational Politics

2= Economic

3= Technological

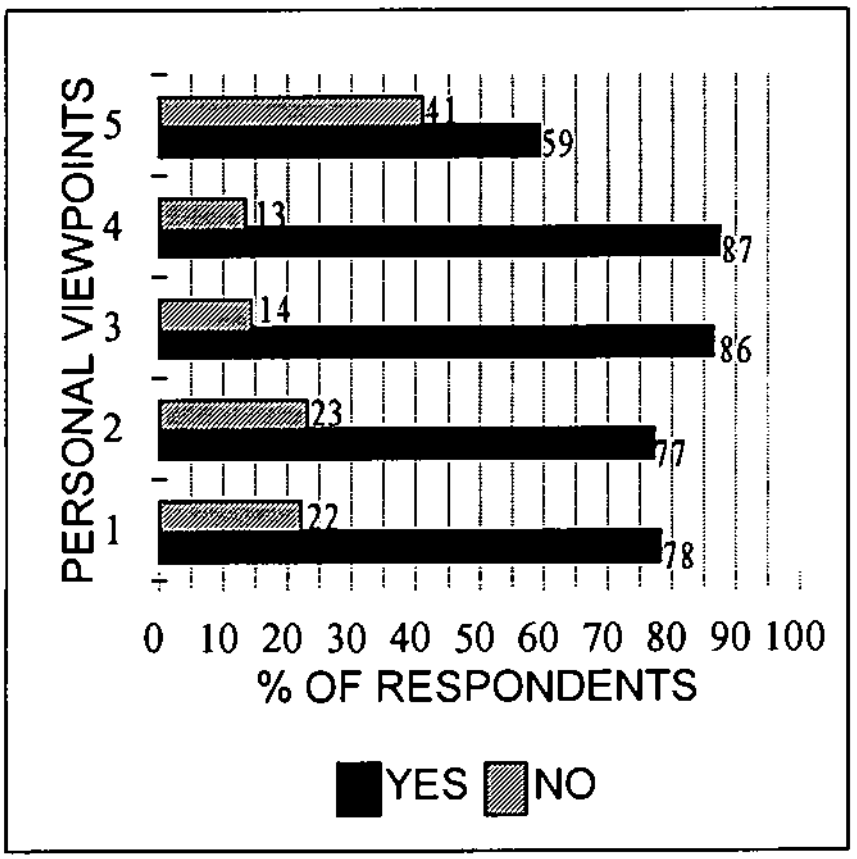
4= Social/cultural

In analysing the degree of organisational transformation in Figure 7.16, it appears that 79% of respondents regard their organisations as politically transformed (eg. management and unionisation). Only 53% of the organisations are economically transformed (eg. provision of a range of quality products/services and catering for structural changes in consumer income). With regard to technological transformation (eg. latest technology and processes and provision for a research and development budget), 66% of respondents view their respective organisations as transformed. Sixty-four percent of organisations can be regarded as transformed in a social or cultural context (eg. respect for diverse cultural values and involvement in social responsibility). In all four areas, the majority of respondents view their organisations as transformed. The least transformed area seems to be economic transformation and the most transformed area that of organisational politics.

(h) Research Variables: Personal Viewpoint of Respondents

The purpose of including this question in the questionnaire was to investigate the personal viewpoint of respondents with regard to research variables such as organisational development, the learning organisation, transformational leadership, training and organisational transformation. These variables were tested in the questionnaire but respondents had to respond to these variables as experienced and practiced in their respective organisations (that is why the personal viewpoints of respondents had to be obtained). The result of these personal viewpoints is shown in Figure 7.17.

Figure 7.17: Research Variables: Personal Viewpoints of Respondents



1= Organisational Development

2= The Learning Organisation

3= Transformational Leadership

4= Training Programmes should Support Change Strategies

5= Agreement with the Pace of Organisational Development

Figure 7.17 shows that 78% of respondents regard organisational development as an important technique for bringing about planned renewal in the organisation, while 77% agree that the learning organisation can facilitate organisational change. Only 14% of respondents did not agree that transformational leadership is important during periods of organisational change. Eighty-seven percent of respondents agree that training programmes should support the change strategies of an organisation. The pace of organisational transformation in South Africa is seen by 59% of the respondents as correct. Of those respondents who do not agree with the pace of

organisational transformation, 26% feels that the pace is too fast, while 74% feels that the pace is too slow. The majority of respondents therefore agree with the research variables and its implementation.

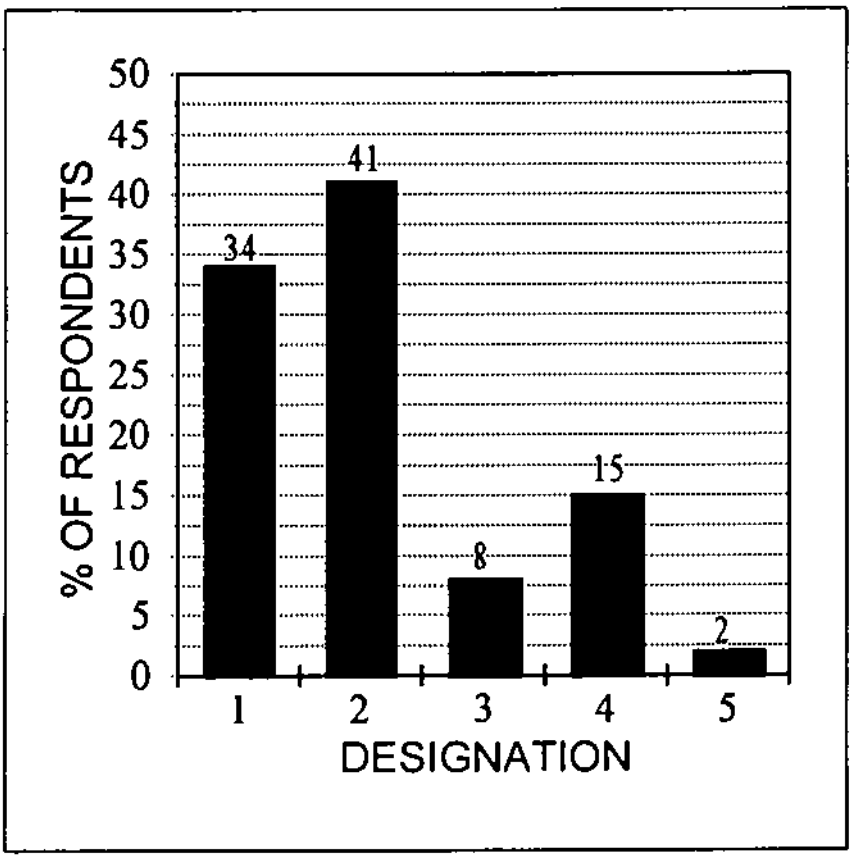
(i) Case Study Participation

Respondents were asked to indicate their preparedness to participate in an in-depth study to analyse the aspects of training for transformation, with a view to developing a South African case study. Out of 170 respondents who answered this question, 23 (14%) indicate that they are prepared to participate in the development of such a case study.

(j) Designation of Respondents

The last variable in the questionnaire examined the various designations or job titles of respondents. These frequency distribution results are illustrated in Figure 7.18.

Figure 7.18: Designation of Respondents



Thirty-four percent of respondents (indicated by number one in Figure 7.18) are employed as training and development officers and managers. The majority of respondents (41%) are employed as human resources managers and organisational development practitioners (number two in the diagramme). Eight percent of respondents (number three) are lecturers who specialise in the field of human resources. Fifteen percent of respondents (number four in Figure 7.18) are managing directors and general managers, while two percent occupy other posts, such as director of special programmes and communication advisor. Although some respondents are employed in posts other than training and development itself, it should be borne in mind that they are all training specialists, registered with the South African Board of Personnel Practices.

7.3 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Cooper and Weekes (1983:274) postulate that factor analysis is a method which groups a number of variables together in a smaller set of factors which measure the same aspect. The BMDP statistical software package (Programme 4M) was used to perform this factor analysis. Factors were extracted using Principle Component Analysis with Direct Quartimin Oblique rotation to allow for intercorrelations between factors. To confirm that all items load on the single factor and to explain the percentage of variance, Cronbach's alpha was calculated (refer to Table 7.15).

Table 7.15: Cronbach's Alpha for Section A and B of the Questionnaire

SECTION	VARIABLES	FACTOR	CRONBACH'S ALPHA	% OF VARIANCE
A	1-10	Organisational development (A1)	0.92	57.6
	11-25	Learning organisation (A2)	0.95	59.5
	26-40	Transformational leadership (A3)	0.95	60.3
B	1-11	The facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change (B1)	0.94	62.0
	12-25	Role of training in managing organisational change (B2)	0.92	49.9
	26-34	Application of training for transformation model (B3)	0.91	59.8

Throughout the factor analysis and search for relationships, reference is made to the following factors: organisational change (A1 to A3) and training in the organisation (B1 to B3), as described in Table 7.15 (these factors should not be confused with the variables in the questionnaire). To establish the reliability of the various factors, Cronbach's alpha was used in this study (indicating internal consistency). The reliability coefficients of Cronbach's alpha for the

various factors are above 0.7 (Cronbach's alpha should be above 0.7 to indicate internal reliability). It can therefore be concluded that all factors are internally reliable (Cronbach's alpha > 0.7).

The tabled percentages of variance is the percentage of variance (of the items constituting each factor) explained by each factor. Factor one (organisational development) explains 57.6% of the variance of the 10 items or variables which constitute this factor. The highest percentage of variance, of the factors in Section A of the questionnaire, is indicated by transformational leadership (60.3%). In Section B, the role of training in the application of organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership, explains 62.0% of the variance of the 11 items which constitute this factor. The role of training in managing organisational change indicates the lowest percentage of variance (49.9%). The descriptive statistics of the factor analysis is given in Table 7.16.

Table 7.16: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics of the Factor Analysis

FACTOR	MEAN	MEDIAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
A1	3.36	3.45	0.82
A2	3.31	3.33	0.84
A3	3.23	3.27	0.86
B1	3.53	3.55	0.83
B2	3.57	3.61	0.72
B3	3.61	3.67	0.81

A1= Organisational development

A2= Learning organisation

A3= Transformational leadership

B1= The role of training in the application of the building blocks of change

B2= The role of training in managing organisational change

B3 The application of a training for transformation model

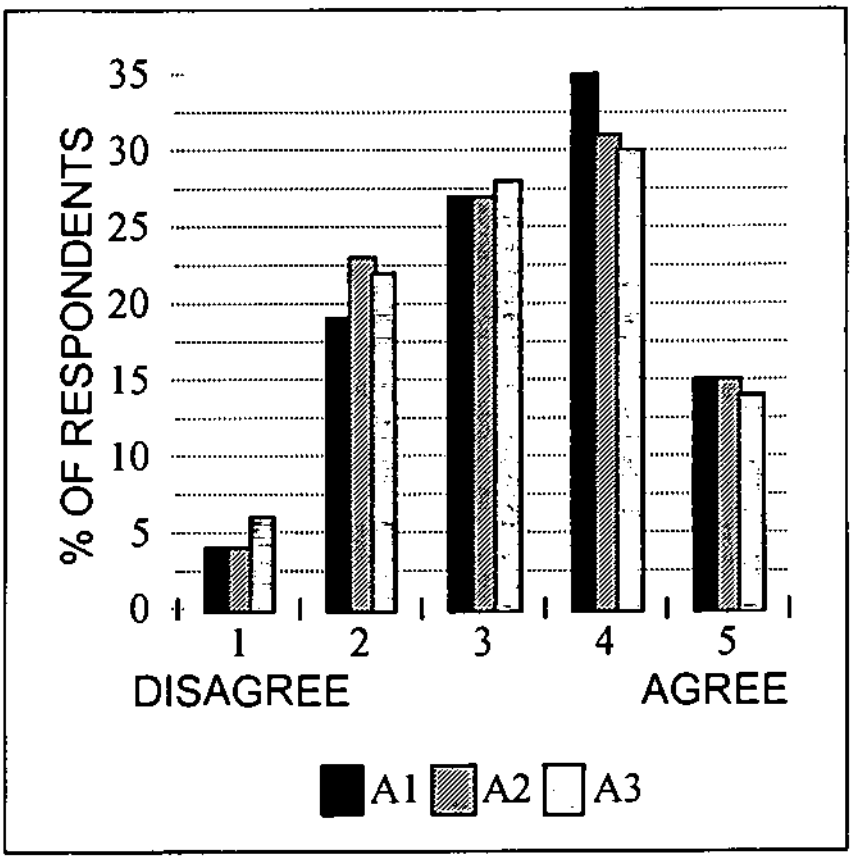
In analysing the mean values of the factors in Section A of the questionnaire, it appears that these values cluster around point three on the scale. The items constituting these factors tend to obtain average scores. The mean values of the factors in Section B of the questionnaire, however, lie in a higher interval and can be regarded as moderately high. The lowest median (3.27) is indicated by factor A3 (transformational leadership) and the highest median (3.67) is shown by factor B3 (the application of a training for transformation model). The standard deviation scores reveal that there are no large deviations from the mean values of the individual items of each factor. The lowest standard deviation is for factor B2 (0.72), implying that the variables of this factor (the role of training in managing organisational change) show the least variability. The highest standard deviation is for factor A3 (0.86). The items constituting transformational leadership show the highest variability. Table 7.17 shows the frequencies and percentages of the data regarding the factor analysis.

Table 7.17: Frequency Distribution Results of the Factor Analysis

FACTOR	DISAGREE STRONGLY 1		DISAGREE SLIGHTLY 2		NEUTRAL 3		AGREE SLIGHTLY 4		AGREE STRONGLY 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A1	7	4	35	19	49	27	63	35	28	15
A2	7	4	42	23	50	27	56	31	27	15
A3	11	6	40	22	51	28	54	30	26	14
B1	2	1	23	13	50	27	67	37	40	22
B2	3	2	18	10	49	27	71	39	41	22
B3	6	3	15	8	46	25	63	35	52	29

Analysis of the scale values of the various factors indicates that point four on the scale (agree slightly) obtained the highest value for all the factors. Most respondents agree slightly with the variables constituting each factor. Comparison between the extent of agreement/disagreement of respondents with regard to the factors of Section A and B of the questionnaire, shows that the factors of Section B obtained higher frequencies in terms of agreement (points four and five on the scale). A graphical presentation of these results is provided in Figure 7.19 and Figure 7.20.

Figure 7.19: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of the Factor Analysis: Section A of the Questionnaire



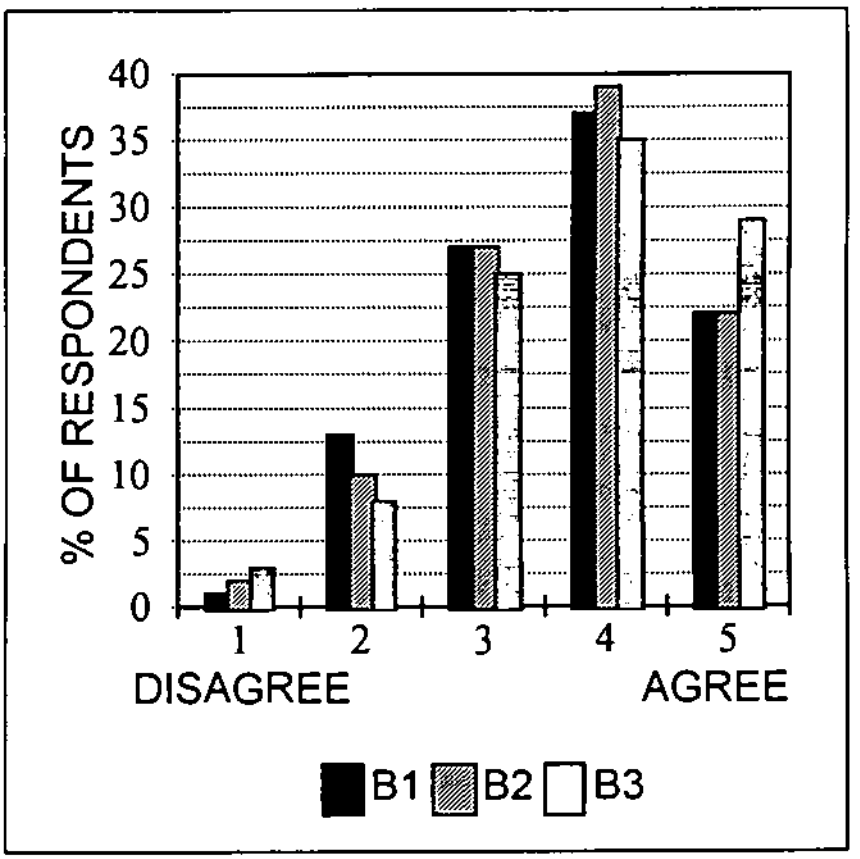
A1= Factor one (Organisational development)

A2= Factor two (Learning organisation)

A3= Factor three (Transformational leadership)

With regard to factor one, 23% of respondents (4% + 19%) disagree with the items constituting this factor, 27% are neutral and 50% (35% + 15%) tend to agree with this factor. In terms of the learning organisation, 27% of respondents (4% + 23%) disagree with this factor, 27% are neutral and only 46% (31% + 15%) agree with this factor. Factor three shows that 28% of respondents (6% + 22%) disagree with the aspect of transformational leadership, 28% are neutral and 44% (30% + 14%) agree with this factor. It appears overall that most respondents are neutral or disagree with the items constituting the factors identified in Section A of the questionnaire.

Figure 7.20: Histogram of the Frequency Distribution Results of the Factor Analysis: Section B of the Questionnaire



B1= Factor one (The role of training in the application of the building blocks of change)

B2= Factor two (The role of training in managing organisational change)

B3= Factor three (The application of a training for transformation model)

Fourteen percent of respondents (1% + 13%) disagree with factor one, 27% are neutral and 59% (37% + 22%) agree with the items constituting this factor. In terms of the learning organisation, 11% of respondents disagree with this factor, 27% are neutral and 62% (39% + 23%) agree with this factor. Eleven percent of respondents disagree with the application of a training for transformation model, 25% are neutral and 64% (35% + 29%) agree with the items constituting this factor. It appears overall that most respondents agree with the items constituting the factors in Section B of the questionnaire.

The following section highlights the search for relationships between the independent variables and dependent variables.

7.4 THE SEARCH FOR RELATIONSHIPS

The purpose of this section is to establish the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the questionnaire and to test the stated hypotheses. According to Schacht and Stewart (1995:139), a relationship between variables implies that an association exists between them (variables tend to occur together). The measurement values of variables can either occur jointly or vary together.

The dependent variable can be regarded as the one whose values are being affected and the independent variable is the one affecting the other (Bless & Kathuria, 1993:255). As each question in the questionnaire is used to obtain data, and the response to each question can vary, these questions can be regarded as variables. Table 7.18 provides an overview of the variables or factors that are used to search for relationships.

Table 7.18: A Summary of the Variables Contained in the Various Sections of the Questionnaire

SECTION	NUMBER	FACTOR	NUMBER OF VARIABLES
A	1-10	Organisational development	10
	11-25	The learning organisation	15
	26-40	Transformational leadership	15
B	1-11	The facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change	11
	12-25	The role of training in managing organisational change	14
	26-34	The application of a training for transformation model	9
SECTION	**NUMBER**	**ITEMS**	**NUMBER OF CATEGORIES**
C	1	Main activity	6
	2	Number of employees	3
	3	Annual gross revenue in rand	3
	4	Existence of a training department/section	2
	5	Designated post for a change agent	3
	6	Type of environment	3
	7	Degree of transformation	8
	8	Personal viewpoints of respondents	12
	9	Case study participation	2
	10	Designation / job title of respondent	4

To investigate the relationship between the variables, organisational change and training in the organisation (Section A and B) are the dependent variables, while the variables of Section C of the questionnaire are the independent variables. The relationship between organisational change (dependent variable) and training in the organisation (independent variable) is also investigated.

These relationships are investigated by means of the factors which are identified in Section 4.3 and not the individual items or variables of the questionnaire (variable and factor are used interchangeably in this section).

Inferential statistics are used to make inferences about the population using sample data and to make decisions about various hypotheses. According to Blalock (1981:335), analysis of variance can be used to test for differences among means and cultivates a structure of simultaneous relationships among two or more phenomena. An analysis of variance will be conducted, which investigates the relationship between the following variables: Section A and B (dependent variables) and Section C (independent variables) and Section A (dependent variables) and Section B (independent variables). With regard to the first mentioned ANOVA exercise, it reveals that relationships only exist between independent variables C2, C4 and C6 (refer to Annexure A for a description of these variables) and the dependent variables. These results are given in the subsequent paragraphs. No relationship therefore exists between the other independent variables of Section C and the dependent variables. The frequency distribution results of these independent variables are given in Section 7.2 (refer to Figures 7.11, 7.13 and 7.15) and the descriptive statistics for the factor analysis are provided in Table 7.16.

Before analysing the ANOVA results, Table 7.19 indicates the frequency distribution results of the relationship between the independent variables (number of employees, existence of a training department and type of environment).

Table 7.19: Frequency Distribution Results of the Group Structure Indicating the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Section C)

EMPLOYMENT SIZE OF ORGANISATION	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	TRAINING SECTION	ENVIRONMENT	COUNT
Small	<200	Yes	Static	1
	<200	Yes	Moderate	7
	<200	Yes	Dynamic	8
	<200	No	Static	2
	<200	No	Moderate	9
	<200	No	Dynamic	9
Medium	200-499	Yes	Static	1
	200-499	Yes	Moderate	17
	200-499	Yes	Dynamic	22
	200-499	No	Static	4
	200-499	No	Moderate	18
	200-499	No	Dynamic	10
Large	500+	Yes	Static	5
	500+	Yes	Moderate	12
	500+	Yes	Dynamic	44
	500+	No	Static	2
	500+	No	Moderate	5
	500+	No	Dynamic	1

As previously mentioned, this classification of small, medium and large organisations, based on employment size, was merely done for purposes of analysis. Table 7.19 shows that 56% of small organisations (number of employees <200) do not have a fully developed training department and that the majority of these organisations operate in a moderate and dynamic environment. This correlates with the notion that a smaller organisation may not have the necessary resources

(human and financial) to make provision for a fully developed training department. Most smaller organisations who do have a training department also operate in a moderate to dynamic environment. Fifty-six percent of medium sized organisations (number of employees = 200-499) do have a fully developed training department and most operate in a dynamic environment. Of the medium sized organisations who do not have a training department, the majority operate in a moderate environment. Of the larger organisations (number of employees = 500+), 88% do have a training department and the majority operate in a dynamic environment. Only 12% of the larger organisations do not have a training department and the majority operate in a moderate environment. It therefore appears that the larger an organisation becomes, the greater the need for a fully developed training department and that most organisations operate in a moderate to dynamic environment.

The analysis of variance tests conducted in the study, based on Section A and B (dependent variables) and Section C (independent variables), are indicated in Table 7.20.

Table 7.20: A Summary of Analysis of Variance Tests Conducted: Section A and B (Dependent variables) and Section C (Independent Variables)

SECTION	DEPENDENT VARIABLES/FACTORS	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
A	Organisational development (A1)	Section C
	The learning organisation (A2)	Section C
	Transformational leadership (A3)	Section C
B	The facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change (B1)	Section C
	The role of training in managing organisational change (B2)	Section C
	The application of a training for transformation model (B3)	Section C

The only independent variables used in Section C of the questionnaire are: number of employees (C2), the existence of a fully developed training department (C4) and type of environment (C6).

Annexure 1 provides a description of these variables. The analysis of variance results, testing of hypotheses and descriptive statistics are dealt with in the following sections. Section A and B of the questionnaire are used as the dependent variables and Section C as the independent variables.

7.4.1 Analysis of Variance for Organisational Development and the Independent Variables (Section C)

The relationship between the independent variables (number of employees, existence of a training department and the type of environment) and the first factor with regard to change, namely organisational development, is investigated in this section. It is determined whether these independent variables are related to organisational development in the organisation. The results of the analysis of variance tests, used to investigate these relationships, are given in Table 7.21.

Table 7.21: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Organisational Development

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
Number of employees	1.62129	2	0.81065	1.47	0.2320
Training department	5.80993	1	5.80993	10.56	0.0014**
Environment	13.64808	2	6.82404	12.41	0.0000**
Error	94.06358	171	0.55008		

** Significance level of 0.01

Before analysing the ANOVA results in Table 7.21, a brief overview is given of the most important statistics and tests used in this analysis. The sum of squares refers to the deviation of each score from the mean and squaring and summing these squared deviations (Mantzopoulos,

1995:335). According to Bless and Kathuria (1993:169), the degrees of freedom represent the allocation of the total number of degrees of freedom within the source of variation (n - 1). The mean square is obtained by dividing the sum of square by the corresponding degree of freedom (Schacht & Stewart, 1995:189). The F-test statistic compares the amount of variability found between groups versus within groups or samples (divide the mean square between by the mean square within). The F-statistic is placed on a distribution curve relative to a critical value (Howell, 1989:232). The P-value (probability value) is a probability representing the level of significance at which the test statistic becomes significant, leading to rejection of the null hypothesis (Mantzopoulos, 1995:205).

An important aspect to consider is the decision on the level of significance (alpha or critical region). The null hypothesis states that there is no difference between the dependent variables of various groups, as determined by the independent variable. If the P-value is smaller than 0.05, then the hypothesis is rejected (there is a significant relationship between the variables). There is a highly significant difference between the variables if the P-value is smaller than 0.01 (Phillips, 1992:80). These levels represent the one percent and five percent levels of significance respectively.

The ANOVA results in Table 7.21 reveal that the dependent variable, organisational development, has certain relationships with the independent variables. The $F_{2,171}$ value equals 1.47 (which is close to one) and shows that $H0_1$ can not be rejected ($p > 0.05$). The number of employees (size of organisation) is, therefore, not related to organisational development. The larger $F_{1,171}$ of 10.56 and the P-value of 0.0014 indicates that there is a highly significant relationship between the existence of a training department and organisational development. $H0_2$ can therefore be rejected ($p < 0.01$) and the research hypothesis (H_2) can be accepted. There is a relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and organisational development. The third null hypothesis ($H0_3$) can also be rejected, based on $F_{2,171}$ which equals 12.41 and the P-value of 0.0000 ($p < 0.01$). There is a highly significant relationship between the type of environment in which an organisation operates and organisational development and the research hypothesis, H_3, can be accepted.

Table 7.22 shows the descriptive statistics of the relationship between the independent variables and organisational development.

Table 7.22: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Organisational Development and the Independent Variables

NO	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
C2	No. of employees	<200	36	3.39	1.06	3.40
		200-499	72	3.32	0.80	2.90
		500+	69	3.37	0.72	3.40
C4	Training dept.	Yes	117	3.53	0.75	3.40
		No	60	3.02	0.86	3.40
C6	Environment	Static	15	2.60	0.76	2.90
		Moderate	68	3.13	0.84	3.00
		Dynamic	94	3.64	0.64	3.20

In analysing the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution results of the relationship between organisational development and the independent variable, number of employees, it appears that the difference in mean values are not significant ($H0_1$ can not be rejected). The mean value of organisations which have a fully developed training department (3.53) differs from those which do not have a fully developed training department (3.02), which indicates a difference of 0.51 ($H0_2$ can be rejected). The least variability in scores is also indicated by those organisations who have a training department (lowest standard deviation of 0.75). In organisations which operate in a dynamic environment, there seems to be a relationship with organisational development (highest mean score of 3.63 and lowest standard deviation of 0.70). The differences in mean values supports the rejection of $H0_3$.

7.4.2 Analysis of Variance for the Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables (Section C)

The ANOVA results, which indicate the relationship between the independent variables and the learning organisation, are dealt within this section. It is determined whether the independent variables are related to the learning organisation. The results obtained are shown in Table 7.23.

Table 7.23: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Learning Organisation

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
Number of employees	1.53527	2	0.76764	1.39	0.2508
Training department	6.66008	1	6.66008	12.10	0.0006**
Environment	15.86708	2	7.93354	14.41	0.0000**
Error	94.13925	171	0.55052		

** Significance level of 0.01

From Table 7.23, it can be deduced what the relationship is between the independent variables and the learning organisation. The $F_{2,171}$ value of 1.39 is relatively close to one and the P-value of 0.2508 indicates that $H0_4$ can not be rejected ($p > 0.05$). The number of employees (size of organisation) is not related to organisational development. The larger $F_{1,171}$ statistic of 12.10 and the P-value of 0.0006 shows that there is a highly significant relationship between the existence of a training department and the learning organisation. The null hypothesis, $H0_5$, can therefore be rejected ($p < 0.01$) and the research hypothesis (H_5) can be accepted. There is a relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the learning organisation. Based on the $F_{2,171}$ value of 14.41, and the P-value of 0.0000, $H0_6$ can be rejected ($p < 0.01$). It appears that there is a highly significant relationship between the environment in

which an organisation operates and the learning organisation. Table 7.24 highlights the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution results of the relationship between the independent variables and the learning organisation.

Table 7.24: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables

NO	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
C2	No. of employees	<200	36	3.29	1.06	3.40
		200-499	72	3.30	0.75	3.13
		500+	69	3.34	0.81	3.60
C4	Training dept.	Yes	117	3.50	0.81	3.60
		No	60	2.94	0.76	3.53
C6	Environment	Static	15	2.51	0.72	2.80
		Moderate	68	3.06	0.77	3.27
		Dynamic	94	3.62	0.76	3.00

There is no significant difference between the mean values of the independent variable, the number of employees and the learning organisation. The highest mean value (3.50) is for those organisations which have a fully developed training department (a difference of 0.56 as compared to those organisations which do not have a fully developed training department). Those organisations which do not have a fully developed training department, however, show less variability in scores (lower standard deviation of 0.76). The highest mean score (3.62) is obtained by organisations which operate in a dynamic environment and differs significantly from the mean value of organisations operating in moderate and static environments.

7.4.3 Analysis of Variance for Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables (Section C)

This section analyses the relationship between the independent variables and another building block of change, namely, transformational leadership. The relationship between the independent variables and transformational leadership will be investigated. The ANOVA results are presented in Table 7.25.

Table 7.25: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Transformational Leadership

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
Number of employees	1.32603	2	0.66301	1.18	0.3106
Training department	8.05173	1	8.05173	14.30	0.0002**
Environment	16.20669	2	8.10334	14.39	0.0000**
Error	96.31407	171	0.56324		

** Significance level of 0.01

The ANOVA results in Table 7.25 clearly indicate the relationship between the independent variables and transformational leadership. The $F_{2,171}$ value which equals 1.18 indicates that there is no significant difference between the sample means. The P-value of 0.3016 fails to reject the null hypothesis, $H0_7$, because the calculated value does not fall in the critical region and implies that there is no significant relationship between the size of an organisation and transformational leadership ($p > 0.05$). The number of employees is not related to transformational leadership. Based on $F_{1,171}$ of 14.30, which is relatively large, and the P-value of 0.0002, the null hypothesis ($H0_8$) is rejected at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$) and the research hypothesis, H_8, is accepted. It appears that there is a relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and transformational leadership. The high $F_{2,171}$ of 14.39 and the P-value of 0.0000

indicate that the probability is less than the highly significant level and falls in the rejection region. The null hypothesis, $H0_9$, is rejected ($p < 0.01$) and the research hypothesis, H_9, is accepted. There is a highly significant relationship between the type of environment in which an organisation operates and transformational leadership.

Table 7.26 provides the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution results of the relationship between the independent variables and transformational leadership.

Table 7.26: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables

NO	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
C2	No. of employees	<200	36	3.24	1.12	3.47
		200-499	72	3.17	0.75	3.20
		500+	69	3.29	0.81	3.53
C4	Training dept.	Yes	117	3.44	0.80	3.73
		No	60	2.83	0.83	3.47
C6	Environment	Static	15	2.41	0.73	2.53
		Moderate	68	2.97	0.77	2.93
		Dynamic	94	3.55	0.79	3.27

The descriptive statistics of the relationship between transformational leadership and the number of employees (size of organisation) show that there is no significant difference in mean values. Organisations which have a fully developed training department reveal the highest mean score (3.44) and differ significantly from organisations which do not have a training department (it also shows the lowest standard deviation. Organisations operating in a dynamic environment obtained the highest mean score (3.55) which differs significantly from the mean values of organisations operating in moderate and static environments.

Figure 7.21 illustrates the relationship between the independent varaibles (Section C) and organisational change (Section A) and which of the null hypotheses are rejected.

Figure 7.21: A Summary of the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Classification Data) and Dependent Variables (Organisational Change)

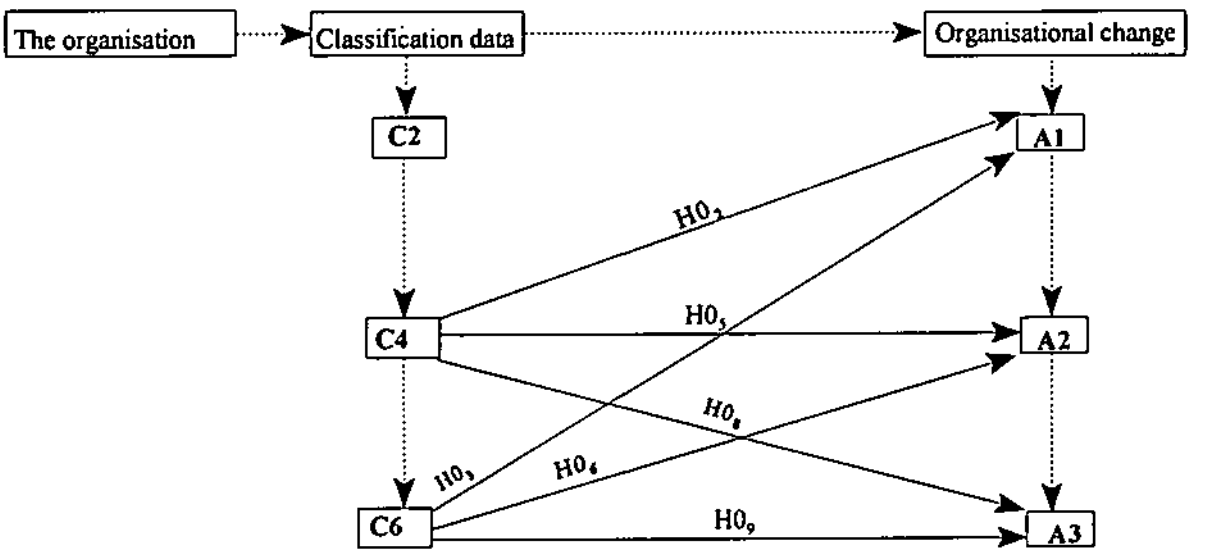


Figure 7.21 illustrates the relationship between the classification data (C2, C4 and C6) and organisational change (A1, A2 and A3) and indicates the rejection of the null hypotheses. Section C is used as the independent variables and Section A as the dependent variables/factors. The number of employees in an organisation (C2) indicates no relationship with the variables of organisational change. The null hypotheses, $H0_1$, $H0_4$ and $H0_7$ are therefore not rejected. Organisational development (A1) indicates a relationship with the existence of a training department in an organisation (C4) and the type of environment (C6) in which an organisation operates ($H0_2$ and $H0_3$ are rejected). The learning organisation (A2) shows a relationship with the existence of a training department (C4) and the type of environment (C6) in which an organisation operates ($H0_5$ and $H0_6$ are rejected). Transformational leadership (A3) indicates a relationship with the existence of a training department (C4) and the type of environment (C6) in which an organisation operates ($H0_8$ and $H0_9$ are rejected). It can be deduced that there are

relationships between organisational change and the independent variables (classification data). Only the number of employees (C2) indicates no relationship with the dependent variables.

7.4.4 Analysis of Variance for the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change and the Independent Variables (Section C)

In this section, the relationship between the independent variables and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change, is investigated. It is determined whether the independent variables are related to the facilitating role of training in the application of organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership. The results of the analysis of variance tests, used to investigate these differences, are outlined in Table 7.27.

Table 7.27: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
Number of employees	4.57136	2	2.28568	4.42	0.0134*
Training department	13.41069	1	13.41069	25.96	0.0000**
Environment	10.78339	2	5.39169	10.44	0.0001**
Error	88.33892	171	0.51660		

** Significance level of 0.01 * Significance level of 0.05

Table 7.27 reveals a distinct relationship between the facilitating role of training in the application of organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership and the independent variables. The $F_{2,171}$ value of 4.42 and the P-value of 0.0134 indicates that the null hypothesis, $H0_{10}$, can be rejected at the 0.05 significance level ($p < 0.05$). The research hypothesis, H_{10}, can therefore be accepted: there is a relationship between the number of employees (size of organisation) and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change. The large $F_{1,171}$ statistic of 25.96 and the P-value of 0.0000 suggest that $H0_{11}$ can be rejected ($p < 0.01$). Based on this analysis, the research hypothesis, H_{11}, can be accepted. There is a relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change. The $F_{2,171}$ statistic of 10.44 and the P-value of 0.0001 allows for the rejection of the null hypothesis, $H0_{12}$, at the 0.01 alpha level ($p < 0.01$). The research hypothesis, H_{12}, can therefore be accepted which states that there is a relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change. It appears that there are significant relationships between the independent variables

and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change. Table 7.28 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution of the ANOVA results.

Table 7.28: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change and the Independent Variables

NO	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
C2	No. of employees	<200	36	3.57	0.99	3.18
		200-499	72	3.55	0.68	2.73
		500+	69	3.50	0.88	3.91
C4	Training dept.	Yes	117	3.75	0.77	3.91
		No	60	3.10	0.78	3.91
C6	Environment	Static	15	2.76	0.94	3.82
		Moderate	68	3.34	0.78	3.91
		Dynamic	94	3.80	0.73	3.18

The highest mean score (3.57) is indicated by the smaller organisations, while the lowest standard deviation (0.68) and range (2.73) is shown for the medium sized organisations. The difference in mean values indicates that there is a significant relationship between the existence of a training department and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change ($H0_{11}$ can be rejected). Organisations which have a fully developed training department reveal the highest mean score (3.75) and further show the least variability in scores (lowest standard deviation of 0.77). Organisations which operate in a dynamic environment obtained the highest mean score of 3.80) and the lowest standard deviation (0.73) and range (3.18).

7.4.5 Analysis of Variance for the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change and the Independent Variables (Section C)

The ANOVA results, which investigate the relationship between the independent variables and the role of training in managing organisational change, are presented in this section. The relationship between the independent variables and the role of training in managing organisational change is determined. The ANOVA results are depicted in Table 7.29.

Table 7.29: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
Number of employees	0.92098	2	0.46049	1.24	0.2930
Training department	12.74529	1	12.74529	34.22	0.0000**
Environment	9.05278	2	4.52639	12.15	0.0000**
Error	63.68698	171	0.37244		

** Significance level of 0.01

The ANOVA results in Table 7.29 shows that the $F_{2,171}$ value of 1.24 and the P-value of 0.2930 fails to reject the null hypothesis, $H0_{13}$. The calculated values fall outside the rejection region ($p > 0.05$) and indicate that there is no relationship between the role of training in managing change and the size of the organisation. The high $F_{1,171}$ statistic of 34.22 and the P-value of 0.0000 ($p < 0.01$) indicates that the calculated values fall within the rejection region and $H0_{14}$ can therefore be rejected at a significance level of 0.01. This allows for the acceptance of the research hypothesis (H_{14}). There is a relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the role of training in managing organisational change. The null

hypothesis, $H0_{15}$, can be rejected, based on the following analysis: $F_{2,171}$ value of 12.15 and P-value of 0.0000. At an alpha level of 0.01, it appears that there is a highly significant relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and the environment in which an organisation operates. The research hypothesis, H_{15}, can therefore be accepted: the environment in which an organisation operates is related to the role of training in managing organisational change. The descriptive statistics and frequency distribution results are shown in Table 7.30.

Table 7.30: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change and the Independent Variables

NO	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
C2	No. of employees	<200	36	3.54	0.92	3.50
		200-499	72	3.52	0.64	2.57
		500+	69	3.64	0.70	3.57
C4	Training dept.	Yes	117	3.80	0.61	3.57
		No	60	3.12	0.71	3.50
C6	Environment	Static	15	2.76	0.87	3.29
		Moderate	68	3.44	0.69	2.93
		Dynamic	94	3.80	0.60	2.71

The highest mean value (3.64) is shown by large organisations (500+ employees), while the least variability in scores (0.64) and lowest range (2.57) is shown by medium sized organisations. Significant differences in mean values show that organisations with a training department obtained the highest mean value (3.80) and lowest standard deviation (0.61). Those organisations which operate in a dynamic environment obtained the highest mean value (3.80) and lowest standard deviation (0.60) and range (2.71). These differences in mean values indicate that there is a significant relationship between these independent variables and the role of training in managing organisational change.

7.4.6 Analysis of Variance for the Application of a Training for Transformation Model and the Independent Variables (Section C)

The dependent variable, the application of a training for transformation models' relationship with the independent variables, is outlined in this section. It is investigated whether the independent variables are related to the application of a training for transformation model. The results of analysis of variance tests, used to investigate these relationships, are given in Table 7.31.

Table 7.31: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Application of a Training for Transformation Model

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
Number of employees	11.87832	2	5.93916	12.62	0.0000**
Training department	13.21986	1	13.21986	28.09	0.0000**
Environment	11.70985	2	5.85493	12.44	0.0000**
Error	80.47685	171	0.47062		

** Significance level of 0.01

The ANOVA results clearly indicate the relationships between the independent variables and the application of a training for transformation model. The null hypotheses can, in all cases, be rejected at a significance level of 0.01. The high $F_{2,171}$ value of 12.62 and the P-value of 0.0000 indicate that the null hypothesis, $H0_{16}$, can be rejected ($p < 0.01$) and the research hypothesis, H_{16}, can be accepted. The number of employees is related to the application of a training for transformation model. The high $F_{1,171}$ value of 28.09 and the P-value of 0.0000 shows that at a 0.01 significance level, $H0_{17}$ falls within the rejection region ($p < 0.01$). The research hypothesis, H_{17}, can therefore be accepted: there is a relationship between an organisation which

has a fully developed training department and the application of a training for transformation model. The null hypothesis, $H0_{18}$, can be rejected because of the high $F_{2,171}$ value of 12.44 and the P-value of 0.0000. These calculated values fall within the rejection region ($p < 0.01$) and indicate that there is a highly significant relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and the independent variable (type of environment). This allows for the acceptance of the research hypothesis (H_{18}): there is a relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the application of a training for transformation model.

The descriptive statistics and frequency distribution results are highlighted in Table 7.32.

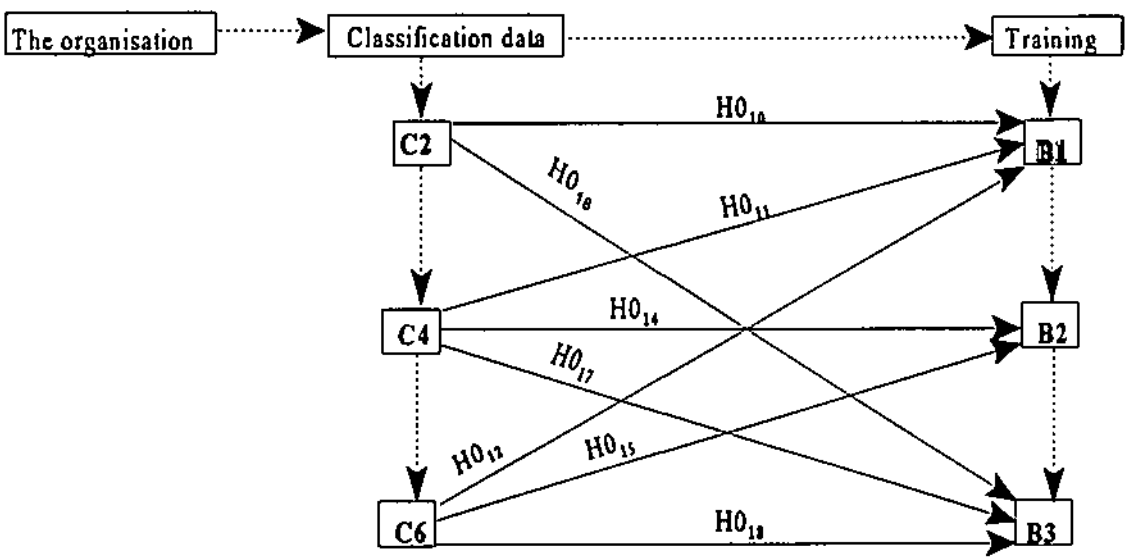
Table 7.32: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Application of a Training for Transformation Model and the Independent Variables

NO	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
C2	No. of employees	<200	36	3.65	0.92	3.56
		200-400	72	3.76	0.66	3.44
		500+	69	3.42	0.88	4.00
C4	Training dept.	Yes	117	3.80	0.74	3.89
		No	60	3.24	0.84	4.00
C6	Environment	Static	15	2.70	0.93	3.11
		Moderate	68	3.49	0.76	4.00
		Dynamic	94	3.83	0.72	3.22

The difference in mean values indicates that medium sized organisations obtained the highest mean value (3.76) and that the lowest standard deviation (0.66) and range (3.44) is also indicated by medium sized organisations. Those organisations which have a fully developed training department obtained the highest mean value (3.80), which differs by 0.56 from organisations which do not have a fully developed training department, and shows the least variability in scores (0.74) and lowest range (3.89). Organisations operating in a dynamic environment obtained the highest mean value (3.83) and showed the least variability in scores (0.72) and a lowest range

(3.22). The difference in mean values clearly shows a relationship between the independent variables and the application of a training for transformation model. Figure 7.22 illustrates the relationship between the independent variables (Section C) and the dependent variables (Section B) and which of the null hypotheses are rejected.

Figure 7.22: A Summary of the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Classification Data) and the Dependent Variables (Training in the Organisation)



The relationship between the classification data (C2, C4 and C6) and training in the organisation is shown in Figure 7.22. All independent variables (C2, C4 and C6) show a relationship with the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change (B1). The null hypotheses, $H0_{10}$, $H0_{11}$ and $H0_{12}$, can therefore be rejected. The role of training in managing organisational change (B2) shows relationships with the existence of a training department (C4) and the type of environment (C6) in which an organisation operates ($H0_{14}$ and $H0_{15}$ are rejected). With regard to the application of a training for transformation model (B3), relationships are indicated with the number of employees (C2), the existence of a training department (C4) and the type of environment (C6) in which an organisation operates. $H0_{16}$, $H0_{17}$ and $H0_{18}$ are therefore

rejected. It is clearly illustrated that there are relationships between the independent variables (classification data) and all the dependent variables (training in the organisation). Table 7.33 provides a summary of the non-rejection and rejection of the null hypotheses, based on Section A and B (dependent variables) and Section C (independent variables).

Table 7.33: A Summary of the Non-rejection and Rejection of the Null Hypotheses: Section A and B (Dependent Variables) and Section C (Independent Variables)

NULL HYPOTHESIS NOT REJECTED	NULL HYPOTHESIS REJECTED	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL (ALPHA)	ACCEPTANCE OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS
$H0_1$		0.05	
	$H0_2$	0.01	H_2
	$H0_3$	0.01	H_3
$H0_4$		0.05	
	$H0_5$	0.01	H_5
	$H0_6$	0.01	H_6
$H0_7$		0.05	
	$H0_8$	0.01	H_8
	$H0_9$	0.01	H_9
	$H0_{10}$	0.05	H_{10}
	$H0_{11}$	0.01	H_{11}
	$H0_{12}$	0.01	H_{12}
$H0_{13}$		0.05	
	$H0_{14}$	0.01	H_{14}
	$H0_{15}$	0.01	H_{15}
	$H0_{16}$	0.01	H_{16}
	$H0_{17}$	0.01	H_{17}
	$H0_{18}$	0.01	H_{18}

Table 7.33 indicates that most of the stated null hypotheses can be rejected. Only $H0_1$, $H0_4$, $H0_7$ and $H0_{13}$ can not be rejected at a significance level of 0.05. All other null hypotheses are rejected at a highly significance level of 0.01, with the exception of $H0_{10}$ which is rejected at the 0.05 level of significance and the corresponding research hypotheses are accepted. This implies that there is a strong relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

7.4.7 Tests to Investigate the Relationship Between Organisational Change (Section A) and Training in the Organisation (Section B)

The aim of this section is to investigate the relationship between training (independent variable) and organisational change (dependent variable). The extent and significance of these relationships is determined by means of three types of analysis: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, Chi-Square test and ANOVA. The results of these analyses are outlined in the following sections.

According to Startup and Whittaker (1982:154), the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (notation is *r*) assesses or measures the degree of association or relationship between two variables and varies between -1 (perfect negative correlation) and +1 (perfect positive correlation). The correlation coefficient indicates the magnitude or strength of the relationship and the direction of the relationship (presence or absence of a minus sign) in a single value. Table 7.34 highlights the correlation matrix of the variables or factors used in the study.

Table 7.34: Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients: Section A and B of the Questionnaire

VARIABLE / FACTOR	A1	A2	A3	B1	B2	B3
A1	1.0000					
A2	0.8620	1.0000				
A3	0.7840	0.8727	1.0000			
B1	0.5920	0.6867	0.7410	1.0000		
B2	0.5734	0.6733	0.7258	0.8394	1.0000	
B3	0.5256	0.5799	0.6146	0.7452	0.7683	1.0000

A1= Organisational development

A2= The learning organisation

A3= Transformational leadership

B1= The facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change

B2= The role of training in managing organisational change

B3= The application of a training for transformation model

In analysing the *r*-values of the correlation matrix in Table 7.34, the critical value used to interpret these *r*-values, at a significance level of 0.01, is 0.1720 for a sample size of 182. The interpretation of Person's *r* begins by noting that the relationships are positive (as determined by the sign of the calculated values). A positive *r* describes a positive relationship. All the calculated values of *r* are greater than the critical value ($r > 0.1720$) which indicates that the relationship between the variables is statistically highly significant. It is clearly shown in Table 7.34 that there is a strong positive correlation or association between the variables. The strongest positive relationship (0.8727) is between the learning organisation (A2) and transformational leadership (A3). The weakest relationship (0.5256) is between organisational development (A1) and the application of a training for transformation model (B3). The dependent variables are also strongly positively correlated. The *r*- value of the relationship between A2 and A1 is 0.8620, between A3

and A1 is 0.7840 and between A3 and A2 is 0.08727. Based on these correlation results, the stated null hypotheses, $H0_{19}$ to $H0_{27}$ can be rejected at an alpha level of 0.01. Highly significant relationships exist between the independent variables (training) and the dependent variables (organisational change).

According to Hays (1994:351), the Chi-square test (denoted χ^2) is a right skewed distribution representing the square of variances which involves a comparison between an observed number of frequencies and an expected number of frequencies, based on a theoretical distribution or hypothesis to be tested. Bless and Kathuria (1993:185) refer to this test as a non-parametric statistical procedure (distribution-free test) which analyses data without assumptions about the distribution. The critical value used to interpret the calculated Chi-square values is 13.277 at a significance level of 0.01 and four degrees of freedom ($\chi^2_{4,0.01}$). The decision rule is: if $\chi^2 >$ 13.277, then the null hypothesis is rejected. The grouping categories used in all the analyses, based on the five-point scale, are: negative (intervals 1 to 2.6); neutral (intervals 2.6 to 3.4) and positive (intervals 3.4 to 5). The Chi-square statistics and frequency distribution results are presented in Tables 7.35 - 7.37.

Table 7.35: Chi-Square Frequency Distribution Results and Test Statistics: The Relationship Between the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change and the Independent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE		NEGATIVE -		NEUTRAL N		POSITIVE +		DEPENDENT VARIABLE	CHI-SQUARE STATISTIC
		N	%	N	%	N	%		
B1	-	8	32	11	44	6	24	A1	44.823
	N	22	44	18	36	10	20		
	+	12	11	20	19	75	70		
B1	-	16	64	5	20	4	16	A2	66.500
	N	25	50	18	36	7	14		
	+	8	8	27	25	72	67		
B1	-	19	76	4	16	2	8	A3	85.724
	N	25	50	20	40	5	10		
	+	7	7	27	25	73	68		

Table 7.35 highlights the contingency table, which also shows the Chi-square test results for the relationship between the facilitating role of training (B1) and the application of organisational development (A1), the learning organisation (A2) and transformational leadership (A3). If the null hypotheses are true, the probability of observing $\chi^2_{4,01}$ values greater than 13.277 is less than 0.01. Since the Chi-square values greatly exceed the critical value, the null hypothesis of independence between the facilitating role of training and organisational development ($H0_{19}$), the learning organisation ($H0_{22}$) and transformational leadership ($H0_{25}$) is rejected at the highly significance level of 0.01.

Analysis of the frequency distribution results show that those respondents who are positive about B1, are also significantly more positive about organisational development (A1) than the negative and neutral B1 groups. Although the positive B1 group indicates the highest positive frequency towards the learning organisation (A2), the negative and neutral B1 groups is more negative about A2. Respondents who are positive about B1 are also more positive about transformational leadership (A3). The negative and neutral B1 groups show more negative perceptions about A3.

Table 7.36: Chi-Square Frequency Distribution Results and Test Statistics: The Relationship Between the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change and the Independent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE		NEGATIVE - N	%	NEUTRAL N N	%	POSITIVE + N	%	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	CHI-SQUARE STATISTIC
B2	-	11	52	6	29	4	19	A1	24.103
	N	13	27	19	38	17	35		
	+	18	16	24	21	70	63		
B2	-	15	71	4	19	2	10	A2	47.671
	N	19	39	19	39	11	22		
	+	15	13	27	24	70	63		
B2	-	18	86	1	5	2	9	A3	61.203
	N	20	41	18	37	11	22		
	+	13	11	32	29	67	60		

The Chi-square statistics in Table 7.36 indicate whether the null hypotheses of no significant difference can be rejected or not. With the obtained $\chi^2_{4,0.01}$ values of 24.103; 47.671 and 61.203 being larger than 13.277, highly significance at the 0.01 alpha level can be reported. The null hypotheses, $H0_{20}$, $H0_{23}$ and $H0_{26}$, can be rejected ($\chi^2 > 13.277$). There is a highly significant relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership.

The frequency distributions, outlined in Table 7.36, shows that the positive B2 group is also more positive about A1 than the negative and neutral groups. Respondents who have negative and neutral perceptions about B2 are also more negative and neutral towards A1. The relationship between B2 and A2 indicates the following: the positive B2 group is significantly more positive about A2, while the negative and neutral B2 groups are more negative about A2. The respondents who are positive about B2 are more inclined to be positive about A3 than those who are negative or neutral. The negative and neutral B2 groups are also more negative towards A3.

Table 7.37: Chi-Square Frequency Distribution Results and Tests Statistics: The Relationship Between the Application of a Training for Transformation Model and the Independent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE		NEGATIVE -		NEUTRAL N		POSITIVE +		DEPENDENT VARIABLE	CHI-SQUARE STATISTIC
		N	%	N	%	N	%		
B3	-	10	48	8	38	3	14	A1	23.561
	N	13	28	17	37	16	35		
	+	19	16	24	21	72	63		
B3	-	14	67	5	24	2	9	A2	36.106
	N	16	35	18	39	12	26		
	+	19	16	27	24	69	60		
B3	-	15	71	4	19	2	10	A3	36.654
	N	17	37	17	37	12	26		
	+	19	17	30	26	66	57		

The significant relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership are highlighted by the calculated Chi-square statistics in Table 7.37. These calculated values exceed the critical value of 13.277. The null hypotheses of independence between the application of a training for transformation model and the building blocks of change ($H0_{21}$, $H0_{24}$ and $H0_{27}$) can be rejected at a highly significance level of 0.01. There seems to be a strong association between the application of a training for transformation model and the dependent variables.

The frequency distribution in Table 7.37 shows that the positive B3 group is significantly more positive about organisational development (A1) compared to those respondents who are negative and neutral. The negative B3 group is more negative on A1 and the neutral B3 group is more neutral on A1. The relationship between the independent variable (B3) and the learning organisation reveals the following: the positive B3 group is more positive on A2 than the negative and neutral groups. Respondents who are negative about B3 are also more negative about A2 and those who are neutral about B3 tend to be more neutral about A2. Respondents who have

positive perceptions about B3, are more positive about transformational leadership than those who are negative and neutral. Negative and neutral perceptions about B3 seem to correspond with negative and neutral perceptions about A3 respectively.

It appears that there is a relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables. Respondents who have certain perceptions about training, being positive, neutral or negative, tend to have the same perceptions about organisational change. Table 7.38 provides a summary of the correlation and Chi-square results which highlights the relationship between training (independent variable) and organisational change (dependent variable).

Table 7.38: A Summary of the Correlation and Chi-Square Results: Relationships Between Training (Independent Variable) and Organisational Change (Dependent Variable)

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT	CHI-SQUARE VALUE	HYPOTHESES OF INDEPENDENCE REJECTED
B1	A1	0.5920	44.823	$H0_{19}$
B1	A2	0.6867	66.500	$H0_{22}$
B1	A3	0.7410	85.724	$H0_{25}$
B2	A1	0.5734	24.013	$H0_{20}$
B2	A2	0.6733	47.671	$H0_{23}$
B2	A3	0.7258	61.203	$H0_{26}$
B3	A1	0.5256	23.561	$H0_{21}$
B3	A2	0.5799	36.106	$H0_{24}$
B3	A3	0.6146	36.654	$H0_{27}$

The correlation coeffients in Table 7.38 show that these *r*-values exceed the critical value of 0.1720, indicating strong positive relationships at a significance level of 0.01. The calculated χ^2 values, at four degrees of freedom and a significance level of 0.01, also shows that the critical value of 13.277 is exceeded in all indicated relationships. The hypotheses of independence or no

significance ($H0_{19}$ to $H0_{27}$) are rejected in all cases. It can be deduced that there are highly significant relationships between training and organisational change.

The further analysis of variance results, the testing of hypotheses and frequency distributions, is outlined in the subsequent sections. Section A of the questionnaire is used as the dependent variable and Section B as the independent variable.

7.4.8 Analysis of Variance for Organisational Development and the Independent Variables (Section B)

This section analyses the relationship between the independent variable (training) and the dependent variable, namely, change (organisational development). It is determined whether these independent variables are related to organisational development. The results of the analysis of variance tests, used to investigate these relationships, are given in Table 7.39.

Table 7.39: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Organisational Development

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
B1	38.1179	2 , 179	19.0589	40.24	0.0000**
B2	23.3714	2 , 179	11.6857	21.02	0.0000**
B3	21.8302	2 , 179	10.9151	19.33	0.0000**

** Significance level of 0.01

The ANOVA results in Table 7.40 shows that the dependent variable, organisational development, has certain relationships with the independent variables. The $F_{2,179}$ statistic of 40.24 and the P-value of 0.0000 indicates that there is a highly significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) between the facilitating role of training and the application of organisational development. Based on this

analysis, $H0_{19}$ can be rejected and the research hypothesis; H_{19}, can be accepted. There is a relationship between the facilitating role of training and the application of organisational development. The $F_{2, 179}$ value of 21.02 and the P-value of 0.0000 proves that the null hypothesis, $H0_{20}$, can be rejected ($p < 0.01$). There is a relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and organisational development. $H0_{21}$ falls within the rejection region: $F_{2, 179}$ equals 19.33 and the P-value is 0.0000. There is a relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and organisational development. Steyn et al., (1994:517) postulates that if significant differences between mean values are found, Sheffé's test can be used to identify where the differences occur. Table 7.40 shows the individual group differences in respect of B1 and the dependent variables.

Table 7.40: Results of Scheffé's Test: Individual Group Differences Between the Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change (B1) and the Dependent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE FOLLOWING GROUPS:
B1	A1	0.01 0.01	Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive
	A2	0.01 0.01	Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive
	A3	0.01 0.01	Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive

The results of Scheffé's test in Table 7.40 shows that for the relationship between B1 and the dependent variables, there are highly significant differences in mean values between the negative and positive and neutral and positive groups. There are no significant differences between the negative and neutral groups.

Table 7.41 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution of the ANOVA results.

Table 7.41: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Organisational Development and the Independent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
B1	Negative	25	2.81	0.75	2.90
	Neutral	50	2.82	0.72	2.90
	Positive	107	3.74	0.66	2.70
B2	Negative	21	2.55	0.77	2.90
	Neutral	49	3.13	0.77	2.90
	Positive	112	3.61	0.73	3.20
B3	Negative	21	2.62	0.70	2.60
	Neutral	46	3.09	0.74	2.50
	Positive	115	3.60	0.76	3.20

The difference in mean values of the perceptions regarding the facilitating role of training in the application of organisational development indicate that the highest mean value (3.74) occurs among respondents with positive perceptions (which also has the lowest standard deviation and range). These differences in mean values show that $H0_{19}$ can be rejected. Positive perceptions regarding the relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and organisational development obtained the highest mean value (3.61) and lowest standard deviation (0.73). Difference in mean values shows that there are positive perceptions regarding the relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and organisational development (shows the highest mean value of 3.60). It appears that most respondents have positive perceptions about the relationship between organisational development and the independent variables.

7.4.9 Analysis of Variance for the Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables (Section B)

The ANOVA results, which indicate the relationship between the independent variables and the learning organisation, are highlighted in this section. The relationship between the independent variables and the learning organisation is outlined and presented in Table 7.42.

Table 7.42: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and the Learning Organisation

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
B1	50.5434	2 , 179	25.2717	57.83	0.0000**
B2	37.1508	2 , 179	18.5754	36.29	0.0000**
B3	28.8985	2 , 179	14.4492	25.90	0.0000**

** Significance level of 0.01

From Table 7.42 it can be deduced what the relationship is between the learning organisation and the independent variables. The $F_{2,179}$ value of 57.83 and the P-value of 0.0000 shows that the null hypothesis, $H0_{22}$, can be rejected ($p < 0.01$). H_{22} can therefore be accepted: the facilitating role of training is related to the learning organisation. The null hypothesis, $H0_{23}$, falls within the rejection region ($p < 0.01$) and suggests that H_{23} can be accepted. There is a relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and the learning organisation. The calculated $F_{2,179}$ value of 25.90 and the P-value of 0.0000 indicates that $H0_{24}$ can be rejected at the 0.01 level of significance. There is a highly significant relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and the learning organisation. The rejection of the null hypotheses, $H0_{22}$, $H0_{23}$ and $H0_{24}$ assumes that there is a relationship between the learning organisation and the independent variables. Table 7.43 indicates the results of Scheffé's test.

Table 7.43: Results of Scheffé's Test: Individual Group Differences Between the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change (B2) and the Dependent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE FOLLOWING GROUPS:
B2	A1	0.05 0.01 0.01	Negative + Neutral Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive
	A2	0.01 0.01 0.01	Negative + Neutral Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive
	A3	0.01 0.01 0.01	Negative + Neutral Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive

According to Scheffé's test, individual group differences, in respect of B2 and the dependent variables, are indicated by all groups at a highly significant level of 0.01, exept for the negative and neutral group of B2 and A1 (0.05 level of significance). It is therefore confirmed that there are significant differences in mean values between the various groups.

Table 7.44 shows the descriptive statistics and frequency distributions of the ANOVA results.

Table 7.44: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: The Learning Organisation and the Independent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
B1	Negative	25	2.57	0.73	3.93
	Neutral	70	2.74	0.63	2.89
	Positive	107	3.75	0.66	2.87
B2	Negative	21	2.35	0.66	2.93
	Neutral	49	2.97	0.68	2.87
	Positive	112	3.64	0.74	3.27
B3	Negative	21	2.45	0.66	2.60
	Neutral	46	3.01	0.74	3.00
	Positive	115	3.59	0.76	3.00

The high difference in mean values regarding the perceptions of the relationship between the facilitating role of training and the learning organisation, supports the rejection of $H0_{22}$. Positive perceptions regarding this relationship obtained the highest mean value (3.75) and lowest range (2.87). The rejection of $H0_{23}$ is supported by the difference in mean values regarding the perceptions of the relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and the learning organisation (positive perceptions obtained the highest mean value of 3.64). With regard to the relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and the learning organisation, the highest mean value (3.59) is indicated by positive perceptions. Difference in mean values indicates that $H0_{24}$ can be rejected and there is significant relationships between the application of a training for transformation model and the learning organisation.

7.4.10 Analysis of Variance for Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables (Section B)

The relationship between transformational leadership and the independent variables is investigated in this section. An analysis of variance which quantifies these relationships is given in Table 7.45.

Table 7.45: Analysis of Variance Results to Investigate the Relationship Between the Independent Variables and Transformational Leadership

VARIABLE	SUM OF SQUARES	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	MEAN SQUARE	F-TEST	P-VALUE
B1	57.3139	2 , 179	28.6569	68.24	0.0000**
B2	41.6017	2 , 179	20.8008	40.97	0.0000**
B3	33.0766	2 , 179	16.5383	29.78	0.0000**

** Significance level of 0.01

The results in Table 7.45 outline the relationship between transformational leadership and the independent variables. The high $F_{2,179}$ value of 68.24 and the P-value of 0.0000 indicates that $H0_{25}$ can be rejected at a significance level of 0.01 and the research hypothesis (H_{25}) can be accepted. The facilitating role of training is related to transformational leadership. The calculated $F_{2,175}$ statistic of 40.97 and the P-value of 0.0000 supports the rejection of $H0_{26}$ ($p < 0.01$) and the acceptance of H_{26}. There is a relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and transformational leadership. $F_{2,179}$ of 29.78 and the P-value of 0.0000 rejects the null hypothesis, $H0_{27}$ ($p < 0.01$). There is a highly significant relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and transformational leadership. Table 7.46 shows the result of Scheffé's test with regard to individual group differences in respect of B3 and the dependent variables.

Table 7.46: Results of Scheffé's Test: Individual Group Differences Between the Application of a Training for Transformation Model (B3) and the Dependent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE FOLLOWING GROUPS:
B3	A1	0.01 0.01	Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive
	A2	0.05 0.01 0.01	Negative + Neutral Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive
	A3	0.01 0.01 0.01	Negative + Neutral Negative + Positive Neutral + Positive

Table 7.46 clearly indicates that difference in mean values exist between all groups, except for B3 and A1 (differences between negative and positive groups and neutral and positive groups only). Highly significant differences in mean values are shown for all groups, except for the negative and positive group of B3 and A2 (mean values differs significantly).

Table 7.47 provides the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution results of the above relationships.

Table 7.47: A Summary of the Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Distribution of the ANOVA Results: Transformational Leadership and the Independent Variables

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	GROUPING LEVEL	COUNT	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	RANGE
B1	Negative	25	2.40	0.57	2.27
	Neutral	50	2.65	0.65	2.67
	Positive	107	3.69	0.66	3.20
B2	Negative	21	2.20	0.64	2.47
	Neutral	49	2.88	0.68	2.53
	Positive	112	3.57	0.74	3.20
B3	Negative	21	2.30	0.63	2.60
	Neutral	46	2.91	0.70	2.67
	Positive	115	3.53	0.78	3.27

Difference in mean values of up to 1.29 regarding the perceptions of the relationship between the facilitating role of training and transformational leadership, supports the rejection of $H0_{25}$. The highest mean value (3.69) is indicated by positive perceptions. In analysing the mean values of the perceptions regarding the relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and transformational leadership, positive perceptions obtained the highest mean value (3.57). This difference in mean values indicates that $H0_{26}$ can be rejected. Positive perceptions about the relationship between the application of a training for transformation model and transformational leadership, shows the highest mean value (3.53) and the difference in mean values shows that $H0_{27}$ can be rejected. It appears that there are significant relationships between transformational leadership and the independent variables.

Figure 7.23 illustrates the relationship between the independent variables (Section B) and the dependent variables (Section B) and the rejection of the null hypotheses.

Figure 7.23: A Summary of the Relationship Between the Independent Variables (Training in the Organisation) and the Dependent Variables (Organisational Change)

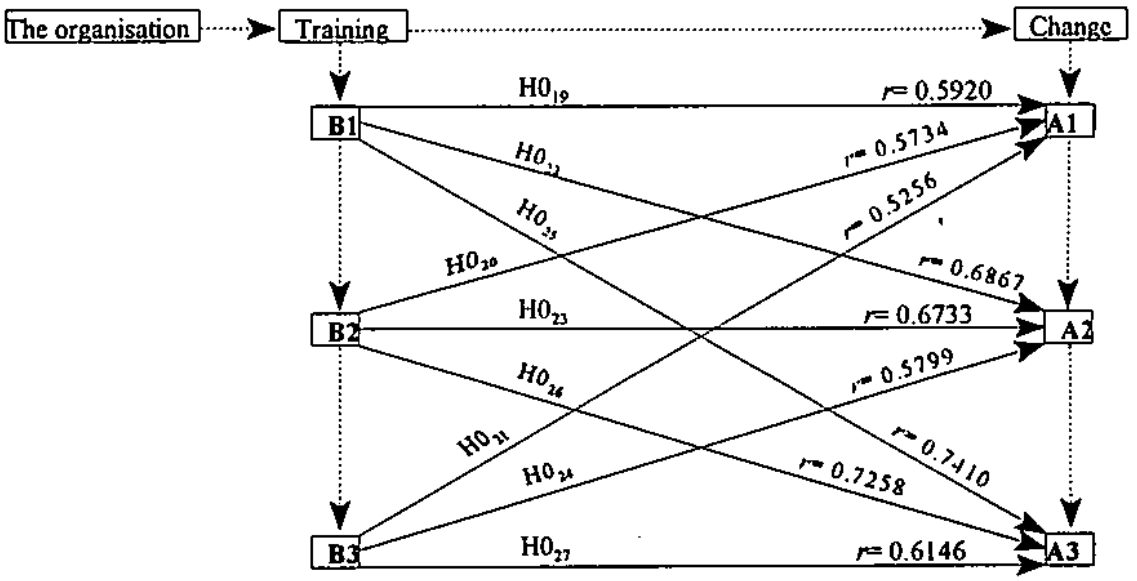


Figure 7.23 shows the relationships between the independent variables of training (B1, B2 and B3) and dependent variables of organisational change (A1, A2 and A3) as well as the rejection of the null hypoteses and correlation coefficients. The role of training in the appliaction of the building blocks of change (B1), the role of training in managing organisational change (B2) and the appliaction of a training for transformation model (B3) all show clear relationships with organisational development (A1), the learning organisation (A2) and transformational leadership (A3). All the null hypothses, $H0_{19}$ to $H0_{27}$, are rejected, indicating the relationship between these variables. Strong positive correlations are also indicated by the *r*-values. Table 7.48 provides a summary of the rejection of the null hypotheses, based on the relationship between training (independent variable) and organisational change (dependent variable).

Table 7.48: A Summary of the Rejection of the Null Hypotheses: Training (Independent Variables) and Organisational Change (Dependent Variables)

NULL HYPOTHESES REJECTED	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL (ALPHA)	ACCEPTANCE OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES
$H0_{19}$	0.01	H_{19}
$H0_{20}$	0.01	H_{20}
$H0_{21}$	0.01	H_{21}
$H0_{22}$	0.01	H_{22}
$H0_{23}$	0.01	H_{23}
$H0_{24}$	0.01	H_{24}
$H0_{25}$	0.01	H_{25}
$H0_{26}$	0.01	H_{26}
$H0_{27}$	0.01	H_{27}

Table 7.48 shows that all the null hypotheses (H_{19} to $H0_{27}$) can be rejected at a highly significance level of 0.01. There appears to be highly significant relationships between the independent variables (training) and organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership. The rejection of these null hypotheses and acceptance of the research hypotheses, indicate highly significant relationships between training and organisational change.

7.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of the most important statistical techniques used to present the results in a meaningful manner in order to realise the research objectives and test hypotheses. A preliminary data analysis was conducted to summerise the data and to make adequate interpretations. This was done by means of frequency distributions and decriptive statistics. Measures of central tendency (mean and median), measure of position (quartile) and measure of

dispersion or variability (standard deviation) were used. These descriptive statistics were given for all three sections of the questionnaire.

A factor analysis was conducted, using Principle Component Analysis with Direct Quartimin Oblique rotation (Progrmme 4 of the BMDP statistical software package). To confirm that all items load on a single factor and to explain the percentage of variance, Cronbach's alpha was calculated. A total of three factors were identified for Section A of the questionnaire and a total of three factors for Section B. All factors can be regarded as being internally reliable (Cronbach's alpha > 0.07).

The last part of this chapter dealt with the search for relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Firstly, the relationship between the classification data (independent variables) and training and change (dependent variables) was investigated by means of analysis of variance. Testing of the null hypotheses was done, based on these results. It was indicated that there are highly significant relationships between these variables.

Secondly, the relationship between training (independent variable) and organisational change (dependent variable) was investigated. This was done by means of Pearson product moment correlation coefficients, Chi-square statistics and ANOVA. All the calculated *r*-values were greater than the critical value of 0.1720 (indicating strong positive correlations). With regard to the Chi-square statistics, all calculated χ^2 values were greater than 13.277 at a sigificant level of 0.01 (indicating the rejection of the hypotheses of independence). Based on the ANOVA results, all of the null hypotheses are rejected. It appears that there are significant relationships between training and organisational change.

Chapter 8 highlights the most important conclusions and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 SUMMARY

The accelerating rate of change is producing a world in which customary managerial habits and organisational practices are becoming increasingly inadequate. These changes are so fundamental, transforming just about every aspect of life. Every organisation should, however, respond to it's continually changing environment. This complex situation requires that managers and employees be trained in a variety of skills. The training needs of an organisation should explain why an organisation wishes to change. Organisations are not automatically attracted to new ideas and practices and quite often the reaction is to revert to habits and practices found to be successful in the past. The buzzword in corporate circles is transformation, but how should it be handled? It is proposed that training could serve as a mechanism to facilitate organisational transformation. Training for transformation should take place through organisational development, in a learning organisation, by means of transformational leadership.

The interactive role between training and organisational change was investigated in the following manner:

* An analysis of the role and function of training in an organisational context was given.
* The nature, extent and role of organisational transformation was highlighted.
* The facilitating role of training in organisational transformation was outlined.
* A model of training for transformation was developed.

To accomplish the main objective and secondary goals of the organisation, both primary and secondary research was required. The research process followed is outlined in the subsequent paragraphs.

Chapter 2 provided a brief overview of training by means of analysing training in a historical context, highlighting important training trends and issues, statutory institutions and legislation,

reasons and benefits of training, training's relationship with learning and the aspect of strategic training management.

Chapter 3 highlighted the training process. A systems model of the training process was developed which consists of the following components: analysing the training environment, establishing training premises, data gathering and diagnosis (execution of an organisational, task and person analysis), identifying training needs, setting of training objectives, attending to pre-training programme design aspects, designing of a training programme, implementing the training programme, maintenance of training, data gathering and diagnosis (assessing effectiveness of training) and continuous feedback.

Management of change within an organisational perspective was outlined in Chapter 4. The following aspects were discussed: nature of change, theoretical foundations of change, reasons for organisational change, preparing for change, areas of organisational change, change strategies, resistance to change, coping with change, dangers and pitfalls in organisational change, change agent and a model for organisational change.

Chapter 5 provided an interaction analysis of training and transformation. The composition of training and transformation interaction (organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership) was outlined, the role of training in managing organisational change was highlighted, the interaction of training and transformation in practice was investigated by means of three case studies and a model of training for transformation was developed.

Chapter 6 outlined the scope and methodology of the empirical process. The research approach and research design (sample and survey) were discussed.

Chapter 7 provided the results of the survey. The interactive role between training and organisational change was empirically assessed by means of statistical procedures such as descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlations, Chi-square and analysis of variance procedures.

The following section highlights the most important conclusions drawn from the study.

8.2 FINAL CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the interactive role between training and organisational change. A literature study was made and a sample of South African organisations were surveyed to analyse the relationship between training and organisational change.

8.2.1 Conclusions Drawn From the Literature Study: Training

Literature reveals various definitions of the concepts "training" and "transformation". For the purpose of this study, training in an organisational context was viewed as a learning process which changes the individual's skills, knowledge and attitudes and contributes to organisational and individual goals. Three components of training were identified: learning, education and development.

Historically, the roots of training can be traced back to more than 6000 years ago when people used brick and clay to build - which could not have been accomplished without some form of training and transfer of knowledge. The development of training as a profession, during this century, has been influenced by behavioural scientists. Various international developments in training were highlighted. It appears that the historical development of South Africa's labour force and training practices are not well documented. The most important trends and issues in training were outlined. It is important to understand the changing picture of the world in which organisations operate as this provides the context in which to consider the future of training. Continuous, fast learning is an important weapon for competition and to satisfy customers, and the development of people is a continuous challenge. Training should therefore position itself as a strategic tool that links training to organisational strategy.

The body of legislative matter which bears upon the field of training is wide. Various state institutions and legislation are involved with training in South Africa to some extent (eg. Department of Labour, National Training Board and Manpower Training Act). Analysis of the reasons and benefits of training indicates that training is a necessity and not a luxury. A checklist

of reasons for training indicated the crucial role of training in facilitating changes in the organisation. The prime benefits of training are it's contribution in achieving organisational objectives and the long-term strategic role of training.

Understanding learning theories and principles is essential for the design, development and evaluation of effective training programmes. Various learning theories, fundamentally important to those involved in training, were highlighted. Behavioural and cognitive theories and the role of shaping were outlined. An overview of these theories provides a theoretical foundation for the identification of principles of learning and training design. In order to promote efficient learning and long-term retention, training programmes should incorporate principles of learning. Various learning principles were highlighted. The meaningful application of these learning principles is essential if the trainer wishes to be effective in the learning situation. In addition, the important aspect of a learning culture was discussed. The presence of a learning culture in the organisation is not indicated by the size of it's training budget, but is woven into the value and belief system of the organisation's members. Change should not be seen as a threat, but as an opportunity for learning and development. A learning culture should be created by managers and trainers within the organisation. Desired results of training are generally achieved in those organisations in which management demonstrates support for the transfer of training. Various actions need to be taken to instill a learning culture in the organisation.

The traditional role of training, which mainly focuses on past performance, data and competencies, should reorientate to a strategic approach. Human resources planning needs to be incorporated into the organisation's strategic planning process. Success of training efforts is experienced if training is not only managed professionally, but also linked to the organisation's missions and goals. The human resources development strategy should be seen as an enabling strategy, which empowers management and subordinates to persue organisational goals through training, education and development.

The training of people is only a small part of the training process and involves considerable effort, both before and after the trainer and trainees are brought together. This training process is complex, involving a number of distinct and interrelated phases. A systems model of the training

process was developed. Three basic components (assessment, training and development and evaluation) were used as a foundation or framework within which a comprehensive training model was developed. This model consists of the following components:

* Analysing the training environment: various internal factors (eg. attitude of top management, organisational goals and culture and compensation structure) and external environmental factors (eg. economy, technology, government actions and social or cultural factors) need to be considered.
* Establishing training premises entails the development of a training philosophy and the setting of a training policy.
* Data gathering and diagnosis: identify organisational training needs, performance of a task analysis and execution of a knowledge, skills and attitude analysis.
* Identifying training needs: organisations need to critically and systematically determine training needs by means of an ongoing needs assessment process or strategy and by selecting the appropriate method(s).
* Setting of training objectives: training needs should be translated into training objectives or desired outcomes.
* Attending to pre-training programme design aspects: formulate a training budget, obtain instructional resources, selecting of trainees, determine the role of trainers, consider learning principles.
* Design the training programme: analyse constraints, identify learning content and sequence, facilitate the learning process, account for determinants of learning, select training methods and develop a lesson plan.
* Implementation of training: execute the sequenced learning content according to a selected instructional strategy or method.
* Maintenance of training: the learner should be able to maintain the transfer of training over a period of time.
* Data gathering and diagnosis: evaluate training or assess the effectiveness of training.
* Feedback: continuous feedback on all phases in the training process is vital.

8.2.2 Conclusions Drawn From the Literature Study: Organisational Change

Transformation is viewed as a forming over or restructuring of the organisation. It is an act which changes the entire organisation in form, appearance, character and disposition. Change, in it's broadest sense, means to become different by altering existing behaviour practices. The concepts of change and transformation were used interchangeably, because by describing the one term, the other term is being used. Although differing in scope and degree, change vocabulary appears to be broad and rich (eg. transition, converting, turnaround, modifying, altering etc.).

Every organisation and manager in the business environment is surrounded by change. The nature of change reveals that substantive modification to an existing organisation should take place. For an organisation to be successful, it must change continuously and change must become habit-forming. The earliest recorded writings on the nature of change are scattered over several centuries in the first millennium before Christ. Various aspects illustrating the nature of change were identified: change is universal, is happening more quickly, can be visible, is a process, can build and destroy, requires a paradigm shift and people make change successful. Managers and change agents need to understand the nature of organisational change in order to implement it successfully.

It appears that change management is not a distinct discipline with rigid and clearly defined boundaries. Three schools of thought, which form the core of change management theory, were highlighted. The individual perspective school argues that all behaviour is learned (behaviourist theory) and views learning as a process of gaining or changing insight, expectations and thought patterns (Gestalt-field theory). The group dynamics school postulates that, to bring about change, the focus must be at the group level, as it will be useless to concentrate on changing the behaviour of individuals. The open systems school states that a change in one part of a system will have an impact on the other parts of the system and it's overall performance.

The answer to the question as to why organisations find it necessary to change, highlights various internal and external forces. A variety of factors inside the organisation may cause change: different management policies and styles, new processes, procedures, worker relationships and

low productivity. The rapidly changing environment in which organisations operate creates continuous pressure for change: political, technological, economical, social and physical factors.

To survive in a complex and turbulent environment means learning to manage discontinuous change. Some ground rules were identified on how to prepare an organisation for change. Different perceptions of people, the involvement of all stakeholders to promote the legitimacy of change initiatives, the continuous renewing of organisational philosophy principles and the broadening of the ownership and management base are some important aspects to consider in preparing an organisation for change. The creation of a positive need for change and building support for change is crucial.

Areas of organisational change can involve virtually any part of an organisation. Most change interventions involve strategy (mission and goals), structure and design (job design, relationships, coordination and staff structures), technology (equipment, processes and control systems) and people (attitudes, skills and values).

Various approaches or strategies in dealing with change were outlined. Selection of a change strategy could be based on a strategic analysis of the situation (degree of fit with environment, urgency or availability of time and resistence or opposition to change), carefully defined processes for change supported by enabling conditions or by reducing the gap between strategies and actions. The management of change is complicated by the fact that change inevitably rarely benefits everyone. Resistance to change is therefore a reality which should be dealt with and could be categorised into five major types: psychological or personality (eg. habit, insecurity and fear of unknown), organisational (eg. threat to power and organisational structure), cultural (eg. values and beliefs), logical or rational (eg. bad timing, lack of skills and scarce resources) and social factors (eg. conflict and vested interests). Efforts to reduce the effect of resistance are vital for successful implementation of necessary changes.

Various guidelines and specific approaches or strategies designed to reduce resistance to change, and to help individuals to cope with change, were outlined. The two main strategies in dealing with change are: preventive coping (prevents change from being experienced as stressful and/or

try to build up resistance to stress) and combative coping (alleviates stress which is underway). A coping cycle was provided which consists of various stages: denial, defence, discarding, adaptation and internalisation. The importance of effective communication in helping individuals to cope with change is also crucial. The aspect of coping with resistance to change can also be dealt with by analysing two factors: organisational orientation (strategic and control factors) and environmental dimension (institutional and social focuses).

It is also important to consider some of the dangers and pitfalls which can be encountered by change efforts in the organisation. It should be realised that the change process goes through a series of phases which require a considerable length of time. The most important reasons for failure of transformation efforts were provided. Before embarking on a change programme, all possible pitfalls and dangers need to be identified. It was further indicated that, to effect change, the change agent can come from inside or outside the organisation. Strategic, systematic and planned change does not occur without the backing and full involvement of a change agent. Characteristics of a successful change agent demonstrate the important task and role of the change agent in bringing about organisational change.

A model for organisational change was developed which consists of 10 phases or steps:

* Develop a vision: articulate and describe the organisation's future state by formulating a mission, goals and objectives.
* Create dissatisfaction with the status quo: present people with unknown facts, take field trips and send people on seminars and workshops.
* Recognise the need for change: Is change really necessary?
* Appoint a change agent which could be a manager or any person from inside or outside the organisation.
* Diagnose relevant variables: What has brought the need for change?
* Select an appropriate change method which will satisfy the identified need for change.
* Develop plans for implementation: set goals to bridge the gap between the current situation and the vision.
* Implement the change programme by means of action plans.

* Communicate the change: keep all relevant stakeholders informed about the proposed change.
* Feedback and evaluation enable the change agent to detect progress and to adjust the course, if necessary.

Implementing effective organisational change should be seen as a long-term process and the model of change should be adapted for the situation so as to achieve optimum fit with the changing environment.

8.2.3 Conclusions Drawn From the Literature Study: Interaction Between Training and Organisational Change

It was found that organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership form the architecture or building blocks of the interaction between training and transformation. The typical slogan of a transforming organisation could be: *training for transformation through organisational development, in a learning organisation, by means of transformational leadership.*

Organisational development was viewed as the implementation of planned organisational change, aimed at improving the effectiveness with which an organisation functions and responds to change. The overall purpose is to enhance the functioning of the organisation, it's managers and employees, through planned renewal and continuous development. The capacity of the organisation to adapt more readily to environmental change is facilitated through organisational development. The organisational development process seeks to achieve change in such a manner that the organisation's members become more active and confident in maintaining organisational effectiveness. Various organisational development interventions can be used to facilitate planned change, such as survey feedback, sensitivity training, team building and quality of work-life programmes. Training can also be used to facilitate the implementation of organisational development. Sensitivity training is often viewed as an approach to individual training. Training can therefore be used as a planned managerial programme of individual and organisational growth.

Training programmes, utilising organisational development techniques, need to maximise the effectiveness of organisational training activities.

The importance of the learning organisation was highlighted by the fact that organisations of the future will not survive without becoming communities of learning. The way in which the organisation learns can be the key to innovation, profitability and competitiveness. The learning organisation continually expands it's capacity to create it's own future. It has the capacity to facilitate the learning of all its members and to continuously adapt and to change. It is important to understand the process and nature of learning in order to facilitate the learning and development of individual employees and, ultimately, the organisation itself. Organisational learning must equal or exceed the rate of change, otherwise the organisation will not survive. As a central activity, the process of transformation enables the learning organisation to search within and without for new ideas, problems and opportunities for learning. Building a learning organisation is, however, a challenge and requires action steps to bring it to life. Various developmental phases of the learning organisation were identified: foundation, formation, continuation, transformation and transfiguration. The inculcation of a lifelong learning culture in the organisation to encourage a continuous need for learning was stressed. Training furthermore plays an important role in the learning organisation. Training can be used as an approach to systematically incorporate learning in the organisation. It can prepare employees to meet the challenges and changes in the workplace and to upgrade and refine skills. Training programmes should maximise the balance between learning and doing and contribute to the development of the innovative capacity of the learning organisation.

It is indicated that the responsibility for orchestrating and sustaining the transformation of an organisation is vested in its leadership. During times of rapid and dramatic change, there is a need for transformational leadership. Transformational leaders can be viewed as visionary figures who can arouse intense emotions in followers, having the ability to lead organisations through times of major change. Typical characteristics of transformational leadership are: courage; outspokeness; belief in people; value-driven; lifelong learning; ability to deal with complexity and uncertainty, and vision. Strategic thinking skills and management development challenges facing transformational leaders were outlined. Transformational leaders need to exhibit specific

behaviours: charisma, inspirational leadership, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. For change to take place, there needs to be interaction between leader and follower behaviour and the situation. Transformational leadership can be learned and should be a subject of management training and development. Training can build the requisite skills for fulfilling leadership roles.

Training for change is vital for the long-term survival of the organisation. Increased emphasis is being placed on the need for continuous training to support change. The challenge of training and development, as a solution to both performance problems and mechanisms for change, is a reality. Like other strategic issues, management trainming needs to be managed in a volatile, constantly changing context. The developmental importance of training, as a function of organisational adaptation, was highlighted. Training can facilitate organisational change by responding to externally driven changes (shifts in strategic changes) and by internally developing and shaping appropriate competencies, practices and attitudes. Educating and training people beforehand can assist in understanding why change is necessary. It should be noted, however, that it is a myth that all training programmes are magic bullets which can transform people and organisations into being more productive.

The interaction of training and transformation in practice was investigated by means of a case study approach. Three case studies were analysed which highlighted the practical dynamics of organisational change and the role training had played in these transformations. Investment in human resources, by educating and training both management and the workforce in the techniques of quality improvement, is vital. Time and money to educate, train and retrain should be a priority. People should be educated to be agents for change in the organisation. Quality and training should receive strong support from top management, backed by financial resources to fund training and to compensate employees who have learned the necessary skills to continually improve performance. Managers realise that being successful requires greater anticipation of change and the capability to recognise the need for constant improvement. Only by being fully committed and by examining the barriers to learning, presented by current structures, systems and styles, can true progress be made. The process of organisational change should be linked to a learning model and activities should be planned accordingly. Given the inevitability of change,

organisations should provide opportunities for personal development, through the process of change. A long-term approach towards change is to build continuous improvement into the organisation's culture. Naturally occurring, continuous, change processes should be made implicit.

A training for transformation model was developed which consists of the following nine components:

* Analyse the environment: all internal and external factors which make the need for change inevitable must be identified.
* Establish training premises by developing a training philosophy towards change and setting a training policy.
* Data gathering and diagnosis: identify the variables which have brought the need for change.
* Identify training needs and objectives: identify the real need for change and translate it into a training need and objective.
* Attend to pre-training programme design aspects: determine a training budget (cost implication of proposed change), identify which employees or trainees need to change or improve knowledge, skills or attitudes and appoint a change agent or trainer.
* Design training programme: identify a training method which will facilitate the change.
* Implement the training programme to affect change.
* Maintain training: to make change possible, communicate why training is taking place.
* Data gathering and evaluation: establish whether training activities have met the need for change.

The implementation of these steps can be used to facilitate organisational change through training.

8.2.4 Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Organisational Change

(a) Organisational Development

The majority of respondents indicated agreement with the statements regarding organisational development. Respondents tend to disagree on not having strict, formal lines of authority in their respective organisations. It seems that in most of the researched organisations there are strict and formal lines of authority which is not conducive to organisational development. Encouragement of work teams in organisations is the aspect of organisational development which respondents agree on most. Overall, it seems that most respondents agree with all the statements which characterised organisational development. The extent to which organisational development techniques are implemented, indicated that 51% of the organisations surveyed do make use of some kind of organisational development technique. The most common types of organisational development techniques implemented by organisations are: team building, quality-of-work-life programmes, diversity/cultural training programmes, sensitivity training, survey feedback, life skills development and quality assurance programmes. A variety of other techniques, such as value chain analysis, vision workshops and business reengineering are used to a lesser extent.

(b) The Learning Organisation

Respondents tend to disagree slightly with regard to implementing flexible reward structures and using front-line members as environmental scanners. These two aspects concerning the learning organisation are not widely practised among the researched organisations. The aspect of the learning organisation which obtained the highest mean value was for the continual experimenting and improving of the organisations' capacity to deliver new goods and services to customers. Only 48% of respondents indicated agreement with the statements regarding the learning organisation.

(c) Transformational Leadership

Respondents tend to disagree slightly on the application of the following aspects regarding transformational leadership in researched organisations:

* View failures as learning experiences with a strong desire for continuous development.
* Take the unique needs and capabilities of followers into account.
* Have leaders who arouse intense emotions in followers.

Only 45% of respondents agree that the statements regarding transformational leadership are being implemented in their respective organisations. It appears that most respondents do not agree completely with the aspects of transformational leadership as practised in their organisations.

8.2.5 Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Training

(a) The Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change

Most of the respondents concur that training programmes maximise the balance between learning and doing in the organisation. The aspect of using training as the most widely approach for improving leadership in the organisation is the aspect on which respondents tend to differ most. Respondents are therefore of the opinion that in their respective organisations, training is not used to improve leadership. The majority of respondents, however, agree with the statements regarding the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change.

(b) The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Transformation

Results indicated that most respondents agree that upgrading of managerial capabilities is necessary in situations of rapid change. Respondents have different opinions regarding training

programmes that should respond to shifts in strategic action of the organisation. The majority agree with the aspects regarding the role of training in managing organisational transformation. It can be deduced that most of the researched organisations do implement the aspects mentioned and therefore use training as a mechanism to bring about transformation in the organisation.

(c) The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

Most respondents concur that in order to bring about change, the appropriate training method needs to be selected. The aspect of whether the training policy should explicitly emphasise the aspect of training for change obtained the lowest value. Respondents seem to be indifferent towards the application of a training philosophy and policy which enhances the capacity to adapt to change. The majority agrees with the statements that constitute a training for transformation model and that these elements are applied within an organisational context. Most respondents further indicated that attention is often given to pre-training programme design aspects.

8.2.6 Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Classification Data

(a) Main Activity

Most respondents are employed in organisations whose main activity is service-related (eg. communication, education and training, transport, postal and health). Although other sectors are also represented (such as manufacturing, finance and trade), most results are based on organisations in the service industry.

(b) Number of Employees

The majority of organisations which constitute the response group can be categorised as medium size (200-499 employees) and large organisations (500 and more employees). Results are therefore not based on organisations with a small number of employees which may not have training departments or who do not engage in large scale change activities.

(c) Annual Gross Revenue in Rand

Based on annual gross revenue in rand, the majority of organisations in the response group are from the higher income group (10 million rand and more). Disposable income of these organisations can therefore more likely be invested in human resource activities (training) and change initiatives.

(d) Existence of a Training Department

Although organisations (66%) have a fully developed training department, 34% indicated that training is not regarded as a separate function or department, but forms part of another department (eg. human resources). Some organisations therefore need to pay more attention to the role and place of training in the organisation.

(e) Organisational Structure: Post for a Change Agent

It should be noted that the majority of respondents (70%) indicated that their respective organisations do not have a specifically designated post for a change agent. It can be deduced that in most responding organisations, provision is not made for such a post and that management of change in the organisation is handled on a different basis by someone not specifically designated for this task (eg. managing director) or by an outside consultant.

(f) Type of Environment

The majority of participative organisations described the environments in which their organisations operate as dynamic. It can be concluded that most participating organisations are exposed to continuous changes and innovations which make their environments dynamic.

(g) Degree of Organisational Transformation

With regard to whether responding organisations are transformed, the following can be deduced:

* In terms of organisational politics, the majority of respondents (79%) viewed their organisations as transformed in respect of management and unionisation.
* The least transformed area seems to be that of economic transformation (53%). In almost half of responding organisations, too little attention has been given to aspects such as the provision of a wide range of quality products and services and catering for structural changes in consumer income.
* A moderate degree of transformation (66%) exists in terms of the use of the latest technology and processes and attention to research and development.
* The degree of transformation in the areas of dealing with diverse cultural values and social responsibility can be described as moderate (64%).

Although attempts have been made to transform organisations in the mentioned areas, there is still a long road ahead to complete the process of organisational transformation.

(h) Research Variables: Personal Viewpoints of Respondents

This variable in the questionnaire investigated the personal viewpoints of respondents, as training speciliast, in terms of the research variables and not necessarily the practice thereof in the responding organisations. It appears that most respondents (78%) regard organisational development as an important technique for bringing about planned renewal in the organisation and agree that the learning organisation can facilitate organisational change (77%). Only a few respondents (14%) indicated that transformational leadership is important during times of organisational change and 13% did not agree that training programmes should support the change strategies of the organisation. Almost 60% of the respondents agreed with the pace of organisational transformation in South Africa. Overall it appears that respondents have positive perceptions regarding the research variables tested in this study.

(i) Case Study Participation

Some respondents indicated their willingness to participate in the development of a South African case study with regard to training for transformation. This could be used as a data base for future research projects.

(j) Designation of Respondents

Although all respondents are registered with the South African Board for Personnel Practices, as training specialists, some are employed in other positions besides training. The majority, however, are currently employed as training, development and human resources managers and organisational development practitioners. These respondents were therefore in a position to provide hands-on knowledge and experience in terms of the research variables.

8.2.7 Conclusions Drawn From Factor Analysis

The reliability coefficients of Cronbach's alpha for the various factors were all above 0.70, which indicates that the factors are all internally reliable. The following factors were identified and used in the search for relationships:

* Organisational Change: organisational development, learning organisation and transformational leadership.
* Training: role of training in the application of the building blocks of change, role of training in managing organisational change and the application of a training for transformation model.

In terms of organisational change, it appears that most respondents are neutral or disagree to a certain extent with the items constituting the identified factors. With regard to training in the organisation, most respondents agree with the items constituting the identfied factors.

8.2.8 Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Relationship Between Organisational Change and the Independent Variables (Classification Data)

Statistical analysis was used to describe the relationships between organisational change and certain characteristics of the organisations (classification data). The conclusions drawn from these results are provided in the following paragraphs.

(a) Organisational Development

The following relationships between organisational development and the independent variables (number of employees, existence of a training department and type of environment) were identified:

* There is no relationship between the number of employees in an organisation and organisational development ($H0_1$ not rejected). The size of an organisation, based on the number of employees, is not related to the application of organisational development.
* There is a relationship between an organisation who has a fully developed training department and organisational development ($H0_2$ rejected). Organisations with a fully developed training department differ significantly from organisations without a training department, regarding the application of organisational development.
* The results showed that there is a highly significant relationship between the type of environment in which an organisation operates and organisational development ($H0_3$ rejected). Organisations operating in a dynamic environment, characterised by continuous change and innovation, differ from organisations operating in a static environment, regarding organisational development intervention.

(b) The Learning Organisation

Analysis of the results investigating the relationship between the learning organisation and the independent variables (classification data) produced the following conclusions:

* It appears that the size of an organisation, based on employment size, has no direct relationship with the learning organisation ($H0_4$ not rejected). Organisations with different employment sizes do not differ with regard to the facilitation of the learning organisation concept.
* There is a highly significant relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the learning organisation ($H0_5$ rejected). Those organisations which have a fully developed training department differ from those whose training activities resort under another function or department regarding the learning organisation.
* The type of environment in which an organisation operates is related to the learning organisation ($H0_6$ rejected). Organisations operating in dynamic environments (more inclined to learn and adapt to change) differ significantly from organisations operating in moderate or static environments regarding the learning organisation.

(c) Transformational Leadership

The relationship between transformational leadership and the independent variables (classification data) indicates the following:

* The number of employees (size of an organisation) is not related to transformational leadership ($H0_7$ cannot be rejected). Organisations with different employment sizes do not differ with regard to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership can therefore be universally applied across employment sizes of organisations.
* There is a highly significant relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and transformational leadership ($H0_8$ rejected). Organisations with a fully developed training department differ from organisations without such a department regarding transformational leadership.
* The type of environment in which an organisation operates is related to transformational leadership ($H0_9$ rejected). Organisations operating in a dynamic environment differ from those organisations whose environment is characterised by less change and innovation (static and moderate) regarding transformational leadership.

No relationships between the other independent variables (classification data) and organisational change was indicated.

8.2.9 Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Relationship Between Training and the Independent Variables (Classification Data)

Analysis of variance procedures were used to investigate the relationship between training in the organisation (dependent variables) and classification data (independent variables). The conclusions drawn from this analysis are provided in the following paragraphs.

(a) The Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change

Based on the results investigating the relationship between the application of the building blocks of change and the independent variables (employment size, existence of a training department and type of environment), the following conclusions can be drawn:

* There is a highly significant relationship between the employment size of an organisation and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change ($H0_{10}$ rejected). Organisations with different employment sizes differ with regard to the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change.
* The existence of a fully developed training department in an organisation is related to the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change ($H0_{11}$ rejected). Those organisations which do have a fully developed training department differ from those organisations who do not have such a training department regarding the facilitating role of training in the application of organisation development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership.

* Analysis of results showed that there is a relationship between the environment in which an organisation operates and the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change ($H0_{12}$ rejected). Organisations operating in a dynamic environment differ from organisations operating in a moderate or static environment regarding the facilitating role of training in the application of the building blocks of change.

(b) The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change

The following relationships between the independent variables (classification data), and the role of training in managing organisational change, were identified:

* It appears that the employment size of an organisation has no relationship with the role of training in managing organisational change ($H0_{13}$ not rejected). Organisations with different employment sizes do not differ with the regard to the role of training in managing organisational change.
* There is a highly significant relationship between an organisation which has a fully developed training department and the role of training in managing organisational change ($H0_{14}$ rejected). Organisations in which a fully developed training department exist, differ from those organisations in which training is not a fully developed function or department regarding the the role of training in managing organisational change.
* The type of environment in which an organisation operates is related to the role of training in managing organisational change ($H0_{15}$ rejected). Organisations operating in a dynamic environment differ from organisations operating in a moderate or static environment regarding the role of training in managing organisational change.

(c) The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

Analysis of results investigating the relationship between the independent variables and the application of a training for transformation model reveals the following conclusions:

* The number of employees (size of organisation) is related to the application of a training for transformation model ($H0_{16}$ rejected). Organisations with different employment sizes differ regarding the application of a training for transformation model.
* There is a relationship between the existence of a fully developed training department and the application of a training for transformation model ($H0_{17}$ rejected). Organisations with a fully developed training department differ from organisations in which there is no such a training department regarding the application of a training for transformation model.
* The type of environment in which an organisation operates is related to the application of a training for transformation model ($H0_{18}$ rejected). Organisations operating in different environments (eg. static opposed to dynamic) differ with regard to the application of a training for transformation model.

It appears that there are significant relationships between training in the organisation and the independent variables (classification data).

8.2.10 Conclusions Drawn From Empirical Research: Relationship Between Training and Organisational Change

Based on an analysis of the results, this section investigated the relationship between training (independent variables) and organisational change (dependent variables). Statistical procedures such as correlation coefficients, Chi-square and analysis of variance were used. Conclusions drawn from this analysis are highlighted in the following paragraphs.

(a) Organisational Development

The following conclusions can be identified with regard to the relationship between organisational development and training in the organisation (independent variables):

* The facilitating role of training is related to the application of organisational development in the organisation ($H0_{19}$ rejected). Training can therefore be used to facilitate the application of organisational development.
* There is a highly significant relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and organisational development ($H0_{20}$ rejected). Organisational development can be facilitated by management of organisational change.
* The results emphasised that the application of a training for transformation model is related to organisational development ($H0_{21}$ rejected). Organisational development can be facilitated by the application of a training for transformation model.

(b) The Learning Organisation

The following conclusions can be drawn from the relationship between the learning organisation and training (independent variables):

* The facilitating role of training is related to the learning organisation ($H0_{22}$ rejected). Training can therefore be used to facilitate the implementation of the learning organisation concept.
* There is a highly significant relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and the learning organisation ($H0_{23}$ rejected). In using training to manage organisational change, the learning organisation concept can be implemented.
* Analysis of results showed that the application of a training for transformation model is related to the learning organisation ($H0_{24}$ rejected). In using a training for transformation model, the learning organisation can be facilitated.

(c) Transformational Leadership

An analysis of the results investigating the relationship between transformational leadership and training (independent variables) indicated the following:

* The facilitating role of training is related to transformational leadership ($H0_{25}$ rejected). Training can therefore be used to implement transformational leadership.
* There is a highly significant relationship between the role of training in managing organisational change and transformational leadership ($H0_{26}$ rejected). In using training to manage organisational change, transformational leadership can be facilitated.
* It appears that the application of a training for transformation model is related to transformational leadership ($H0_{27}$ rejected). In applying such a training for transformation model, transformational leadership can be facilitated.

It is indicated that there are highly significant relationships between training and organisational change. Training can therefore be used to facilitate organisational transformation.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Based on an overview of the literature study and an analysis of the survey results, the most important recommendations and managerial implications are highlighted in this section.

8.3.1 Training in the Organisation

It is important for training practitioners in the organisation to have a sound knowledge of the historical development of the country's labour force and training practices, as this could enhance the effectiveness of specific aspects with regard to training in the organisation. This can ensure that the training function is used in the right context. Increased emphasis should be placed on understanding the changing picture of the world in which organisations operate, as this provides the context in which to consider the future of training management.

Continuous, rapid learning must become a priority for organisations in order to keep up with new methods, changing trends and advanced technology. In order to meet the new requirements of

the marketplace, training should undergo some kind of transformation. Specific attention should be paid to the following important directions in training:

* Focus on active and experiential learning (not rote and passive learning).
* Provide teacher-guided learning and training (not teacher-dependent).
* Emphasise a problem-solving and practical orientation (not textbook orientation).
* Focus on the empowerment of the individual.
* Emphasise the use of knowledge (not the acquisition of knowledge only).
* A shift to flexible training schedules (not rigid training programmes).

Purposeful attempts should be made to develop training programmes which are culturally sensitive. A focussed approach (as opposed to a fragmented and formalised approach) should view training as: a continuous learning process, a competitive weapon, self-selected and non-directive and a means to link organisational strategy and individual goals. Management should realise that employees see training as a right and not an amusing and interesting sideline.

Training practitioners in organisations should become "*au fait*" with the body of statutory training institutions and legislation (eg. Department of Labour, National Training Board and Manpower Training Act) involved in training as this could ensure the effective application of training in the organisation. Training should not only be seen as a strategy to achieve organisational goals, but also as a responsibility to employees.

The following could be used as a checklist by organisations for implementing training for the right reasons:

* To develop younger managers sooner and to prevent management obsolescence.
* To provide managers with the latest information on business theory and practice.
* To simulate a more creative approach to problem-solving and decision-making.
* To expose a competent manager to new avenues of management thought.
* To improve and maintain performance standards.
* To prepare employees for new posts/jobs.

* To adapt to changes in technology, public attitudes and demands, organisational strategies and structures, employees' values, life styles and educational levels.

It is important to realise that many training experiences lack positive results because of unrealistic expectations. Training can not alter personalities or habits overnight. It is important for management to have an overall view of training so as to effect change in employee behaviour and to realise that some kind of learning must occur if change is to take place. For this reason, management and training practitioners should have a sound knowledge of learning theories and principles which is essential for the design, development and evaluation of effective training programmes.

Increased emphasis should be placed on establishing a learning culture in the organisation, which should be woven into the value and belief system of organisational members. The size of an organisation's training budget does not reflect the presence of a learning culture. The following actions could assist in establishing a learning culture in the organisation:

* Change should not be seen as a threat, but rather as an opportunity for learning and development.
* People at all levels in the organisation should become lifelong learners.
* New knowledge and skills can be acquired without necessarily attending a formal training course (eg. learning from peers).
* Blockages to learning in the organisation should be identified and removed.
* Trainees should change their roles from course-runners to facilitators of learning.
* Managers should play an active role as change agents in creating a productive learning culture.
* Appreciate new ideas and suggestions and implement if beneficial.
* Listen and learn from subordinates at lower levels in the organisation.
* Treat mistakes as opportunities for learning.

The following should be regarded as top management actions to support transfer of learning and training: participate in previews of a training programme; issue statements on new performance

levels, following the training exercise; authorise release time or change work hours to facilitate training; provide appropriate physical facilities for training; notify employees in writing of selection for training; meet with employees to discuss ways of applying new behaviours and give preference to trainees for promotion, following training. The following are actions with regard to the preparation of training which could support the transfer of learning and training: select trainees on the basis of training plans for each employee; discuss training plans with union officials; confer with employees on reasons for selection for training; allow for involvement by trainees in planning the training programme; assure attendance by trainees in all training sessions and obtain authorisation for the cost of training.

Training should be reorientated to a strategic approach by incorporating training into the strategic process of the organisation. It is important to realise that the actual process of training people is only a small part of the training process and involves considerable effort, both before and after the trainer and trainees are brought together. The systems model of the training process which was developed can be used as a guideline for implementing a training programme in the organisation. The following steps can be used:

* Analyse the training environment by identifying all possible internal and external environmental factors that could influence training.
* Establish training premises which entail the development of a training philosophy (reflecting the organisation's value attached to human resources potential) and set a training policy (directing the priorities, standards and scope of the training function).
* Gathering and diagnose data by identifying organisational training needs, perform a task analysis and execute a knowledge, skills and attitude analysis.
* Identify training needs to ascertain what training is actually needed (do not implement a training programme simply because it was well advertised or marketed). This should be done by means of an ongoing process and a strategy or plan of action for establishing training needs.
* Set training objectives by translating the training needs into objectives or desired outcomes.

* Attend to pre-training programme design aspects by formulating a training budget, obtain instructional resources, select trainees, determine the role of trainers and consider learning principles.
* Design the training programme by identifying all possible constraints, identify learning content and sequence, facilitate the learning process, account for determinants of learning, select training methods and develop a lesson plan.
* Implement training which entails executing the sequenced learning content according to a selected instructional strategy.
* Maintain training which ensures that the training which has taken place will be maintained over a period of time.
* Gather and evaluate data which assesses the effectiveness of training.
* Continuously provide feedback during all phases of the training process.

It is important to realise the underlying assumptions which could serve as a basis for a training philosophy within a South African context: employees should not be employed and trained in order to acquire skills and experience and then leave the organisation; employees should be selected for training on the basis that they will become lifelong members - an employee is an asset which appreciates in value and an organisation has a social responsibility to invest in employees by means of training.

The following could serve as possible training policy options for South Africa:

* Consider economic and social development policies when developing human resources development policies for the organisation.
* Establish strategic partnerships between the state and organisations (based on mutual trust and determination).
* Provide a world-class educational system that will enhance a culture of lifelong learning.
* Revitalise the current vocational educational and training system.
* Target the informal sector by using training to transfer knowledge, skills and attitudes.
* Provide training for the unemployed which should form part of active labour market policies.

8.3.2 Organisational Transformation

It is important for organisations to commence a transformation process, because organisations are like living organisms which need to be kept healthy by continual change. Reframing, restructuring, revitalisation and renewal are vital for success in a continuously changing environment. Management should realise that transformative change entails a profound shift of the prevailing vision or reality and is accompanied by a fundamental change in consciousness, values, attitudes and perceptions. It is important for management to have a clear understanding of the theoretical foundations of change, as these theories could serve as a foundation and provide a framework for conceptualising and initiating organisational change.

It should be noted that a primary reason for the problems often faced by organisations is the failure to anticipate or respond to changing circumstances. Because organisations operate in a fast-changing environment, in which various internal and external factors create a complex and often unstable environment, consideration should be given to the management of change, which calls for a greater environmental awareness by management.

Organisations should take note of the following factors which represent change and pose challenges to the organisation:

* Rapidly increasing competition from new and unexpected sources.
* Changing demographics (eg. population composition and family size) and psychographics (eg. lifestyles and social classes).
* New global economy.
* Shift from manufacturing to service industries.
* New proliferation of corporate stakeholders.
* Management of a new workforce and shortage of skilled labour.
* Social concerns for the environment.

Change initiatives are often fruitless because of improper preparation and planning. The following actions should be taken to prepare the organisation for change:

* Balance opposing perceptions of people at different levels in the organisation which is a crucial task for change agents.
* Legitimise proposed change by involving all relevant stakeholders.
* Democratise the workplace which allows transparency and openness of information; endorsement and support of those being managed; meaningful influence in decision-making; open access to sources of power; participative workplaces; non-bureaucratic and flat structures and empowerment through the entrenchment of reciprocal rights and accountability.
* Regularly reniew the fundamental philosophy and principles of the organisation.
* Broaden the ownership and management base of the organisation.
* Create a climate in which change is accepted as inevitable and create a positive need for change through the creation of a shared vision and a sense of mission.
* Create the right organisational culture which is conducive to organisational changes.
* Realise the necessity for self-introspection by taking an inward journey of self-discovery (who you are and what you can become).

It is important to create a positive need for change in the organisation. This could be accomplished by the following actions:

* Provide all organisational members with detailed knowledge of objectives and proposed strategies of the organisation.
* Continuously identify future opportunities.
* Focus on quality output, not on input or effort.
* Encourage effective sharing of talent through team work.
* Commit to developing employees to their full potential.
* Managers set the pace and lead by example.
* Management should set the framework for creativity.

* Confront and solve problems (do not ignore or hide them).
* Employees should continually challenge and appraise their own actions.

Purposeful attempts should be made to bring about changes in the following major areas: strategy (realise when a strategic shift is necessary); organisational structure and job design; technology (eg. change in equipment, work processes and materials) and people (eg. change in skills, knowledge, attitudes and values). It is important for management to realise that various approaches or strategies are available when dealing with change. The following could serve as guidelines:

* Select a change strategy based on a strategic analysis of the situation.
* Engineer flexibility and capacity for continuous transformation into the organisation. A particular change strategy should be driven from carefully defined processes for change and proper enabling conditions which will allow managers to understand where to focus their efforts.
* Reduce the gap between strategies and actions by adopting a problem-solving, action-orientated approach to change.
* Focus on continuous business improvement by reexamining individual tasks and functions in terms of how they contribute to the end result (business process reengineering).

It is important to realise that management of change is complicated by the fact that change inevitably rarely benefits everyone. Resistance to change and acceptance of change are crucial elements in managing organisational change. It is often helpful to view resistance to change as feedback which can be used by the change agent to improve the chances of accomplishing the change objectives. Careful analysis of all the potential forces or factors which can lead to resistance to change should be made. Consideration should be given to the following sources: psychological/personality (eg. habit, insecurity and lack of trust), organisational (eg. threat to power and organisational structure), cultural (eg. values and beliefs), logical/rational (eg. bad timing, scarce resources and economic costs) and social factors (eg. conflict and conformity to norms).

It is important for organisations to assist the receivers of change to cope with the pressures and constraints typically associated with major organisational changes. The following could serve as guidelines to reduce resistance to change:

* Explain the change and why it is necessary.
* Avoid surprises as people need time to evaluate a proposed change initiative.
* Encourage two-way communication.
* Promote real understanding to reduce fears.
* Set the stage for change by providing a positive attitude.
* Gather suggestions to help put the change into action.
* Make tentative changes by implementing the change on a trial basis.
* Provide a guarantee against loss.
* Build trust.

Change agents should be aware of the possible dangers and pitfalls in organisational change. It is important to realise that the change process goes through a series of phases which require a considerable length of time and a mistake in any of these phases can have a devastating impact. Before embarking on a change programme, the following reasons for failure of transformation efforts should be considered: lack of organisational vision, insufficient consensus or participation, inadequate union engagement, lack of management commitment, not addressing fears, not understanding that transformation can cause pain, not planning for quick results and poor communication and marketing of the change programme.

It is important to realise that strategic, systematic and planned change does not occur without the backing and full involvement of a change agent. In order to be a successful, change agents require specific attitudes, values and skills. The model for organisational change, developed in this study, could be used as a guideline for implementing organisational change. The following action steps could be used: develop a vision, create dissatisfaction with the status quo, recognise the need for change, appoint a change agent, diagnose relevant variables, select an appropriate change method, plan for implementation, implement the change, communicate the change and provide feedback or evaluation.

8.3.3 The Interaction Between Training and Organisational Change

Organisations should consider the composition of training and transformation interaction by focussing on organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership.

(a) Organisational Development

Management should realise that the need to plan and implement change is a given and that organisational development offers an integrated approach to change. Organisational development should be used as a strategy which affects the beliefs, values and attitudes within the organisation in order to adapt to the accelerated rate of change. Although organisational development is a useful technique in which the benefits outweigh the limitations, change agents should be well informed about problems and critical issues in organisational development. Change agents should note that although the organisational development technique used will depend on the specific situation and nature of the organisation, it was found in the study that certain techniques enjoy preference, such as team building, quality-of-life programmes and diversity or cultural training programmes. The survey, however, exposed a lack of implementation of specific organisational development techniques. Change interventions should be planned and focussed around such techniques.

It is important to realise that the existence of a fully developed training department, or function in the organisation and the environment in which an organisation operates, is related to organisational development. Organisations with a fully developed training department, and who operate in a dynamic environment (differing from organisations in which training forms part of another department and who operate in a more moderate or static environment) could use organisational development to facilitate organisational change. As it was found that there are highly significant relationships between organisational development and training, it is important for management to use training as a vehicle to bring about organisational change through organisational development.

Table 8.1 provides guidelines and recommendations for implementation of organisational development.

Table 8.1: Guidelines and Recommendations for the Implementation of Organisational Development

1.	Organisations should have an open, problem-solving climate.
2.	There should not be strict, formal lines of authority in the organisation.
3.	Authority should be based on the existence of knowledge and competence.
4.	Ensure that relevant information is available to decision-makers.
5.	Maximise collaboration among individuals and/or groups.
6.	Allow people to exercise self-control and direction at work.
7.	Encourage work teams in the organisation.
8.	Encourage participation and empowerment of all.
9.	Allow members to become more active and confident in maintaining organisational effectiveness.
10.	Strive to improve the functioning of the organisation through planned renewal.

(b) The Learning Organisation

Actions should be taken to ensure that organisations become communities of learning, as the way in which an organisation learns can be the key to innovation, profitability and competitiveness. A philosophy should be developed which is aimed at creating, mastering and transferring knowledge in the organisation in order to adapt and to change. It is important to understand the process and nature of learning in order to facilitate the learning and development of employees and the organisation itself. Management should ensure that appropriate conditions for learning exist, reinforce desired learned behaviour, provide environmental cues which encourage learning and a physical and emotional climate supportive of learning.

The leader should empower employees, encourage effective decision-making and inspire commitment through charismatic leadership. The learning organisation could be created by a leader with vision, well-developed plans, information sharing, a sense of inventiveness and implementation of all plans and strategies. It is vital to inculcate a culture of lifelong learning in the organisation to encourage a continuous need for learning. It is important to note that a fully developed training department, and the environment in which an organisation operates is related to the learning organisation. Attention should be given to the role of the training department and the environment of the organisation and how the learning organisation could facilitate organisational change. The survey revealed highly significant relationships between training and the learning organisation. Actions should be taken to use training in bringing about organisational change through the learning organisation.

Table 8.2 provides some guidelines and recommendations for building the learning organisation.

Table 8.2: Guidelines and Recommendations for Building the Learning Organisation

1.	Provide learning strategies to improve knowledge and skills.
2.	Use participative policy-making practices.
3.	Implement flexible reward structures.
4.	Use front-line members as environmental scanners.
5.	Create a lifelong learning climate in the organisation.
6.	Develop a shared vision which emerges on all levels in the organisation.
7.	Promote self-development for all members.
8.	Resolve conflict through collaborative learning and/or integration of diverse viewpoints.
9.	Formulate and implement ideas on all levels.
10.	Facilitate learning for all members of the organisation.
11.	Continually expand the innovative capacity of the organisation to create it's own future.
12.	Continually experiment and improve the capacity of the organisation to deliver new goods and services to customers.
13.	Learn at a faster rate than that at which the organisation is changing.
14.	Regard learning as part of working.
15.	Facilitate the process of transformation which enables the organisation to search for new ideas and/or opportunities.

(c) Transformational Leadership

The transformational leader should stimulate interest to view work from new perspectives, generate awareness of the vision of the organisation and develop people to higher levels of motivation, ability and potential. A transformational leader should portray charisma by providing a vision and a mission and by instilling pride, respect and trust. It is important for the transformational leader to be inspirational by influencing subordinates to exert themselves beyond their own expectations and self-interest.

Actions should be taken by the transformational leader to provide individualised consideration to followers by developing them to higher levels of potential. Increased emphasis should be placed on stimulating innovation, creativity and judgement. For effective change to take place, interaction between the leader's and follower's behaviour and the situation needs to take place. It is important to note that the existence of a fully developed training department in the organisation and the environment in which an organisation operates is related to transformational leadership. Organisations characterised by this scenario should use transformational leadership to bring about organisational change. As highly significant relationships exist between training and transformational leadership, purposeful attempts should be made to use training to facilitate organisational change through transformational leadership.

Table 8.3 highlights guidelines and recommendations for promoting transformational leadership.

Table 8.3: Guidelines and Recommendations for Promoting Transformational Leadership

1.	View failures as learning experiences with a strong desire for continuous development.
2.	Understand and manage the process of satisfying customers in innovative ways.
3.	Be sensitive to the need of others by empowering them.
4.	Articulate a set of core values and exhibit behaviour congruent with these values.
5.	Encourage a desire for continuous self-learning and development.
6.	Cope with and frame problems in a complex and changing world.
7.	Create and translate visions and dreams for others to share.
8.	Leaders should have charisma.
9.	Inspire and mobilise commitment of organisational members.
10.	Take the unique needs and capabilities of followers into account.
11.	Leaders should stimulate innovation and creativity.
12.	The behaviour of leaders and followers and the situation should interact.
13.	Leaders should be responsible for orchestrating and sustaining the transformation of the organisation.
14.	Display the ability to create an image of a desired future state or condition.
15.	Leaders should arouse intense emotions in followers.

(d) The Facilitating Role of Training in the Application of the Building Blocks of Change

Training should be used as a planned managerial programme of individual and organisational growth. Training programmes, utilising organisational interventions, need to maximise the effectiveness of organisational training activities. It is important for management to realise that training can enlarge the capacity of the organisation to adapt to change. Training should be viewed as a systematic approach to incorporate learning in the organisation. Actions should be taken to ensure that training is used to prepare members to meet the challenges and changes in

the workplace and to upgrade and refine skills. Training programmes should be designed to support change strategies and learning strategies in the organisation. Increased emphasis should be placed on training programmes which maximise the balance between learning and doing in the organisation. Management should ensure that training contributes to the development of the innovative and learning capacity of the organisation. Organisations should direct training at the creation of an environment in which learners are stimulated to find their own approach to handle key problems in the organisation.

Designers of training programmes should incorporate transformational leadership as an important subject of management training and development. Training programmes should build the requisite skills for fulfilling leadership roles in the organisation and also be used as an approach to improve leadership in the organisation. The survey indicated that there are highly significant relationships between the role of training in the application of organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership. Purposeful attempts should be made to use training to facilitate the application of the building blocks of change.

(e) The Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change

Management should realise that there is a need to design organisations which promote and enhance learning in order to adapt to changing environments. Designers of training programmes should examine the degree to which variations in the role of training could be understood as a function of organisational adaptation. It is important to realise that training, as a component of human resources development, can contribute to organisational change by either responding to shifts in strategic action or by developing and shaping appropriate competencies, practices and attitudes. Increased emphasis should be placed on the role of training in gaining new insight and perspective which can help people to disconnect from old habits and to open up to initiating change in the organisation.

Actions should be taken to ensure that trainers design the learning process to affect change and that trainees involved in the change process are effectively managed. Managers should challenge the traditional role of training in the organisation (which focus only on the development of

individual skills) by ensuring that training becomes part of the organisation's planning efforts and becomes a change agent in the organisation.

It is important to realise that training programmes are not a magic word which can transform and develop people and organisations to be more productive. When large amounts of money are invested in training which does not produce intended results, it should not be deduced that people and organisations can not change and that training is a waste of money. Time and money to educate, train and retrain, both at executive development and manufacturing level, should be a major priority in the organisation.

Management should endeavour to transform organisations into world-class bodies through commitment and by examining the barriers to learning, presented by current structures, systems and practices. The threat of moving into more open and competitive environments needs to be recognised and participative, developmental and counselling mechanisms should be put into place to support people through a transition. Organisations should view change as an opportunity for individual learning, training and development. Highly significant relationships were identified between the role of training in managing organisational change and the building blocks of change. Purposeful attempts should be made to use training to manage organisational change, through organisational development, the learning organisation and transformational leadership.

Table 8.4 provides guidelines and recommendations for using training to manage organisational change.

Table 8.4: Guidelines and Recommendations which Highlight the Role of Training in Managing Organisational Change

1.	The training process in the organisation should be related to the context of the external environment in which the organisation operates.
2.	It should be realised that training for change is vital for the long-term survival of the organisation.
3.	Training programmes should enhance the capacity of people to cope with change.
4.	Organisations should upgrade managerial capabilities in situations of rapid change.
5.	Training programmes should respond to shifts in strategic actions of the organisation.
6.	Training initiatives should be linked to the mission of the organisation.
7.	Training people for change, prior to it taking place, could assist in understanding why change is necessary.
8.	Training designs should vary in detail, depending on the scope of change for which the training programme has been designed (adapt a training programme for a specific change situation).
9.	Management should not only view training as a functional area, but one which possesses the necessary capabilities to help transform the organisation.
10.	It should be realised that top-to-bottom organisational member training is necessary to change how the organisation operates.
11.	Executives should be trained to understand corporate strategy and how to achieve it.
12.	Training should be provided to increase managers' awareness of the organisation's competition.
13.	Training should assist people to become agents for change in the organisation.
14.	Management should realise that there is a need for a new approach to training which will promote continuous adaptation in the organisation.

(f) The Application of a Training for Transformation Model

A training for transformation model was developed, based on the previously developed training and change models. Management could use this model to facilitate organisational change. The survey highlights the fact that there are highly significant relationships between the application

of a training for transformation model and the building blocks of change. Organisational change could be facilitated by the application of a training for transformation model.

Table 8.5 shows the most important guidelines and recommendations for implementing a training for transformation model.

Table 8.5: Guidelines and Recommendations for Implementing a Training for Transformation Model

1.	Before any training takes place, all factors influencing change should be identified.
2.	The training philosophy should stipulate that by providing training, the capacity to adapt to change will be enhanced.
3.	The training policy of the organisation should explicitly emphasise the aspect of training for change.
4.	Actions should be taken to identify where training is needed, by analysing the organisation, task and employee (determine the variables which highlight the need for change.
5.	Training needs and objectives should be formulated, based on the need for change.
6.	Before designing the actual training programme, aspects such as a training budget, obtaining instructional resources and trainee selection should be considered.
7.	In order to bring about change, the appropriate training method needs to be selected.
8.	Training often implies change which is realised by the actual implementation.
9.	The training practitioner should ensure that transfer of training to the workplace is ensured by practising what is learnt.
10.	Continuous feedback should ensure that the training programme facilitates the proposed change in the organisation.

8.4 SHORTCOMINGS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has certain shortcomings and limitations which need to be considered:

* The sample chosen for the survey was undoubtedly suitable (statistically adequate), although a slightly larger sample could have been selected.
* Problems were encountered in finding a suitable data base for the survey.
* The role of trade unions, as a major stakeholder in bringing about organisational change, was ignored.
* The degree of applicability of research results to all organisations is unknown.

8.5 FURTHER RESEARCH PROPOSALS

The following aspects could be considered for future research:

* The influence of trade unions in shaping change strategies and training policies of an organisation.
* A qualitative research approach to training for organisational transformation.
* The development of a South African case study, analysing the aspect of training for transformation.
* The application of a training for transformation model in the government or public sector.
* Differences in perceptions of lower level employees and top management regarding aspects of training for transformation.
* Environmental influences on training policies of an organisation.

The following extract is appropriate with which to conclude this study:

> *"There seems to be enough evidence that the traditional approaches to managing change are training and development. The issue is what the change agents, particularly human resources practitioners, should do in order to escalate the learning process in their organisation so as to match the daunting challenges of change ...which require new collective approaches to training and development. We need the courage to create a new and innovative solution process for South Africa."*
>
> Mbigi and Maree (1997:110 & 115)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adonisi, M. 1991. Training as a Corporate Strategy. *IPM Journal.* September 1991. Vol. 10, No. 1. 27-30.

Aldag, R.J. & Stearns, T.M. 1991. *Management.* Cincinnati: South Western Publishing Co.

Alreck, P.L. & Settle, R.B. 1995. *The Survey Research Handbook: Guidelines and Strategies for Conducting a Survey.* Illinois: Irwin Professional Publishing.

Anderson, T.D. 1992. *Transforming Leadership: New Skills for an Extraordinary Future.* Massachusetts: Human Resource Development Press, Inc.

Andrews, A. & Crow, G. 1993. Learning for Tomorrow. *People Dynamics.* September 1993. Vol. 11, No. 11. 23-25.

Argyris, C. 1994. *On Organizational Learning.* Oxford: Blackwell Business.

Atkinson, R.L., Atkinson, R.C. & Hilgard, E.R. 1983. *Introduction to Psychology.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Avolio, B.J. 1994. The "Natural": Some Antecedents to Tranmsformational Leasership. *Journal of Public Administration.* 1994. Vol. 17, No.9. 1559-1581.

Bahn, C. 1973. The Counter Training Problem. *Personnel Journal.* December 1973. Vol.52. 1068-1072.

Bailey, K.D. 1982. *Methods of Social Research.* London: The Free Press.

Baird, L.S., Post, J.E. & Mahon, J.F. 1990. *Management: Function and Responsibility.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Baird, L.S., Schneier, C.E. & Laird, D. 1983. *The Training and Development Source Book.* Massachusetts: Human Resource Development Press.

Bakeman, R. 1992. *Understanding Social Science Statistics: A Spreadsheet Approach.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Balsley, H.L. & Clover, V.T. 1988. *Research for Business Decisions: Business Research Methods.* Ohio: Publishing Horizons, Inc.

Bandura, A. 1977. *Social Learning Theory.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Barker, F.S. 1995. *The South African Labour Market.* Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik Publishers.

Basil, D.C. & Cook, C.W. 1974. *The Management of Change.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Bass, B.M. 1990. From Transactional Leadership to Transformational Leadership: Learning to Share the Vision. *Organizational Dynamics.* Winter 1990. 19-31.

Bass, B.M. 1994. Transformational Leadership Critical for South Africa. *Human Resource Management.* February 1994. 10-13.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. 1994. *Improving Organizational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership.* London: Sage Publications.

Basson, N.J.S., Oosthuizen, W.L., Duvenhage, D.C. & Slabbert, J.A. 1988. *Lesontwerp.* Cape Town: Juta.

Bateman, T.S. & Zeitmahl, C.P. 1993. *Management Function and Strategy.* Boston: Irwin, Inc.

Beach, D.S. 1980. *Personnel: The Management of People at Work.* New York: McMillan Publishing Company.

Beardwell, I. & Holden, L. 1994. *Human Resources Management: A Contemporary Perspective.* London: Pitman, Publishing.

Beaumont, P.B. 1996. *Human Resource Management: Key Concepts & Skills.* London; Sage Publications.

Bedeian, A.G. 1986. *Management.* Chicago: The Dryden Press.

Behr, A.L. 1988. *Empirical Research Methods for the Human Sciences.* Durban: Butterworths.

Bell, C.P. 1977. Criteria for Selecting Instructional Strategies. *Training and Development Journal.* October 1977. 3-7.

Bellingham, R. & Cohen, B. 1989. *Leadership: Myths and Realities.* Massachusetts: Human Resource Development Press, Ltd.

Bellis, I. 1994. Blending Education and Training - A New Set of Acronyms or Fundamental Change? *People Dynamics.* May 1994. Vol. 12, No. 6. 33-37.

Bennis, W.G., Benne, K.D. & Chin, R. 1970. *The Planning of Change.* London: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Bergh, V. 1995. Whose Fault when Transformation Fails? *People Dynamics.* November-December 1995. Vol. 13, No. 11. 51-55.

Bertsch, B. & Williams, R. 1994. How Multinational CEO's Make Change Programmes Stick. *Long Range Planning.* October 1994. Vol. 27, No. 5. 12-24.

Biggs, J.B. & Telfer, R. 1987. *The Process of Learning.* Sydney: Prentice-Hall.

Binneman, D. 1988. Management in the Future. A Strategy for Managing Change. *IPM Journal.* May 1988. Vol. 6, No. 12. 25-27.

Birnbrauer, H. 1987. Evaluation Techniques that Work. *Training and Development Journal.* July 1987. 53-55.

Blalock, H.M. 1981. *Social Statistics.* Auckland: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Blalock, A.B. & Blalock, H.M. 1982. *Introduction to Social Research Methods.* Ohio: Publishing Horizons, Inc.

Bleicher, K. 1994. Integrative Management in a Time of Transformation. *Long Range Planning.* October 1994. Vol. 27, No. 5. 136-144.

Bless, C. & Higson-Smith, C. 1995. *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods.* Kenwyn: Juta and Company, Ltd.

Bless, C. & Kathuria, R. 1993. *Fundamentals of Social Statistics: An African Perspective.* Johannesburg: Juta & Company, Ltd.

Block, P. 1992. Empowerment and Political Reform Inside Our Organisations. *People Dynamics.* June 1992. Vol. 10, No. 9. 8-12.

Blunt, P. & Jones, M.L. 1992. *Managing Organisations in Africa.* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

BMDP Statistical Software, Inc. 1993. Cork: Cork Technology Park.

Bolt, J.F., Bures, A.L. & Banks, M.C. 1985. Are We Meeting the Management Training Challenge. *Training and Development Journal.* January 1985. 60-66.

Boone , L.E. & Kurtz, D.L. 1992. *Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Botha, J.P. 1991. Perspectives on the Cost-benefit Analysis of Training. Paper delivered at the National Symposium on Manpower Development for the New South Africa. Pretoria: October 1991.

Boveè, C.L., Thill, J.V., Wood, M.B. & Dovel, G.P. 1993. *Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Bowditch, J.L. & Buono, A.F. 1994. *A Primer on Organizational Behaviour.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Bowman, C. & Jarrett, M.G. 1996. *Management in Practice: A Framework for Managing Organizational Change.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Bramham, J. 1994. *Human Resource Planning.* London: Institute of Personnel and Development.

Bramley, P. 1991. *Evaluating Training Effectiveness.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Brammer, L.M. 1991. *How to Cope with Life Transitions: The Challenge of Personal Change.* New York: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation.

Brill, P.L. & Worth, R. 1997. *The Four Levers of Corporate Change.* New York: Amacom.

Broad, M.L. 1982. Management Actions to Support Transfer of Training. *Training and Development Journal.* May 1982. 124-130.

Brook, J. 1993. *Transformational Leadership amongst South African Human Resource Specialists and the Effect thereof on Subordinate Performance and Perceptions of the Leader.* Unpublished M.Soc.Thesis. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Brookfield, S. 1990. *Adult Learners, Adult Education and the Community.* London: Open University Press.

Buckley, R. & Caple, J. 1992. *The Theory and Practice of Training.* London: Kogan Page.

Buitendach, G.A. 1982. Making Training Pay - And Training Needs Analysis. *People and Profits.* January 1982. 7-10.

Burack, E.H. 1991. Changing the Company Culture. *Long Range Planning.* 1991. Vol. 24, No. 1. 88-95.

Burger, A.P.J., Theron, F. & Van Rooyen, A. 1996. *Challenges in Change.* Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch, School of Public Management.

Burgoyne, J., Pedler, M. & Boydell, T. 1994. *Towards the Learning Company: Concepts and Practices.* London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Burnes, B. 1992. *Managing Change.* London: Pitman Publishing.

Burnes, B. 1996. *Managing Change: A Strategic Approach to Organisational Dynamics.* London: Pitman Publishing.

Calitz, A.P. & Calitz, M.B. 1998. Business Process Reengineering in South Africa: The Challenge and the Promise. Paper delivered at 10th Annual Conference of the South African Insititute for Management Scientists. Mpekweini Sun: 31 May - 2 June 1998.

Calori, R. & Atamer, T. 1990. How French Managers Deal with Radical Change. *Long Range Planning.* December 1990. Vol. 23, No. 6. 44-55.

Camp, R.R., Blanchard, P.N. & Huszczo, G.E. 1986. *Toward a More Organizationally Effective Training Strategy and Practice.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Carnall, C. 1993. *Managing Change.* London: Routledge.

Carrell, M.R., Elbert, N.F. & Hatfield, R.D. 1995. *Human Resource Management.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Carrell, M.R., Elbert, N.F., Hatfield, R.D., Grobler, P.A., Marx, M. & Van der Schyf, S. 1998. *Human Resource Management in South Africa.* Cape Town: Prentice-Hall South Africa.

Carroll, J.R., Paine, F.T. & Ivancevich, J.J. 1972. The Relative Effectiveness of Training Methods: Expert Opinion and Research. *Personnel Psychology.* 1972. Vol. 25. 495-509.

Carstens, L. 1995. Changing Legitimately. *People Dynamics.* August 1995. Vol. 13, No. 8. 27-29.

Cascio, W.F. 1992. *Managing Human Resources.* New York : McGraw-Hill.

Cave, A. 1994. *Managing Change in the Workplace: New Approaches to Employee Relations.* London: Kogan Page.

Certo, S.C. 1989. *Modern Management.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Chang, R.Y. 1994. *Mastering Change Management.* California: Richard Chang Associates, Inc.

Charlton, G. 1994. Leadership - Beyond 1994. *Human Resource Management.* May 1994. 7-10.

Charoux, E. 1981. Evaluate Your Training. *People and Profits.* January 1981. Vol.7. 34-35.

Clark, B. 1986. *Optimizing Learning.* Columbus: Merrill Publishing Company.

Clark, N. 1991. *Managing Personal Learning and Change: A Trainer's Guide.* London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Clegg, W.H. 1987. Management Training Evaluation: An Update. *Training and Development Journal.* February 1987. 65-71.

Coetzee, J.E. & Visagie, J.C. 1995. Small Medium Enterprise Challenges in Reconstructuring South Africa. *SA Journal Entrepreneurship & Small Business.* May 1995. Vol.7. 37-50.

Collins, M. 1992. Something Completely Different. *People Dynamics.* September 1992. Vol. 10, No. 12. 41.

Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R.N. 1988. *Charismatic Leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organizational Effectivenss.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Consultive Business Movement. 1993. *Managing Change.* Braamfontein: Ravan Press.

Cooper, R.A. & Weekes, A.J. 1983. *Data, Models and Statistical Analysis.* Oxford: Philip Allan Publishers, Ltd.

Coopers & Lybrand. Annual Report. 1996. The Transformation Wheel. [Online]: http://www.coopers.co.uk/annualreview/maclaren/index.html.

Craig, R.L. 1976. *Training and Development Handbook.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Craig, R.L. 1987. *Training and Development Handbook.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Cronje, G.J. de J. 1980. Bestuur en Omgewingsverandering. *South African Journal of Business Management.* June 1980. Vol. 11, No. 3. 94-101.

Cronje, G.J. de J., Hugo, W.M., Neuland, E.W. & Van Reenen, M.J. 1993. *Introduction to Business Management.* Cape Town: Southern Book Publishers.

Cumming, M.W. 1994. *The Theory and Practice of Personnel Management.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, Ltd.

Cureton, J.H., Newton, A.E. & Tesolowski, D.G. 1986. Finding Out What Managers Need. *Training and Development Journal.* May 1986. 107.

Curtis, R.C. & Stricker, G. 1991. *How People Change.* New York: Plenum Press.

Daniel, R. 1992. Training Skills are also Management Skills. *Human Resources Management Year Book.* November 1992. Vol. 8, No. 10. 58-59.

Darkenwald, G.G. & Merriam, S.B. 1982. *Adult Education: Foundations of Practice.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Davies, I.K. 1971. *The Management of Learning.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Dawson, P. 1994. *Organisational Change: A Processual Approach.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing, Ltd.

Dawson, S. 1992. *Analysing Organisations.* Hampshire: The MacMillan Press, Ltd.

DeCenzo, D.A. & Robbins, S.P. 1988. *Personnel/Human Resource Management.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Dessler, G. 1981. *Personnel Management.* Virginia: Preston Publishing Company, Inc.

Dooley, D. 1990. *Social Research Methods.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Dorfling, N.J. 1989. *Die Evaluering van die Kwaliteit van die Opleiding van Middelvlakbestuurders Binne Enkele Geselekteerde Groter Privaatorganisasies in Suid Afrika.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

Drennan, D. 1992. *Transforming Company Culture.* London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Drucker, P.F. 1980. *Managing in Turbulent Times.* London: Pan Books.

Drucker, P.F. 1995. *Managing in a Time of Great Change.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heineman, Ltd.

Dubrin, A. 1990. *Essentials of Management.* Cincinnati: South Western Publishing Company.

Dunford, R.W. 1992. *Organisational Behaviour.* Sydney: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Dunphy, D. & Stace, D. 1990. *Under New Management: Australian Organisations in Transition.* Sydney: McGraw-Hill.

Eagar, M. 1996. Workplace Learning as a Tool for Transformation. *People Dynamics.* November/December 1996. Vol. 14, No. 11. 60-64.

Emory, C.W. & Cooper, D.R. 1991. *Business Research Methods.* Boston: Irwin.

Entwistle, N. 1981. *Styles of Learning.* Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Epstein, B. & Cook, J. 1987. Coping with Change: Counselling Interventions. *IPM Journal.* September 1987. 40-45.

Erasmus, B.J. & Van Dyk, P.S. 1996. *Training Management: A Practical Approach.* Johannesburg: International Thompson Publishing.

Farr, M.J. 1987. *The Longterm Retention of Knowledge and Skills: A Cognitive And Instructional Approach.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Ferguson, M. 1986. *The Aquarian Conspiracy: Personal and Social Transformation in the 1980's.* London: Paladin Grafton Books.

Fink, A. 1995. *How to Sample in Surveys.* London: Sage Publications.

Fisher, C.D., Shoenfeldt, L.F. & Shaw, J.B. 1993. *Human Resources Management.* Boston: Haughton Mifflin.

Fisher, D. & Torbert, W.R. 1995. *Personal and Organisational Transformations.* London: McGraw-Hill Co.

Flavell, J.M. 1985. *Cognitive Development.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Forsyth, I., Jolliffe, A. & Stevens, D. 1996. *Planning-Course: Practical Strategies for Teachers, Lecturers and Trainers.* London: Kogan Page.

Fraser, W.J., Loubser, C.P. & Van Rooy, M.P. 1992. *Didactics for the Undergraduate Student.* Durban: Butterwoth.

Freedman, J.L., Sears, D.O. & Carlsmith, J.M. 1981. *Social Psychology.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

French, W.L. 1986. *Human Resources Management.* Boston: Haughton Mifflin Company.

French, W.L. & Bell, C.H. 1990. *Organization Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Gagne, R.M. 1977. *The Conditions of Learning.* New York: Rinehart & Winston.

Gagne, R.M. 1985. *The Conditions of Learning and Theory of Instruction.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Galvin, J.C. 1983. What Can Trainers Learn from Educators about Evaluating Management Training? *Training and Development Journal.* August 1983. 52-27.

Gartner, H.F., Mahler, J. & Nicholson, J.B. 1989. *Organization Theory: A Public Perspective.* California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Gerber, P.D., Nel, P.S. & Van Dyk, P.S. 1995. *Human Resources Management.* Cape Town: Southern Book Publishers.

Glueck, W.F. 1982. *Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach.* Texas: Business Publications, Inc.

Goldtsein, I.L. 1986. *Training in Organisations: Needs Assessment, Development and Evaluation.* California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Goodman, P.S. 1982. *Change in Organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.

Gordon, J.R. 1996. *Organizational Behavior: A Diagnostic Approach.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Gordon, S.E. 1994. *Systematic Training Programme Design.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Gosteli, U. 1997. Barriers to Change. *People Dynamics.* June 1997. Vol. 16, No. 6. 39-41.

Gould, R.M. 1996. Getting from Strategy to Action: Processes for Continuous Change. *Long Range Planning.* June 1996. Vol. 29, No. 3. 278-289.

Govender, K.K. 1994. Problems and Training Needs of Small Business in Transkei. *Development Southern Africa*. February 1994. Vol. 11, No. 1. 113-119.

Graetz, F. 1996. Leading Strategic Change at Ericsson. *Long Range Planning*. June 1996. Vol. 29, No. 3. 304-313.

Greenberg, J. & Baron, R.A. 1997. *Behaviour in Organizations*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Griffin, R.W. 1993. *Management*. Boston: Haughton Mifflin Company.

Groenewald, J.P. 1986. *Social Research: Design and Analysis*. Stellenbosch: University Publishers and Booksellers.

Grundy, T. & King, D. 1992. Using Strategic Planning to Drive Strategic Change. *Long Range Planning*. February 1992. Vol. 25, No. 1. 100-108.

Guy, R.F., Edgley, C.E., Arafat, I. & Allen, D.E. 1987. *Social Research Methods: Puzzles and Solutions*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Gxwala, E. 1995. Learning Through Organisational Transformation. *Human Resource Management*. Vol. 11, No. 6. 12-16.

Halloran, J. 1986. *Personnel and Human Resources Management*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Hamilton, R. & Ghatala, E. 1994. *Learning and Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hampden-Turner, C. 1990. *Corporate Culture*. London: Hutchinson.

Hampton, D.R.. Summer, C.E. & Webber, R.A. 1982. *Organizational Behaviour and the Practice of Management*. Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co.

Handy, C.B. 1985. *Understanding Organizations.* England: Penguin Books Ltd.

Harber, A. & Runyon, R.P. 1983. *Fundamentals of Psychology.* Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Harri-Augstein, S. & Webb, I.M. 1995. *Learning to Change.* London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Hart, E. & McMillan, J. 1996. Leadership and Organisational Transformation. *Human Resource Management.* February 1996. Vol. 12, No. 1. 4-12.

Haskins, G. & Mitchell, A. 1989. *Making and Managing Change and Innovation.* Conference Summary. Sweden: The Foresight Network.

Hater, J.J. & Bass, B.M. 1988. Supervisors' Evaluation and Subordinates' Perceptions of Transformational and Transactional Leardership. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* 1988. Vol. 73, No. 4. 695-702.

Havelock, R.G. & Havelock, M.C. 1973. *Training for Change Agents.* Michigan: University of Michigan.

Hays, W.L. 1994. *Statistics.* Forth Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Hedrick, T,E., Bickman, L. & Rog, D.J. 1993. *Applied Research Design.* London: Sage Publications.

Hein, E.C. & Nicholson, M.J. 1994. *Contemporary Leardership Behavior.* Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company.

Hellriegel, D. & Slocum, J.W. 1996. *Management.* Ohio: South Western College Publishing.

Hendry, J., Johnson, G. & Newton, J. 1994. *Strategic Thinking: Leadership and the Management of Change.* Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. & Johnson, D.E. 1996. *Management of Organizational Behaviour.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Hodge, B.J. & Anthony, W.P. 1984. *Organization Theory.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Hoffman, F.O. 1983. Is Management Development Doing the Job? *Training and Development Journal.* January 1983. 34-39.

Hofmeyer, K.B. 1980. Manpower Planning: How to do it. *People and Profits.* June 1980. 6-8.

Hofmeyer, K.B., Rall, J. & Templer, P.J. 1995. The Future Challenges Facing South African Human Resource Management. *South African Journal for Business Management.* September 1995. Vol. 26, No. 3. 108-114.

Holcomb, J. 1994. *Make Training Worth Every Penny: On-Target Evaluation.* Amsterdam: Pfeiffer & Company.

Howell, D.C. 1989. *Fundamental Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences.* Boston: PWS Kent Publishing Company.

Human, L. 1991. *Educating and Developing Mangers for a Changing South Africa.* Cape Town: Juta & Company, Ltd.

Human, P. & Horwitz, F. 1992. *On the Edge: How South African Companies Cope With Change.* Kenwyn: Juta & Co. Ltd.

Hutton, B. 1992. *Adult Basic Education in South Africa.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Huysamen, D. 1995. World-class Performance and the Role of Training and Development. *People Dynamics*. February 1995. Vol. 13, No. 2. 30-34.

Huysamen, G.K. 1994. *Methodology for the Social and Behavioural Sciences*. Johannesburg: Southern Book Publishers.

Ishizuna, Y. 1990. The Transformation of Nissan: The Reform of Corporate Culture. *Long Range Planning*. June 1990. Vol. 23, No. 3. 9-15.

Ivancevich, J.M. & Glueck, W.F. 1983. *Foundations of Personnel: Human Resource Management*. Texas: Business Publications, Inc.

Jackson, D. 1997. *Dynamic Organisations: The Challenge of Change*. Hampshire: MacMillan Press Ltd.

Jacobs, M. & Gawe, N. 1996. *Teaching-Learning Dynamics: A participative Approach*. Johannesburg: Heinemann.

Jeffries, D.R., Evans, B. & Reynolds, P. 1992. *Training for Total Quality Management*. London: Kogan Page.

Jerling, K. 1997. *Education, Training and Development in Organisations*. Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.

Johnson, G. 1992. Managing Strategic Change: Strategy, Culture and Action. *Long Range Planning*. Vol. 25, No. 1. 28-36.

Johnson, G. & Scholes, K. 1984. *Exploring Corporate Strategy*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.

Johnson, R.W. & Melicher, R.W. 1982. *Financial Management*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Jones, M. & Mann, P. 1992. *Human Resource Development: International Perspectives on Development and Learning.* West Hartford: Kumarian Press, Inc.

Joyce, P. & Woods, A. 1996. *Essential Strategic Management: From Modernism to Pragmatism.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Kane, E. 1987. *Doing Your Own Research.* London: Marion Boyars.

Kanter, R.M., Stein, B.A. & Jick, T.D. 1992. *The Challenge of Organizational Change.* New York: The Free Press.

Karp, H.B. 1996. *The Change Leader: Using a Gestalt Approach with Work Groups.* California: Pfeiffer.

Kast, F.E. & Rosenzweig, J.E. 1986. *Organization and Management: A systems and Contingency Approach.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Keller, R.T. 1995. "Transformational Leaders" Make a Difference. *Industrial Research Institute.* May-June 1995. Vol. 38, No. 3. 41-44.

King, D. 1968. *Training Within the Organisation.* London: Tavistock Publications.

Kirkpatrick, D.L. 1977. Evaluating Training Programs: Evidence vs. Proof. *Training and Development Journal.* November 1977. 9-12.

Kirkpatrick, D.L. 1983. *A Practical Guide for Supervisory Training and Development.* Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Kirkpatrick, D.L. 1985. *How to Manage Change Effectively.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.

Klein, M. 1997. Change the Only Certainty in an Uncertain World. *Sunday Times Business Times.* 1 June 1997. 1.

Knowles, M. 1986. *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species.* Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

Kono, T. 1994. Changing a Company's Strategy and Culture. *Long Range Planning.* October 1994. Vol. 27, No. 5. 85-97.

Koontz, H. & Weihrich, H. 1988. *Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Kotter, J.P. 1995. Leading Change: Why Transformation Efforts Fail. *Harvard Business Review.* March-April 1995. 59-67.

Kotter, J.P. & Schlesinger, L.A. 1979. Choosing Strategies for Change. *Harvard Business Review.* March-April 1979. 111.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. 1987. *The Leadership Challenge.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Kreitner, R. 1989. *Management.* Boston: Haughton Mifflin Company.

Kroon, J. 1986. *Algemene Bestuur.* Pretoria: Haum Educational Publishers.

Kubr, M. & Prokopenko, J. 1991. *Diagnosing Management Training and Development Needs.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

Labovitz, S. & Hagedorn, R. 1981. *Introduction to Social Research.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Lakhani, K. 1996. Changing "Them" Versus Changing "Us". *People Dynamics.* March 1996. Vol. 14, No. 2. 11.

Lane, J. 1994. State Transformation in South Africa: Implications for Public Administration Training and Research. *Politeia.* 1994. Vol. 13, No. 2. 62-72.

Larwood, L. 1984. *Organizational Behaviour and Management.* Boston: Kent Publishing Company.

Lauer, R.H. 1982. *Perspectives on Social Change.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Lessem, R. 1991. *Total Quality Learning: Building a Learning Organisation.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Lessing, B.C. 1985. Opleidingsbestuur: 'n Interdissiplinêre Benadering tot die Ontwikkeling van Volwasse Leerders Binne Werkverband. Inauguration: Professorship in Industrial Psychology. Rand Afrikaans University. 27 August 1985.

Levitt, T. 1991. *Thinking about Management.* New York: The Free Press.

Lievegoed, B. 1991. *Managing the Developing Organisation.* Oxford: Basil Blakwell.

Longworth, N. & Davies, W.K. 1997. *Life Long Learning.* London: Kogan Page.

Lovell, R. 1994. *Managing Change in the New Public Sector.* England: Longman.

Luthans, F. 1995. *Organizational Behaviour.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Mabey, C. & Iles, P. 1994. *Managing Learning.* London: Rotledge.

Mabey, C. & Salaman, G. 1995. *Strategic Human Resource Management.* Oxford: Blackwell Business.

Madi, P. 1995. Moving the Centre. *People Dynamics.* March 1995. 12-16.

Mahoney, M. 1991. *Human Change Processes.* USA: Basic Books, Inc.

Manning, A.D. 1988. *Business Strategy in the New South Africa.* Halfway-House: Southern Book Publishers.

Manning, A.D. 1988a. *Communicating for Change.* Johannesburg: Juta & Co. Ltd.

Manning, T. 1989. Training Trends. *Productivity South Africa.* April/May 1989. Vol. 15, No. 2. 16- 18.

Manning, T. 1996. Managing Minds - Something Different. *Productivity South Africa.* July/August 1996. Vol. 22, No. 4. 7-10.

Mantzopoulos, V.L. 1995. *Statistics for the Social Sciences.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Margulies, N. & Raia, A.P. 1972. *Organizational Development: Values, Process and Technology.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Marquardt, M. 1997. Building the Learning Organisation. Seminar conducted at Vista University. Port Elixabeth: 4 September 1997.

Marx, A.E. 1997. The Suggestion System as a Useful Instrument in a Learning Organisation. Paper delivered at National Productivity Institute Conference. Pretoria Technikon: November 1997.

Marx, F.W. 1986. *The Personnel and Public Relation Functions in the Business Enterprise.* Pretoria: Haum Educational Publishers.

Marx, S., Reynders, H.J.J. & Van Rooyen, D.C. 1995. *Business Economics: Guidelines for Business Management.* Pretoria: J.L.Van Schaik.

Massie, J.L. 1987. *Essentials of Management.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc.

Matthews, R. 1997. Future Managers: Experts in Change Management and Strategic Thinking. *People Dynamics.* July 1997. 18-25.

May, T. 1993. *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Process.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Mbigi, L. & Maree, J. 1994. The Spirit of African Transformation. *People Dynamics.* October 1994. Vol. 12, No. 11. 21-31.

Mbigi, L. & Maree, J. 1997. *Ubuntu: The Spirit of African Transformation Management.* Randburg: Knowledge Resources, Ltd.

McGill, M.E. 1977. *Organization Development for Operating Managers.* New York: Amacom.

McMahon, F.A. & Carter, E.M.A. 1990. *The Great Training Robbery.* London: The Palmer Press.

Miner, J.B. 1985. *The Practice of Management.* Columbus: Charles E. Merril Publishing Company.

Mintzberg, H. 1983. *Structures in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations.* London: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Mintzberg, H. & Quinn, J.B. 1991. *The Strategy Process: Concepts, Contexts & Cases.* London: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Misselhorn, H. 1997. Some Basic Principles: Change and Development in Organisations. *People Dynamics.* November 1997. Vol. 15, No. 11. 38-49.

Mitchell, W.S. 1984. Wanted: Professional Management Training Needs Analysis. *Training and Development Journal.* October 1994. 68-70.

Mondy, R.W. & Noe, R.M. 1987. *Personnel: The Management of Human Resources.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Mondy, R.W. & Premeaux, S.R. 1995. *Management: Concepts, Practices and Skills.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Mondy, R.W., Sharplin, A.S., Holmes, R.E. & Flippo, E.B. 1986. *Management Concepts and Practices.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Montgomery, C.A. & Porter, M.E. 1991. *Strategy: Seeking and Securing Competitive Advantage.* Boston: Harvard Business Review Book.

Moore, E.R. 1984. Competency-Based Training Evaluation. *Training and Development Journal.* November 1984. 92-94.

Moore, W.E. 1974. *Social Change.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Morgan, P. 1994. Selecting a Training Company. *Productivity South Africa.* November/December 1994. Vol. 20, No. 5. 12.

Morris, D. & Brandon, J. 1993. *Re-engineering Your Business.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Morton, C. 1994. *Becoming World Class.* Hampshire: MacMillan Press, Ltd.

Motala, S. 1991. *Training for Transformation.* Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Mouton, J. 1996. *Understanding Social Research.* Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik.

Mülder, I. 1991. Manpower Training for Productivity, Quality and Occupational Safety. Paper delivered at National Symposium: Manpower Development for the New South Africa. Pretoria: 2-4 October 1991.

Mulder, M., Nijhof, W.J. & Brinkerhoff, R.O. 1995. *Corporate Training for Effective Performance.* Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Mullins, L.J. 1996. *Management and Organisational Behaviour.* London: Pitman Publishing.

Mumford, A. 1993. *How Managers Can Develop Managers.* Hampshire: Gower.

Nadler, L. 1982. *Designing Training Programmes: The Critical Events Model.* Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Nasser, M.E. 1984. Achievement Training - A Re-assessment of the Technique and its Impact on the Development of Supervisory and Managerial Talent in South Africa. *South African Journal of Business Management.* 1984. Vol. 15, No. 2. 105-108.

National Manpower Commission. 1982. Annual Report. Pretoria: Government Press.

National Training Board. 1990. *Guidelines for Manpower Planning, Training Planning and Development Planning.* Pretoria: IPM

National Training Board. 1993. *Annual Report.* Pretoria: Government Printer.

National Training Board. 1994. *A Discussion Document on National Training Strategy Initiative.* Pretoria: Government Printer.

Nel, C. 1994. The Challenge of Organisational Transformation: Democracy at Work. *People Dynamics.* November 1994. Vol. 12, No. 12. 8-15.

Nelson , D.L. & Quick, J.C. 1997. *Organizational Behaviour: Foundations, Realities and Challenges.* Minneapolis: West Publishing Co.

Neuman, W.L. 1997. *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Newstrom, J.W. 1978. Catch-22: The Problems of Incomplete Evaluation of Training. *Training and Development Journal.* November 1978. 22-24.

Newstrom, J.W. 1980. Evaluating the Effectiveness of Training Methods. *The Personnel Administrator.* January 1980. 55-60.

Newstrom, J.W. & Davis, K. 1993. *Organizational Behavior.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Noer, D.M. 1997. *Breaking Free: A Prescription for Personal and Orgnizational Change.* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Northcraft, G.B. & Neale, M.A. 1994. *Organizational Behavior: A Management Challenge.* Forth Worth: The Dry Den Press.

Nutt, P.C. 1992. *Managing Planned Change.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Oppenheim, A.N. 1992. *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement.* London: Printer Publishers.

Osbaldeston, M. & Barham, K. 1992. Using Management Development for Competitive Advantage. *Long Range Planning.* 1992. Vol. 25, No. 6. 18-24.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. 1989. Oxford: University Press.

Parasuraman. A. 1991. *Marketing Research.* Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publication.

Parker, A. 1983. Evaluating Training: A "How to" Guide for Trainers. *Training and Development Forum.* September 1983. 5-7.

Pearce, J.A. & Robinson, R.B. 1989. *Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.

Pedhazur, E.J. & Schmelkin, L.P. 1991. *Measurement, Design and Analysis: An Integrated Approach.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Pedler, M., Burgoyne, J. & Boydell, T. 1991. *The Learning Company: A Strategy for Sustainable Developement.* London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Peters, T.J. & Waterman, R.H. 1982. *In Search of Excellence.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Phillips, J.L. 1992. *How to Think About Statistics.* New York: WH Freeman & Company.

Pilley, C. 1990. *Adult Education, Community Development and Older People.* London: Cassel.

Pretorius. B. 1996. Winning Organisations: What will be Required in the Future. *HRM Year Book.* 1996. Vol. 11, No. 10. 20-22.

Price, A. 1997. *Human Resource Management in a Business Context.* London: International Thomson Business Press.

Quick, T.L. 1991. *Training Managers so They Can Really Manage.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Race, P. & Smith, B. 1995. *500 Tips for Trainers.* London: Kogan Page.

Randall, J.S. 1978. Effective Training: Part 1. *Training and Development Journal.* May 1978. Vol. 32. 10-19.

Reaves, C.C. 1992. *Quantitative Research for the Behavioural Sciences.* New York: Jogn Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Reid, M.A., Barrington, H. & Kenney, J. 1992. *Training Interventions: Managing Employee Development.* London: Institute of Personnel Management.

Ribler, R.I. 1983. *Training Development Guide.* Virginia: Prentice-Hall Company.

Robbins, S.P. 1996. *Organizational Behavior.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Robinson, K.R. 1981. *A Handbook of Training Management.* London: Kogan Page.

Rogers, A. 1989. *Teaching Adults.* Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Rogers, J. 1993. *Adult Learning.* Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Rossiter, M. 1989. Organization Development or Organization Transformation - What's Different? *IPM Journal.* December 1989. 21-23.

Rothwell, W.J. & Kazanas, H.C. 1988. *Strategic Human Resources Planning and Management.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Rothwell, W.J. & Kazanas, H.C. 1994. *Human Resource Development: A Strategic Approach.* Massachusetts: HRD Press.

Rowland, K.M. & Ferris, G.R. 1982. *Personnel Management.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Rue, L.W. & Holland, P.G. 1986. *Strategic Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Ryan, C. 1994. Catalyst for Change. *Productivity South Africa.* May-June 1994. Vol. 20, No. 2. 10-13.

Sadler, P. 1996. *Managing Change.* London: Kogan Page.

Sage, G.H. 1984. *Motor-learning and Control.* Iowa: W.M.C. Brown Publishers.

Schacht, S.P. & Stewart, B. 1995. *Social Statistics: A User Friendly Approach.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Schermerhorn, J.R., Hunt, J.G. & Osborn, R.N. 1997. *Organizational Behavior.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Schultz, D.P. 1982. *Psychology and Industry Today.* New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, Inc.

Senge, P.M. 1997. *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learnming Organization.* London: Century Business.

Sherman, A., Bohlander, G. & Snell, S. 1996. *Managing Human Resources.* Ohio: South Western College Publishing.

Sikes, W., Drexler, A.B. & Gant, J. 1989. *The Emerging Practice of Organization Development.* Virginia: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

Silberman, M. 1990. *Active Training.* New York: Lexington Books.

Silverman, R.E. 1982. *Psychology.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Simon, J.L. & Burstein, P. 1985. *Basic Research Methods in Social Science.* New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company,

Smit, G.J. 1995. *Research Guidelines for Planning and Documentation.* Johannesburg: Southern Book Publishers.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje, G.J. de J. 1992. *Management Principles: A Contemporary South African Edition.* Kenwyn: Juta & Co. Ltd.

Sommer, R. & Sommer, B.B. 1991. *A Practical Guide to Behavioural Research: Tools and Techniques.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Stammers, R. & Patrick, J. 1975. *The Psychology of Training.* Britain: Richard Clay, Ltd.

Startup, R. & Whittaker, E.T. 1982. *Introducing Social Statistics.* London: George Allen & Unwin.

Steers, R.M. & Black, J.S. 1994. *Organizational Behavior.* New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.

Stewart, J. 1993. *Speed Training: Systems for Learning in Times of Rapid Change.* London: Kogan Page.

Steyn, A.G.W., Smit, C.F., Du Toit, S.H.C. & Strasheim, C. 1994. *Modern Statistics in Practice.* Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik.

Straughan, R. & Wilson, J. 1983. *Philosophy about Education.* London: Holt, Rinehart & Wilson Ltd.

Strebel, P. 1996. Why do Employees Resist Change? *Harvard Business Review.* May-June 1996. 86-92.

Struwig, F.W. 1997. *Guidelines for Master's and Doctor's Degree Students.* Pretoria: Vista University.

Sudman, S. 1976. *Applied Sampling.* New York: Academic Press.

Sunday Times Business Times. 1997. *Change can be Habit Forming.* 20 April 1997. 21.

Swanepoel, H. 1990. The Training of Trainers. *Africanus.* 1990. Vol. 20. 11-17.

Swieringa, J. & Wierdsma, A. 1992. *Becoming a Learning Organisation: Beyond the Learning Curve.* England: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Taylor, B. 1995. The New Strategic Leadership: Driving Change, Getting Results. *Long Range Planning.* October 1995. Vol. 28, No. 5. 71-81.

Tearle, R. 1992. *Managing Transition: New Ways of Thinking about Your Business.* Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik.

Teke, M. 1997. Empowering the South African Worker. *People Dynamics.* October 1997. Vol. 15, No. 10. 23-31.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary. 1982. Britain: Oxford: University Press.

Thompson, R. 1995. *Managing People.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heineman.

Thompson, R. & Mabey, C. 1994. *Developing Human Resources.* Oxford: Butterworth.

Thorpe, M. & Grugeon, D. 1987. *Open Learning for Adults.* London: Longman.

Tichy, N.M. 1983. *Managing Strategic Change: Technical, Political and Cultural Dynamics.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Tichy, N.M & Devanna, M.A. 1986. *The Transformational Leader.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Tobin, D.R. 1993. *Re-educating the Corporation.* Essex Junction: Oliver Wight Publications, Inc.

Toffler, A. 1979. *Future Shock.* London: Pan Books.

Tracy, W.R. 1984. *Designing Training and Development Systems.* New York: Amacom.

Trapnell, G. 1984. Putting the Evaluation Puzzle Together. *Training and Development Journal.* May 1984. 90-93.

Trice, H.M. & Beyer, J.M. 1993. *Cultures of Work Organizations.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Tromp, D. 1997. Developing Transformational Leadership Competencies. Paper delivered at National Productivity Institute Conference. Pretoria Technikon: November 1997.

Truelove, S. 1995. *Handbook of Training and Development.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Tyson, S. & York, A. 1996. *Human Resource Management.* Oxford: Made Simple Books.

University of South Carolina. 1997. The Process of Reengineering Life Cycle Methodology: A Case Study. [Online]: http://www.business.sc.edu/business/centers/prlc_1.htm.

Urban, T.F., Ferris, G.R., Crowe, D.F. & Miller, R.L. 1985. Management Training: Justify Costs or Say Goodbye. *Training and Development Journal.* March 1985. 68-71.

Vago, S. 1989. *Social Change.* New York: Prentice-Hall.

Van Der merwe, S. 1995. *The Process of Market-driven Transformation.* 1995. Vol. 28., No. 2. 79-91.

Van Dyk, P.S., Nel, P.S., Loedolff, P van Z. & Haasbroek, G.D. 1997. *Training Management: A Multi Disciplinary Approach to Human Resources Development in South Africa.* Johannesburg: International Thompson Publishing.

Van Fleet, D.D. 1988. *Contemporary Management.* Boston: Houghton Mufflin Co.

Van Niekerk, W.P. 1988. *Contemporary Management.* Durban: Butterworth

Van Tonder, H, De Bruyn, H.E.C. & Kruger, S. 1998. The Effect of Transformational Leadership on Organisational Culture. Paper delivered at 10th Annual Conference of the South African Institute for Management Scientists. Mpwekweni Sun: 31 May - 2 June 1998.

Van Wyk, R.J. 1985. Environmental Change and the Task of the Human Resource Manager. *South African Journal of Business Management.* June 1985. Vol. 16, No. 2. 71-75.

Veldsman, T. 1995. Managing Large Scale Change Successfully: Closing the Gap Between Where You are and Where You Want to be. *Human Resource Management.* August 1995. Vol. 11, No. 7. 35.

Von Hirschfeld, S. & Downs, S. 1992. Change Through Understanding. *People Dynamics.* May 1992. Vol. 10, No. 8. 27-28.

Wallace, J.B. 1991. *Developing Better Managers: Creating Change Through Effective Training.* London: Kogan Page.

Watson, C.E. 1982. *Management Development Through Training.* Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Watzlawick, P., Weakland, J.H. & Fisch, R. 1974. *Change.* New York: W.W. Norton & Company.

Weeks, R.V. 1988. *The Interactive Role of Organizational Strategy and Culture: A Strategic Management Approach.* Unpublished M.Com Thesis. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.

Wessman, F. 1975. Determining the Training Needs of Managers. *Personnel Journal.* February 1975. 109-125.

Wick, C.W. & Leòn, L.S. 1993. *The Learning Edge: How Smart Managers and Smart Companies Stay Ahead.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Wilson, T. 1994. *A Manual for Change.* England: Gower Publishing Ltd.

Yukl, G. 1994. *Leadership in Organizations.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Zaccarelli, H.E. 1992. *Improving Employee Performance: Effective Training Strategies and Techniques.* London: Kogan Page.

Zaltman, G. & Duncan, R. 1977. *Strategies for Planned Change.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

APPENDIX A

A COPY OF THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

VISTA UNIVERSITY

QUESTIONNAIRE

The items in this questionnaire deals with aspects of organisational change or transformation and the facilitating role of training. Kindly ensure that you respond to ALL statements.

The information provided in the questionnaire will be regarded as strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

SECTION A
ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Mark your response to each statement by circling only ONE number on the following 5-point scale.

(1) Disagree strongly
(2) Disagree slightly
(3) Neither agree nor disagree
(4) Agree slightly
(5) Agree strongly

MY ORGANISATION:		Agree Strongly				Disagree Strongly
1	Has an open problem-solving climate	5	4	3	2	1
2	Does not have strict, formal lines of authority	5	4	3	2	1
3	Bases authority on the existence of knowledge and competence	5	4	3	2	1
4	Ensures that relevant information is available to decision-makers	5	4	3	2	1
5	Maximises collaboration among individuals and/or groups	5	4	3	2	1
6	Allows people to exercise self-control and direction at work	5	4	3	2	1
7	Encourages work teams	5	4	3	2	1
8	Uses participation and empowerment of all	5	4	3	2	1
9	Allows members to become more active and confident in maintaining organisational effectiveness	5	4	3	2	1
10	Strives to improve the functioning of the organisation through planned renewal	5	4	3	2	1
11	Has learning strategies to improve knowledge and skills	5	4	3	2	1
12	Uses participative policy-making	5	4	3	2	1
13	Implements flexible reward structures	5	4	3	2	1
14	Uses front-line members as environmental scanners	5	4	3	2	1
15	Has a life-long learning climate	5	4	3	2	1
16	Promotes self-development for all	5	4	3	2	1
17	Has a shared vision that emerges on all levels	5	4	3	2	1
18	Resolves conflict through collaborative learning and/or integration of diverse viewpoints	5	4	3	2	1

19	Formulates and implements ideas on all levels	5	4	3	2	1
20	Can be regarded as a learning organisation that facilitates the learning of all its members	5	4	3	2	1
21	Continually expands its innovative capacity to create its future	5	4	3	2	1
22	Continually experiments and improves its capacity to deliver new goods and services to customers	5	4	3	2	1
23	Learns at a faster rate than that at which the organisation is changing	5	4	3	2	1
24	Regards learning as part of working	5	4	3	2	1
25	Facilitates the process of transformation that enables the organisation to search for new ideas and/or opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
26	Views failures as learning experiences with a strong desire for continuous development	5	4	3	2	1
27	Understands and manages the process of satisfying customers in innovative ways	5	4	3	2	1
28	Is sensitive to the needs of others by empowering them	5	4	3	2	1
29	Articulates a set of core values and exhibits behaviour congruent to these values	5	4	3	2	1
30	Has a desire for continuous self-learning and development	5	4	3	2	1
31	Copes with and frames problems in a complex and changing world	5	4	3	2	1
32	Has visions and/or dreams that are created and translated for others to share	5	4	3	2	1
33	Has leaders which portray charisma	5	4	3	2	1
34	Inspires and mobilises commitment of organisational members	5	4	3	2	1
35	Takes the unique needs and capabilities of followers into account	5	4	3	2	1
36	Has leaders who stimulate innovation and creativity	5	4	3	2	1
37	Has leaders whose behaviour interacts with that of followers and the situation	5	4	3	2	1
38	Has leaders who are responsible for orchestrating and sustaining the transformation of the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
39	Displays the ability to create an image of a desired future state or condition	5	4	3	2	1
40	Has leaders who arouse intense emotions in followers	5	4	3	2	1

41	Does your organisation make use of any organisational development techniques (eg. team building or quality-of-work-life programmes)? If yes, please indicate in the space provided.	Yes	No
	(a)		
	(b)		
	(c)		
	(d)		

SECTION B
TRAINING IN THE ORGANISATION

Mark your response to each statement by circling only ONE number on the following 5-point scale.

(1) Disagree strongly
(2) Disagree slightly
(3) Neither agree nor disagree
(4) Agree slightly
(5) Agree strongly

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS CHARACTERISE THE NATURE OF TRAINING IN MY ORGANISATION (indicate whether applicable in your own organisation):

	IN MY ORGANISATION:	Agree Strongly				Disagree Strongly
1	Training is a planned managerial programme of individual and organisational growth	5	4	3	2	1
2	Training enlarges the capacity of the organisation to adapt and change	5	4	3	2	1
3	Training is viewed as a systematic approach to incorporate learning in the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
4	Training is used to prepare members to meet the changes in the workplace	5	4	3	2	1
5	Training programmes are designed to support change strategies in the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
6	Training programmes maximise the balance between learning and doing	5	4	3	2	1
7	Training contributes to the development of the innovative capacity of the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
8	Training is directed at the creation of an environment in which learners are stimulated to find their own approach to key problems	5	4	3	2	1
9	Transformational leadership is an important subject of management training and development	5	4	3	2	1
10	Training programmes build the requisite skills for fulfilling leadership roles	5	4	3	2	1
11	Training is the most widely used approach for improving leadership in the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
12	The training process is related to the context of the external environment in which the organisation operates	5	4	3	2	1
13	Training for change is vital for the long-term survival of the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
14	Training enhances the capacity of people to cope with change	5	4	3	2	1
15	Upgrading of managerial capabilities is necessary in situations of rapid change	5	4	3	2	1
16	Training programmes respond to shifts in strategic action of the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
17	Training initiatives are linked to the mission of the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
18	Training people for change prior to it taking place, assists in understanding why change is necessary	5	4	3	2	1

19	Training designs vary in detail, depending on the scope of change for which the training programme has been designed	5	4	3	2	1
20	Training is not only seen as a functional area, but one which possesses the capabilities necessary to help transform the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
21	It is realised that top-to-bottom organisational member training is necessary to change how the organisation operates	5	4	3	2	1
22	Executives are trained to understand corporate strategy and how to achieve it	5	4	3	2	1
23	Training is provided to increase managers' awareness of the organisation's competition	5	4	3	2	1
24	Training assists people to become agents for change in the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
25	There is a need for a new approach to training that will promote continuous adaptation in the organisation	5	4	3	2	1
26	Before any training takes place all factors that influence change are identified	5	4	3	2	1
27	The training philosophy stipulates that by providing training, the capacity to adapt to change will be enhanced	5	4	3	2	1
28	The training policy explicitly emphasises the aspect of training for change	5	4	3	2	1
29	An analysis of the organisation, task and employee, provides information for determining the variables which highlight the need for change (indicating where training is needed)	5	4	3	2	1
30	Training needs and objectives are formulated, based on the need for change	5	4	3	2	1
31	In order to bring about change, the appropriate training methods need to be selected (eg. job rotation or coaching)	5	4	3	2	1
32	Training implies change which is realised by the actual implementation of the training programme	5	4	3	2	1
33	The transfer of training to the workplace is ensured by practising what is learnt	5	4	3	2	1
34	Continuous feedback ensures that the training programme facilitates the proposed change in the organisation	5	4	3	2	1

35	Does your organisation, before designing the actual training programme, consider the following aspects?			
	(a) Training budget	Often	Sometimes	Never
	(b) Obtaining instructional resources (physical, financial and human support) needed for change	Often	Sometimes	Never
	(c) Selection of trainees	Often	Sometimes	Never

SECTION C
CLASSIFICATION DATA

Please provide the required information by circling the appropriate number and/or furnishing the necessary information in the space provided.

1. MAIN ACTIVITY

Please indicate the main activity (type of business) of your organisation (eg. banking, engineering, motor industry, insurance, clothing etc.)

_____

2. NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES

< 100	1
100-199	2
200-299	3
300-399	4
400-499	5
500-999	6
1000+	7

3. ANNUAL GROSS REVENUE IN RAND

0 - R999 999	1
R1 million - R10 million	2
Above R10 million	3

4.	Does your organisation have a fully developed training department/section?		Yes	No
5.	(a)	Is there a specifically designated post for a change agent in your organisation?	Yes	No
	(b)	If NO, does your organisation make use of an outside consultant or change agent?	Yes	No

6.	How would you characterise the environment (with regard to change) in which your organisation operates?	
	Static	1
	Moderate	2
	Dynamic	3

7.	In general, would you regard your organisation as a transformed/changed organisation in the following fields/environments?		
	(a) **Organisational politics** (eg. management and unionisation)	Yes	No
	(b) **Economic** (eg. provides a wide range of quality products/services and caters for structural changes in consumer income)	Yes	No
	(c) **Technological** (eg. uses latest technology and processes and make provision for a research and development budget)	Yes	No
	(d) **Social/cultural** (eg. respects diverse values and involvement in consumerism and social responsibility)	Yes	No

8.	In general, what is your **personal viewpoint** with regards to the following aspects?		
	(a) Do you regard **organisational development** as an important technique for bringing about planned renewal in the organisation?	Yes	No
	(b) Do you agree that the **learning organisation** can facilitate organisational change?	Yes	No
	(c) Do agree that **transformational leadership** is important during periods of organisational change?	Yes	No
	(d) Do you agree that **training programmes** should support the **change strategies** of an organisation?	Yes	No
	(e) Do you agree with the **pace of organisational transformation** in South Africa? If No, indicate too fast or too slow.	Yes	No
		Fast	Slow

9.	Would you and your organisation be prepared to participate in an in-depth study to analyse the aspects of training for transformation/change in your organisation, with a view to developing a South African **case study**? If yes, please provide name, contact address and telephone number.	Yes	No

10. **YOUR DESIGNATION (JOB TITLE):**_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND COOPERATION!!!

APPENDIX B

A COPY OF THE COVERING LETTER

29 June 1998

Dear Sir/Madam

Re: ***TRAINING FOR ORGANISATIONAL TRANSFORMATION***

The accelerating rate of change in the current business environment is compelling organisations to undergo major strategic reorientations to remain competitive. "Organisational transformation" has indeed become a new buzzword, but not unduly so. Organisations are employing a wide variety of strategies, action plans and techniques to deal with the impact of transformation or change.

Our concern is restricted to one of the tools in the hands of management to deal with organisational transformation: **training**. The Department of Business Management at Vista University, Port Elizabeth, has undertaken a study to investigate various aspects of **transformation** and the facilitating role of training.

You have been selected to participate in this important research project. As a training specialist or human resources practitioner, we believe that your insights and input can make an important contribution to the success of this study. We appeal to you to kindly complete the attached questionnaire and return it in the reply-paid envelope before **24 July 1998**. Information provided will be regarded as strictly confidential and you or your organisation will in no way be linked to the final results. The results of the study will be available on request.

Thank you for your valuable time and assistance. We are looking forward to your inputs. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

E.E. Smith
Department of Business Management
PORT ELIZABETH

APPENDIX C

A COPY OF THE REMINDER POSTCARD

Vista University
Private Bag X613
PORT ELIZABETH
6000
6 July 1998

Dear Sir/Madam

REMINDER!! *REMINDER!!* *REMINDER!!*

Re: QUESTIONNAIRE: TRAINING FOR TRANSFORMATION

A questionnaire with regards to organisational change and the facilitating role of training, was sent to you on the 29 June 1998. We would like to thank those who had returned the questionnaire to us. Your effort and input towards this research project are appreciated.

This is also a reminder to those who did not respond, to kindly complete the questionnaire and return it in the reply-paid envelope, which was send to you, to us before 24 July 1998.

Thank you for your valuable time and assistance. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

E.E. Smith
Department of Business Management