INFLUENCE OF TRAINING ON THE PERFORMANCE OF NON-TEACHING EMPLOYEES AT MANAGEMENT LEVEL IN SELECTED PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

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Influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya

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A thesis submitted for the award of the degree of doctor of philosophy in human resource management in the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture And Technology.

2016
DECLARATION
This Thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my four sons Boaz, Charles, David and Nelson, for their patience, understanding and cooperation as the study took most of the time for family.
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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CBT</td>
<td>Computer Based Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD ROMs</td>
<td>Compact Disc- Read only Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMESA</td>
<td>Community Members of Eastern and Southern Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVD</td>
<td>Digital Versatile Disc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-Learning</td>
<td>Electronic Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR</td>
<td>Human Resource</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labor Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JKUAT</td>
<td>Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KU</td>
<td>Kenyatta University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBO</td>
<td>Management By Objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMUST</td>
<td>Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OJT</td>
<td>On the Job Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDAs</td>
<td>Personal Digital Assistants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMART Goal</td>
<td>Specific, Measureable, Attainable, Realistic, Time Targeted Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.O.N</td>
<td>University of Nairobi</td>
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OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS:

Coaching: Refers to communicating with an employee for improving on the job performance or behavior and is a form of systematic feedback intervention designed to enhance employees’ professional skills, interpersonal awareness and personal effectiveness (Mwesigwa, 2010).

Development Refers to systematic efforts affecting individual knowledge or skills for purposes of personal growth or future jobs and roles (Appiah, 2010).

Employee Absenteeism Refers to voluntary non-attendance at work, without valid reason. It may mean either habitual evasion of work, or willful absence as in a strike action. It does not include involuntary or occasional absence due to valid reason, or reasons beyond one’s control, such as sickness or accidents (Gamage, & Imbulana, 2013).

Learning Refers to the means by which a person acquires and develops new knowledge, skills, capabilities behaviors and attitudes (Truitt, 2011).

Mentoring Refers to the way learning is facilitated in the workplace, and is designed to make use of guided learning to develop the knowledge and skills required for high performance (Noe, 2010)

Motivation Refers to the process in which an individual wishes and decides to act in a specific way of people (Opu, 2008).
**Off the job Training**  
Refers to a form of learning administered away from the place of work hence reduces on disruptions. It is productive due to nature of interaction and involvement experienced (Ongori & Nzondo, 2011).

**Training Effectiveness**  
Refers to the study of individual, group or organizational level factors that influence learning in training and transfer after training (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009).

**Training Evaluation**  
Refers to the systematic investigation of whether a training program resulted in knowledge, skills, or affective changes in learners (Mullins, 2009).

**Training:**  
Refers to planned effort by an organization to facilitate employees’ learning, concerning job-related competencies such as knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are critical for successful job performance (Armstrong, 2009).

**Training Needs Assessment**  
Refers to a process of identifying performance requirements and the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by an organization’s workforce to achieve the requirements (Nyongesa, et al. 2014).

**Mode of Training**  
Refers to a particular type, or technique of training (Hornby, 2002)

**Training Duration**  
The amount of time (days) dedicated to deliver learning content (Tracey, 2015)

**Training Feedback**  
Refers to information that employees receive while they are performing how well they are meeting objectives (Noe, 2010).
Motivation  Refers to strength and direction in behavior and the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways. It can also refer to goals that individuals have and how individuals choose their goals, and ways in which others try to influence their behavior (Armstrong, 2009).

Performance  Refers to how well employees perform on the job and assignments given to them against the accepted performance standards set by the organization (Appiah, 2010)

Non-teaching employees at management level  Refers to employees within grades 13, 14 and 15. They include Senior Assistant Registrars, Deputy Registrars and Registrars (University statute)
ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to establish the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. The scarcity of contemporary literature necessitated this study since most studies on university deal with teaching employees while the category of non-teaching employees at management level has been marginalized. Limited finances have forced universities to cut on training budgets thus making maintenance and improvement of quality of services a challenge. The objectives were: to determine the influence of Training Needs Assessment on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya, to establish the influence of mode of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya, to determine the influence of duration of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya, to evaluate the influence of training feedback on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya, and to establish the influence of motivation in moderation of the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. The study was conducted in eight of the twenty-two public universities in Kenya. The study was both qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative due to descriptive statistics which were used in interpreting data and quantitative due to data obtained from questionnaires that was interpreted using statistical packages like SPSS V 20, and Stata V 12, and analysis was done by regression. The study employed survey and co-relational design methods. The study used open and closed ended questionnaires and a Likert measurement scale of 1 to 5 which were administered to 176 non-teaching employees at management levels in selected public universities. The 176 non-teaching employees were selected through purposive and stratified random sampling technique. Regression analysis was used to quantitatively determine relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Data was presented in pie-charts, histograms, bar-graphs, figures and tables. The study results revealed that Training needs assessment, Training duration, Training mode and...
Training feedback were statistically significant and therefore had a significant influence on the performance of the non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. Motivation has a significant moderating effect on all the variables. Public universities should continue administering TNA to employees to help identify areas affecting staff and recommend trainings to bridge the gap between what is happening and what is expected. Public universities should recognize the effect of globalization and step up computer/web based training/awareness to all employees, in order to survive in this competitive era. Programs should be well designed and take adequate duration to enable appropriate evaluation and timely training feedback should be conveyed to employees after attending trainings. Public universities should as well consider effecting timely financial and non-financial benefits to employees.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction
The purpose of this chapter is to orient the reader to the content of the research report. In addition, it states the problem, research objectives and reasons why it is important to do the research.

1.1.1 Background of the Study
Kenya Vision 2030 intends to create a globally competitive and adaptive human resource base to meet the requirements of a rapidly industrializing economy. To achieve this much needs to be done through life-long training and education (Republic of Kenya, 2007). Human Resource must be invested in and leveraged efficiently in order for it to generate returns, for the individuals involved as well as an economy as a whole. World Economic Forum reported that the global economy is entering an era of talent scarcity that, if left unaddressed, will hinder economic growth worldwide (Odhong, 2015). Human capital investment is one of the key factors in combating high and persistent unemployment and problems of low pay and poverty (Ogunade, 2011).

Employee training is an envied undertaking in the university, and it is believed that training will aid performance output due to acquired skills, technology and knowledge (Odinga, 2010). Organizations that extensively train their employees create a reputation for valuing and developing employees and are able to attract a cadre of highly skilled employees (Kipkebut, 2010). It is imperative that the institutions of higher learning or businesses whose goals are to survive and prosper invest in training and development to improve production and acquire great returns in the investment of human capital (Truitt, 2011). Human capital model is based on the premise that additional non-compulsory training increases the productivity of labor in a perfectly competitive market (Omolo, 2014).
According to Akala (2010), training is crucial for the development of non-teaching employees. HR activities such as job training, coaching, mentoring, counseling, and general career development enable employees get support, knowledge, abilities that promote chances of being employed, and remain marketable. Employability includes skills, knowledge and competencies that enhance a worker’s ability to secure and retain a job, progress at work and cope with change, secure another job if he or she so wishes or has been laid off, and enter more easily into the labour market at different periods of his or her lifecycle (Franz & Omolo, 2014).

Odhiambo and Waiganjo (2014), Kipkebut (2010), state that the influence of non-teaching employees who they refer, to as “invisible workers” have been marginalized in scholarly contributions. Their work is mostly administrative and entails supporting the work of teaching staff, dealing with student non-academic matters, and working in administrative functions such as finance, HR, Marketing, University Corporate Department and many other sections.

Training is well suited for making clear contribution to enhance human well-being and performance in work places and society as a whole. American Society for Training and development spent over 126 Billion dollars annually on employee training and development (Aquinis & Kraiger, 2009). In recent years, American companies have been encouraged to embrace a variety of performance-enhancing or progressive human resource management (HRM) practices such as training; so as to improve their competitiveness in the global marketplace Mitiku (2015), Weil & Woodland (2005) argued that training falls under HRD function which has been agreed to be an important function of HRM. HRM activities are considered as a gift in the eyes of employees and training is one of them (Mahbuba, 2013).

Iqbal et., al. (2014) argued that training has positive impact on employees’ performance in the context of “Telecommunication Sector” in Pakistan. They pointed out the significance of training for human development. In the research paper, they acknowledged that training is more important for the achievement and progress of the establishments. Training is, therefore essential to improve the awareness, abilities
and assertiveness of the workers as well as creates an opportunity for workers to obtain additional information based on the training.

In addition, Khan et., al. (2014), indicated that there is a significant relationship between organizational performance in the oil and gas industry in Pakistan and recruitment and selection; training and development; performance appraisal; compensation and rewards; and employee participation. He further suggested that management get the desired results of assigned tasks through effective training programs.

Training activities positively impact on performance of individuals and teams, therefore benefits accrue from outcomes of training for both individuals and teams, such as attitudes, motivation and empowerment. Such changes result in improved job performance and acquisition of new skills (Armstrong, 2009; Mullins, 2010). Not all employees will come to the job with complete knowledge and experience necessary for performing assigned tasks and therefore they must be trained so as to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills (Buyens, 2010). It is for this reason that a study within Kuala Lumpur by Juhary (2000), argued that most organizations consider the development of human resources as important investment efforts towards the development of the performance of the organization. The main method suggested for human resource development is the provision of training.

A study on the “value of training on motivation among health workers in Narok county argued that there is a relationship between training and motivated health workforce in Narok County (Osoro, 2016). In the same breadth, a comparison of the motivations of small business owners in Africa by Benzing and Chu (2009) revealed that motivational factors significantly contributed towards the good performance of an organization. These motivational elements can be acquired in different ways, one of which is training. According to Mulwa (2003) motivation is the key for the productivity, profitability and sustainability of every institution and it ought not to be a one off undertaking but a continuous undertaking by management as long as the organization does exist.
Tsai et al. (2007) state that, commitment is a product of adequate training and development which aim at job completion hence increases job performance. In this case, the gap between skills, abilities, knowledge of organizational goals and objectives required to perform a task and the actual skills available for performing a task should be minimized to provide job satisfaction, reduce turnover and enhance job performance. A satisfied worker is bound to be committed and perform better at work. In addition (Farooq & Khan, 2011), allude that lack of skills can lead to lack of job satisfaction leading to dismal performance and expose business to a lesser advantageous position, hence, competitive disadvantage.

Ajibade & Ayinla (2014), study made public that several advantages can be achieved through training, including the enhancement of job satisfaction among employees, in addition to commitment and collective empowerment. Meanwhile, Garcia (2005) posed that training leads to employee, client and shareholder satisfaction. Training for organizational staff ensures that service provided to the customer is at the most satisfactory level.

According to Truitt (2011), 86% of the employees who updated training had the most positive attitudes toward training. However, 80% of those with negative training attitudes had negative views on their proficiency. In this case, employees could perform better at work due to training and practice which had enabled them the proficiency. Such employees, who train, have the skills and are proficient, will exude confidence and perform better giving rise to high individual and organizational productivity and performance. Training that is of importance is one that is geared towards employees acquiring skills to improve organizations and university overall objectives and goals.

Susan (2013) study on “Capacity Building in the Public Service in Kenya: An Evaluation of the Senior Management Course” revealed that training in Senior Management Course improved the leadership, financial and managerial skills of participants. This position is also supported by Odhon’g (2015) who argues that there is a positive significant relationship between human capital investment and organizational performance.
According to Anne et., al. (2015), employee empowerment (autonomy, decision making, information sharing and training) has a significant effect on organization performance. Employees who receive specific training for instance, on-the-job training are likely to stay, than those who do not attend such trainings (Brum, 2007). In a study within Botswana-Gaborone, Ongori and Nzonzo (2011), state that contribution and improvement of organizational performance is primarily through developing people as individuals, work groups and members of the wider organization. Training, therefore, is intended to raise effective employees to meet the exigencies of organizations dynamic environment. The employees acquire more knowledge, skills and attitudes to help improve their performance in the organization.

Use of management inventory charts, company tours for newly recruited graduates, replacement, rotation programs and a series of formal courses that characterize training and development, seem to be a mechanical process. In multinational companies, training can provide an important impetus to achieve shared values and to facilitate network building between headquarters and subsidiaries. This decision was also supported by Ngo et al. (2010) and Paul (2003) whom in their paper on “Human resource practices of firm performance of multinational corporations” stated that staff efficiency improvement, leads to better service after purchase and customer satisfaction.

Training of employees in universities, increases productivity through better job performance, more efficient use of human resources, attainment of goals and objectives, reduced costs due to less labor turnover, reduced errors, reduced accidents and absenteeism, more capable workforce and retention of existing staff (Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011). Similarly, Echard and Berge (2008), observes that effective training techniques can produce significant business results especially in customer service, product development and capability in obtaining new skills. He continues to argue that linkage of training to business strategy has given many businesses the needed competitive edge in today’s global market. Training also improves the culture of quality business workforce and final product (Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011). This argument has been confounded by Roomi et al., (2009) who
stated that training is mainly geared towards building entrepreneurial skills and traits of the recipients in order to better their businesses practices.

According Truitt (2011), organizations can adopt various HRM practices such as training to enhance employee skills. Efforts can focus on improving the quality of the individuals hired, or on raising the skills and abilities of current employees, or on both. Product innovation and product quality can be positively affected by training (Katou, & Budhwar, 2007). In support of this, a study by Azara et al. (2013) affirmed significant and positive association between training and development of new products and trustful relationship. Furthermore, an empirical assessment on the relationship between human resource practices and firm performance in Malaysia-(Osman et al, 2011) also acknowledged that training contributes significantly to the performance of an organization, implying an affirmative link sandwiched between human resource systems and organizational performance.

According to a study in Ethiopia by Mitiku (2015), training and development positively correlated and was statistically significant with employee performance and effectiveness. This relationship was tested for causality using linear regression statistical model and found out employee effectiveness had a direct cause and effect relationship with employee performance, and training and development.

Dessler (2005) postulated that having high quality employees, puts an organization in a competitive advantage over others even if it were in the same industry. Inadequacy of expertise is a major constraint; therefore, organizations are assertive in organizing training programs for their employees. Training is of benefit both to employee and the organization. In this case, training becomes an opportunity leading to promotion, self-improvement, job satisfaction, better job performance, a chance to learn new things and greater ability to adapt and cope with change (Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011). Dessler (2005) continues to state that once a decision of training is made and training needs and goals have been identified, then designing of training programs should follow. Failure to conduct training need assessment or identification of skill deficits leads to poor performance; as conferred by Ongari and Tari (2015), who argued that Kenya electricity generating and distribution firms lacked clear policies governing
training and development and this had a negative effect on organizational performance.

According to a study by Guerrero and Sire (2001), comprehensive training design structure is capable of improving productivity and encouraging better product performance and quality. Additionally, Obisi (2011) in his paper ‘employee training and development in Nigerian organizations, emphasized that organization should properly evaluate their training program so that their organization objectives and missions are achieved. Training can not only change the ability of workforce in performing their current job but also aids them in the fulfillment of future expected task.

The organization may use on the job or off the job training methods and the trainers may be sourced from in-house or externally or use a combination of both sources. Tukunimulongo (2016) study on Mumias Sugar, deduced that on-the-job-training programs enhance employee performance in public organization. Similar findings were also observed by Kasau (2014) who argued that training is central in determining employee performance especially in service firms under which micro-finance institutions fall. The research further confirmed that training has a big influence on performance with attitude, job satisfaction and service delivery equally getting the same weight.

In reference to studies by Swart et al. (2005), organization management ought to adopt training interventions to bridge the gap between desired and actual performance. Bridging the performance gap involved adopting a particular training intervention aimed at changing specific skills and attitudes of the employees.

Ayodeji et., al. (2011), argues that there is evidence revealing that commendations have conquered the fact that high commitment work practices improve performance, labor productivity and the quality of service, although other researchers maintained a different view. They argue that majority of previous studies looked at high commitment work practices from the employees’ perspective; therefore overdependence on such perspectives can sometimes be misleading and may not present the real impact on organizational performance. Further, it is maintained that,
when employees positively interpret high commitment work practices, it will sequentially increase their commitment to the organization thereby increasing their individual performances. Companies that seek to achieve organizational goals through a variety of human resource strategies and approaches in ensuring employee commitment and retention lies in the strategic approach utilized. Training may be used to ensure that an employee remains in the company by employers implementing a strategy of training that fosters commitment. Committed employees will work hard and boost productivity at individual and organizational performance level. When an organization trains an employee he or she is bound to reciprocate by exerting more effort, become more productive and have greater sense of debt to the organization (Brum, 2007). The impact of training will be felt if its values lie in the part it will play in the integrated Human Resource Management (HRM) strategy, especially if there is a lot of investment in quality and flexibility of workforce.

Training and development is envisaged as the process of systematically developing expertise in individuals for the purpose of improving performance (Swanson, 2001), since an organization is seen as an amalgamation of many interactive systems and sub systems. In an organization, there are inputs, processes and outputs. Employees come in, are trained, acquire knowledge and skills which they use in production processes. The employees turn out to be better after training, perform better and increase both individual and company performance, culminating in high productivity and output.

Afshan et., al. (2012), define performance as the achievement of specific tasks measured against predetermined or identified standards of accuracy, completeness, cost and speed. Employee performance can be manifested in improvement in production, easiness in using the new technology and highly motivated workers. Employee performance is normally looked at in terms of outcomes. However, it can also be looked at in terms of behavior (Armstrong 2000). There are a number of performance standards that can be taken into consideration when measuring performance for example using of productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, quality and profitability measures (Ahuja, 2006).
1.1.2: Brief on Kenya’s public universities

Higher education in Kenya can be traced back to 1922 when the then Makerere College in Uganda was established as a small technical college which was then expanded to meet the needs of the three East African countries i.e. Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika and Zanzibar, as well as Zambia and Malawi. In the 1940s and early 50s it is only this college that was providing university education in East Africa. This lasted until 1956 when the Royal Technical College was established in Nairobi. In 1963, the Royal Technical College became the University College, Nairobi, i.e. following the establishment of the University of East Africa with three constituent colleges in Nairobi, Dar es Salaam and Kampala (Makerere). The University of East Africa offered programmes and degrees of the University of London till 1966. In 1970, the University of East Africa was dissolved to create three autonomous universities of Nairobi, Dar es Salaam and Makerere (Chacha, 2004). The University of Nairobi was thus established as the first university in Kenya offering degrees in Bachelor of Arts, and Bachelor of Science in Engineering under the University of London (Kipkebut, 2010).

Kenyatta College that offered Diploma education became a constituent college of Uon. Since 1980, a great expansion of public universities was experienced and, with high demand for university education, six more universities were established for instance Moi University was established in 1984, following recommendation of a working presidential party chaired by Professor MacKay. Kenyatta University was elevated to university status in 1985, and is well known for offering degrees in education.

Following the same demand for university expansion and for reasons of political expediency, two more universities were set up within two years: Egerton University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. Between that time to the present, two other universities have been established: Maseno University and Masinde Muliro University (Odhiambo, 2011). About twenty three private universities were also established to help to alleviate the pressure of demand for
university education in Kenya and operated under Commission for Higher Education (Mwiria et., al. 2007)

1.1.3: Status of Higher Education in Kenya

Universities are expected to make contributions to national development through training and development of human resources in various professions for the labor market (Mwiria et., al. 2007). According to UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education (1998), low funding from the exchequer, increased enrolment, limited access compared to the population level, increased enrolment without commensurate improvement in available facilities, gender inequality, and a low research capacity, are some of the problems facing universities in the region.

These problems have led to extreme pressure on the human and physical resources making it difficult for universities to maintain reputable levels of performance in relation to their core mandate of teaching and research. Employees’ dissatisfaction because of various monetary and non-monetary factors is another major area of concern for public universities because it is resulting in high turnover rates among academics while those who have remained are actively involved in moonlighting activities to supplement their income (Kipkebut, 2007).

Abagi et., al. (2007) also posits that Kenyan Universities have destroyed middle level colleges in a bid to extend university education to the public especially in remote regions. Universities should involve other stakeholders if they have to survive for instance government, private sector and international community. They should also observe quality, excellence, equity, responsiveness, governance and management (Kipkebut, 2007).

Kipkebut (2007) found that academic staff lacked respect for non-teaching employees. Administrators were most appreciated or acknowledged for skill or knowledge in their everyday work (a case of Australia). In the case of USA, UK, Finland and Netherlands, Dobson et., al. (2000) cited lack of appreciation of differences in nature of work between administrators and faculty caused tension.
1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study begins from the realization of the need to effectively administer the effect of training on employee performance. According to Elnaga and Imran (2013), Training is a systematic process to enhance employee’s skill, knowledge and competency, necessary to perform effectively on the job. Overall, training impacts employee performance.

According to Kipkebut (2007) unplanned increase in student population and creation of more public universities over the past two decades with no commensurate increase in funds, have led to extreme pressure on the human and physical resources. This has made it difficult for universities to maintain quality performance in pursuit of their core function of training and research.

During the past decade, Kenya’s public university system has experienced very high rates of growth which have not been accompanied by a commensurate rise in the level of funding. Unfortunately the government has been facing constraints in funding the universities. Foreign partners and financiers have played a crucial role in alleviating the universities’ financial shortcomings (Cheboi, 2004). Nevertheless, financial limitation still remains the universities’ main challenge yet they are expected to provide quality education to their clients (students) whose population has been growing rapidly (Kosgei, 2004). It is because of this situation that some universities in their attempts to be economical in expenditure have reduced their training budgets despite the importance of training on employee performance.

Non-teaching employees (Senior Assistant registrars’, Deputy Registrars and Registrars) at management level are some of the employees whose training programs have been decreased or discontinued because of budgetary constraints. This means that training programs for enhancing skills on administration, support for the work of teaching staff, dealing with student non-academic matters, and working in administrative functions such as finance, HR, Marketing, University Corporate Department and many other sections has be affected and in turn affected individual and organizational performance (Odhiambo & Waiganjo, 2014).
Non-teaching employees are likely to fail in accomplishing targets due to lack of advanced technology, as such, timely feedback coupled with exposure to relevant training may minimize negative training outcomes (Farooq & Khan, 2011). There is need to establish the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Reviews of past studies conducted in Kenya on performance indicate that the researchers examined influence of training on performance of many other employees but not non-teaching employees at management level in public universities. Appiah et al. (2011) investigated the impact of training on employee performance: a case study of HFC bank (Ghana) limited. The findings showed that training positively impacted on employee performance. Dabale (2014) carried out a study that examined the relationship between Training and Employee Performance: The Case of Mutare City Council, Zimbabwe. He found a positive relationship between training and performance. Ayodeji et., al. (2011) investigated the role of training in enhancing employees’ commitment to organization. He found out that training enhanced employee commitment.

It is against this background that this study was undertaken to address the research gap, and also provide a better understanding through empirical evidence of the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. This study will be valuable to researchers and academicians in providing more knowledge on the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective.

The general objective of this study was to establish the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.
1.3.2 Specific Objectives.

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To determine the influence of training needs assessment on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

2. To establish the influence of mode of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

3. To determine the influence of training duration on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

4. To evaluate the influence of training-feedback on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

5. To establish the influence of motivation in moderation of the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

1.4 Hypotheses

$H_0^1$ Training needs assessment has no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

$H_0^2$ The mode of training has no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

$H_0^3$ Training duration has no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.
Training feedback has no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Motivation has no significant influence on the moderation of the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

1.5 Justification

Universities emphasize on employee training and staff development as a human resource management strategy to minimize performance deficiencies and align their employees to the ever dynamic work-place demands. This trend has been adapted by public Universities in Kenya which have resorted to spending colossal amounts of money sourced both internally and externally to train their employees (both academic and non-academic). However, there are complaints that the universities still exhibit characteristics that are indicative of poor job performance, such as poor delivery of services, poor lecturer etiquette, and unavailability for consultation especially from feedback of performance appraisals conducted annually (Dawo, et al. 2012).

The study intended to investigate the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected Public universities in Kenya; therefore, close attention was paid on Training Needs Assessment, mode of training such as; (on the job training and off the job training). Training duration for courses to be mounted was found to be important as stated by (Batool, & Batool, 2012). This study will be helpful to university Managers .The knowledge attained will add to existing knowledge and help improve work of future researches; and help Human Resource department introduce technology training, after which employees will excel in performance and gain competency in skills. This will lead to competent and confident employees due to the change envisaged, as contained in (ILO, 2012). Such introduction can lead to automation of human resource functions in the entire university, enable employees to upgrade skills and apply the technology, hence lead to improved performance. Many studies, for instance Kipkebut, (2010); Ngethe, Iravo & Namusonge, (2012) and Obwogi, (2011) have been conducted on teaching
staff at public universities but there are hardly studies on non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities.

The study will benefit universities management and their Human Resource departments will use the recommendations and findings of this study to improve the incorporation of training for improvement of non-teaching employee performance. Government departments will utilize this study to improve the training and performance of their employees and use the information to formulate policies on training. Scholars will use the findings and recommendations to add on existing knowledge. Lastly, the recommendations and findings will be used by HR Departments to improve on training of their employees.

1.6 Scope of the Study
The study was conducted in the eight selected Public Universities in Kenya, and was confined to 900 non-teaching employees at management levels. The following variables were addressed: Training needs assessment, Training mode, Training duration and Training feedback as independent variables. Non-teaching employee performance was the dependent variable.

1.7 Limitations of the Study
There was no major limitations experienced except for some respondents who thought the study would expose their university, but this hurdle was overcome by frequently assuring them that information sought was entirely for academic purposes and would be treated confidentially. With such assurance, the respondents cooperated, and provided the required answers.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
In this chapter, the study intended to critically examine theories of training that are relevant to the research topic. Theoretical scholarly work was reviewed, including theoretical and conceptual framework together with relevant independent and dependent variables. The chapter explored the theories relevant to the study, conceptual framework, and critique of the existing literature, research gaps and summary.

2.2 Theoretical Review
Theoretical review is concerned with explaining phenomena on which a particular study is based on, by stating the constructs and laws that inter-relate these constructs to each other (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003)

There are various theories that relate to how people learn at different times; and drivers that motivate trainees to learn. Some of the theories include Reinforcement theory, Social learning theory, Goal setting theory and Adult learning theory. The theories were described as follows.

2.2.1 Reinforcement Theory
Skinner (2013), states that people are motivated to perform or avoid certain behaviors due to past experiences that arise from these behaviors. Positive reinforcement results from pleasurable behavior outcome. Positive reinforcement theory suggests that for trainees to acquire knowledge, competency, and modify skills, the trainer needs to identify what outcomes the learners finds most positive and negative, then link the outcomes to the training practices. Reinforcement theory suggests that trainees are likely to adopt a desired behavior, through training, if the changed behavior will be of benefit to them (Matofari, 2015).
Negative reinforcement is the removal of pleasurable behavior outcome. When both the pleasurable and un-pleasurable behaviors are withdrawn the resultant behavior is extinction. Punishment is unpleasant outcome resulting from some behavior that may culminate in the decrease in that behavior. For instance, if a supervisor shouts at employees due to lateness, they will avoid the embarrassing shouting by cheating they are unwell or make telephone calls that they will come late or device some mechanism to avoid the boss’ shouting and to ensure the boss does not discover the trick (Noe, 2010). From a training perspective, reinforcement theory suggests that for learners to acquire knowledge, change behavior or modify skills, the trainer needs to conduct a training needs assessment to identify what outcomes the learner finds most appealing and which he or she finds negating.

Upon conducting the training needs assessment, trainers should therefore connect these outcomes to learners acquiring knowledge or skills or changing behavior. There are very many advantages that learners will encounter when they participate in training programs. The advantages include: acquiring knowledge to do work in much easier and interesting ways, and encountering other employees who can serve as resources when problems occur, thus increasing opportunities for promotion. Reinforcement theory maintains that trainers can withhold or provide these benefits to learners who get good understanding of program content. The effectiveness of learning depends on the pattern or schedule for providing these reinforcers or benefits (Mullins, 2010). Modifying behavior is a mode of training that is primarily based on reinforcement theory such as, showing employees safe and unsafe work practices in action. This will make employees appreciate practicing safe behaviors at work. This actually promotes the employees wellbeing and positive feedback given to them. Reinforcement theory argues that behavior is strengthened and controlled by external events, for example Classical Conditioning proposed by Pavlov (2014), and Operant conditioning proposed by Skinner (2013). It is very important for trainers to employ positive reinforcement and feedback, to enable pleasant leaning experiences during the trainings.
Studies by Ololube (2004), employed reinforcement theory in assessment of teachers’ job effectiveness, in which he reveals two variables that promote reinforcement that is environment and observable laws that can be changed or predicted according to the situation available. Armstrong (2009) and Noe (2010), revealed the following variables which a learner must acquire; knowledge, change of behavior, modification of skills, positive feedback and progress achieved in steps leading to desired results.

2.2.2 Social Learning Theory

The theory lays emphasis on the fact that people learn by observing what other people do especially those they believe are credible and knowledgeable (Bandura, 2013) cited in (Noe, 2010). This theory maintains that behavior that is reinforced or rewarded will always recur. In addition to motivating behavior by directly rewarding it, a person may perform behavior that he observes another having been rewarded for (extrinsic reward), and he may learn to reward himself for the appropriate behavior. The models skill that is rewarded is adopted by the observer. In this model, acquisition of new skills or behavior arises from either direct experience or by observation.

Grobler et.al (2006) revealed that training is the use of specific means to inculcate specific learning, using techniques that can be identified and described. Exposure to direct experience as one of the specific means of acquisition of new skills, can be achieved when an employee is exposed to on the job training such as job rotation, lectures, computer based learning and apprenticeship.

Job Rotation was developed in Denmark in the 1980’s and has been defined as systematic movement of employees from one job to another at planned intervals (Dessler and Varkkey, 2009; Malinski, 2002). Job Rotation is the process through which organization employees’ work as displacement at different homogenous levels (Nafei, 2014)

Adjei [2012] defines job rotation as a succession planning tool that enhances skills and legacy of the organization while working to retain younger employees who
increasingly demonstrate desires to learn and experience new things. Implementing job rotation, diversifying job skills, minimizing monotony and thus increasing motivation result in employees’ personal achievement, higher output, decreased absence rate and higher level of acceptance (Abbasi et. al, 2013)

Odhong (2015) stated that, job rotation at the senior management levels is frequently referred to as management rotation. It is tightly linked with succession planning for instance, developing a pool of people capable of stepping into an existing job. Here the goal is to provide learning experiences which facilitate changes in thinking and perspective equivalent to the "horizon” of the level of the succession planning.

Leat, (2007) and Campion (2001) claim that rotating an employee from one department to another is not a luxury but a necessity of today’s professional climate as it provides an intermittent opportunity to employees to tackle higher-level diversified tasks which bring about greater job interest/motivation and involvement among them and subsequently enhance their job performance. Job rotation also improves employee’s problem-solving abilities and shared understanding of the job and enhances team efficiency (Mohsan et al., 2012).

According Rhaman et al., (2011) skill can be passed on using lectures, as he maintains that lecture method is basically narration that will signify what we usually call explanation or description.

According to Walker (2003) there are three main reasons for using the lecture format for instance to transmit information, to create interest, and to promote understanding. According to Rahaman (2011) lecture method can be used to effectively survey the structure of knowledge in a particular area as well as suggest the connection between cases and real decision-making. This mode of training reaches trainees at an emotional level, and provides necessary motivation for learning difficult material.

Computer Based Learning also known as Computer Aided Instruction refers to the use of computers as a key component of the educational environment. While this can refer to the use of computers in a classroom, the term more broadly refers to a structured environment in which computers are used for teaching purposes.
Computer-Based learning has many benefits; including the advantage of users learning at their own pace and also learning without the need of an instructor to be physically present (Julia et al. 2009). Chambers et al., (2008) findings revealed that computer assisted instruction is an effective tool for increasing performance.

According to Harris e.t., al (2007), apprenticeship involves teaming up apprentices with a knowledgeable, skilled adult worker (a mentor) who guides and assists the apprentice in skill and knowledge acquisition. The second means of acquisition of new skills is through observation. Observation is the action or process of examining something or someone in order to gain information and can be through simulation or role play.

Recent advances in technology have positioned simulations as a powerful tool for creating more realistic, experiential learning environments and thereby helping organizations meet these emerging training challenges Bell et., al. (2008). Bell et., al. (2008), defines a simulation as an exercise involving “reality of function in a simulated environment.” They further note that an essential feature of simulations and other synthetic learning environments (e.g., virtual reality) is, “the ability to augment, replace, create, and/or manage a learner’s actual experience with the world by providing realistic content and embedded instructional features.”

Like other types of distributed learning systems, simulations allow training to occur almost anywhere and anytime, and this flexibility can be used to reduce or eliminate many of the variable costs associated with traditional training, such as classrooms and instructors (Summers, 2004). Simulations also possess unique features that create the potential for instructional benefits not offered by other instructional mediums. For example, simulations can be used to create a synthetic- or micro-world that immerses trainees in a realistic experience and exposes them to important contextual characteristics of the domain (Schiflett, Elliott, Salas, & Coover, 2004)

Simulations can also be used as realistic practice Simulation-Based environments for tasks that are too dangerous to be practiced in the real world or to provide opportunities for practice on tasks that occur infrequently Bell et., al. (2008).
A growing body of literature suggests that simulations can serve as effective training tools. Washbush and Gosen (2001), for example, identified a total of 11 well-designed experimental studies of business simulations and concluded that the use of simulations improved learning by an average of 10% on pre- and post-training knowledge assessments. Bell et., al. (2008), included quasi-experimental studies in his review, but reached a similar conclusion that simulation gaming produced better learning than the use of business case studies. Bell et., al. (2008) in their recent review of synthetic learning environments, noted that simulations have been shown to be effective in a variety of contexts, including the training of pilots, clinicians, military personnel, fireman, and survey interviewers. A number of studies have also shown that in addition to enhancing learning outcomes, individuals generally report positive reactions.

The role-playing process provides a live sample of human behavior that serves as a vehicle for employees to explore their feelings, gain insights into their attitudes, values, and perceptions; to develop their problem-solving skills and attitudes; and explore subject matter in varied ways (Lynn et., al. 2015). According to Henriksen (2004) role-play is a medium where a person takes up a role an, is given the opportunity to participate, and interact with the contents thereof and its participants. Seaton, Dell’Angelo, Spencer, & Youngblood (2007) suggest the use of role-play to help in the development of self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-monitoring. However, Karwowski and Soszynski (2008) as well as describe role-play as an activity where a limited number of learners take on specifically assigned and well defined roles, act out an encounter that involves a goal or problem and denotes a cluster of prescribed behaviors associated with particular positions.

Many researchers have discussed the successful use of role-play as a training tool in many different scenarios Svinicki & McKeachie (2011). In a Finnish study of role-playing games, Meriläinen (2012) describes the self-reported social and mental development of role-players. Specific skills that can be gained by role-play include modifying one’s performance in light of feedback, becoming a good listener, showing sensitivity to social cues, managing emotions in relationships, and exercising assertiveness, leadership, and persuasion Lynn et., al. (2015). Karwowski
and Soszynski (2008) used role-play successfully to train undergraduate students in creativity, but they also believed it developed a capability for constructive criticism. Lynn et., al. (2015) suggest role-playing is an appropriate strategy to facilitate employee’s active involvement in learning.

Svinicki & McKeachie (2011) see the chief advantage of role-playing to be that employees are active participants rather than passive observers and therefore must make decisions, solve problems and react to the results of their decisions. Dell’Olio & Donk (2007) believe that roleplaying helps employees make responsible autonomous choices because it provides a forum for exploring multiple ways of acting and reacting in a given situation. Hall, Quinn, & Gollnick (2008) on the other hand state that experiences gained through role play can take the place of firsthand experiences that may be impossible to otherwise achieve. They further explained that participants often cite such experiences as the most informative and influential part of their training.

From another point of view, this theory maintains that learning is also influenced by self-efficacy. This is a situation where an individual passes judgment on whether he can successfully learn knowledge and skills (Noe, 2010). A person’s self-efficacy can be enhanced using the following: Verbal persuasion, logical verification, observation of others (modeling) and past accomplishments. For instance, Verbal persuasion implies using or applying words of encouragement to convince others that they can learn. Logical verification involves perceiving a relationship between a new task and an already mastered task, (Noe, 2010). Trainers and managers can encourage employees by telling them that they succeeded in learning similar tasks. Modeling, involves having employees who have mastered the learning outcomes demonstrated to them, for trainees. This can either be through job rotation, lecture method, Computer Based learning or apprenticeship. Employees will therefore be motivated by confidence and success of their peers, and past accomplishment where employees are allowed to build a history of successful accomplishments. Employees may be placed in situations where they are likely to succeed and provide training so that employees know what to do and how to do it.
The processes that can be revealed through Social Learning theory are attention, retention and motor reproduction.

People cannot learn by observation unless they are aware of important aspects of a model’s performance. Attention is influenced by characteristics of the model and the learner. Learners must be aware of the skills or behavior they are supposed to observe. The model must be clearly identified and credible and, the learner must have the physical capability (sensory capability) to observe the model (Noe, 2010). A learner who has been successful in learning other skills or behavior by observing the model is more likely to attend to the model. Learners must remember the behaviors or skills that they observe. Learners have to code the observed behavior and skills in memory in an organized manner so that they can recall them for the appropriate situation. Behaviors or skills can be coded as visual images (symbols) or verbal statements. Motor reproduction involves putting in practice the observed behavior to ascertain they culminate in the same reinforcement that the model received. Recalling of behavior and skills is an indication that the learner can reproduce them. Performance of behavior may lack perfection on the first attempt. Practice and feedback are important components which help behavior to be like that of the model (Noe, 2010).

Learners enjoy and adopt modeled behavior whose results are positive. Social learning theory emphasizes that behaviors that are reinforced (a motivational process) are likely to be repeated in future. Use of employee participation during appraisal may reveal some positive rewards to employees who will enjoy the appraisal and make the manager apply the same other times.

Studies by Brum (2007) revealed that training has an integral part to play in socialization of employees. Employees can also learn by watching, observing others, and, by imitation (Mullins, 2010). Thus, the process relies on complex, cognitive processes, which encompass attention, recall, and understanding. The trainee requires individual intelligence, judgment and skill in order to repeat the behavior. We must admit that behavior has its pros and cons and may not conclusively explain certain forms of learning. Bandura (2013), and Wenger (2006), reveal that learning occurs
through social interactions, which they refer to as “community practice” as groups of experts working together.

2.2.3 Goal Setting Theory

Locke (2012) stated that behavior results from a person’s conscious goals and intentions. People’s behaviors are influenced by goals which direct energy and attention, sustaining effort over time and motivating them to develop strategies for goal attainment. Goal setting theory can be used in training program design (Noe, 2010).

It has been agreed that specific challenging goals result in better performance than vague unchallenging goals. The goals ought to be relatively difficult to enable the employees strive towards their attainment. Easy goals do not stir any incentive. Harder goals that push employees to new levels of performance will greatly benefit the employee by confirming to them that they are capable (Locke, 2012).

Goals usually lead to high performance especially when employees are committed to the goals. Successful attainment of a goal depends on the level of commitment the individual places towards achievement of the goal. Locke & Lotham (2006) argued that goal commitment is the degree of determination one uses to achieve an accepted goal. The degree of determination is pegged on the importance the individual’s places on the attainment of the goal as well, the belief that they can achieve the goal coupled with hard work.

Goal theory suggests that joint setting of objectives, feedback and involvement which are all part of managerial approach, can improve motivation (Locke and Lotham, 2006). When objectives are explained to employees their motivation increases. As such, goals must be specific, measurable, attainable and time bound (Lunenberg, 2011).

Employees realize that their work is being evaluated, and their contributions are being recognized when they receive feedback. Feedback is necessary in-order for goals to remain effective and retain commitment. Feedback allows employees and
teams to spot any weakness in their current goals therefore allowing modifications to be made (Hitt, 2002).

Positive feedback inculcates a sense of pride and self-interest among employees because they appreciate the fact that the employer recognizes their contributions. If employees know that an attractive reward is attached to a goal, they will increase effort, commitment and performance in order to attain such a goal (Kawesa, 2004).

Goal setting theory involves: goal orientation, learning orientation and performance orientation. Goal orientation refers to goals held by a trainee in a learning situation and includes learning orientation, or performance orientation. Learning Orientation refers to increased ability or competence in a task. People with learning orientation believe that training success is defined as showing improvement and making progress. They prefer trainers who are more interested in how trainees are learning than in how they are performing and view errors and mistakes as part of the learning process. Performance Orientation refers to learners who focus on task performance and how they compare to others.

Persons with performance orientation define success as a high performance relative to others, value high ability more than learning. Goal orientation is believed to affect the amount of effort a trainee will expend in learning (motivation to learn). Learners with a high learning orientation will direct greater attention to the task and learn for the sake of learning in comparison to learners with a performance orientation. Learners with a performance orientation will direct more attention to performing well and less effort to learning, Noe (2010). Research has revealed that trainees with a learning orientation exert greater effort to learn and use more complex learning strategies than trainees with a performance orientation. To create learning orientation in trainees, would involve setting goals around learning and experimenting with new ways of having trainees perform trained tasks rather than emphasizing trained task performance, emphasizing competition among trainees, creating a community of learning, and allowing trainees to make errors and experiment with new knowledge skills and behaviors during training.
Studies by Gratton, (2007); Hannagan (2005), view Management By Objectives (MBO) as goals which are set and must be accomplished, similarly, Strategic plans of selected public universities of Kenya, have indicated various goals and objectives which must be met within set time limits. In Human Resource, MBO techniques entail employee involvement in goal setting, decision making. Where employees are encouraged to set their own goals, they are keen on exhibiting commitment and achieving the goals (Kiruja and Mukulu 2013).

Studies by Lunenberg (2011) indicate that Goals must be specific, measurable, realistic, and time targeted (SMART). Feedback is an important variable which helps in correction, modification or further improvement. The study by Akala, (2010), revealed that non-teaching employees are evaluated against set goals in performance contracts and performance appraisals.

2.2.4 Adult Learning Theory

The theory was developed by Knowles (2013), out of a specific theory of how adults learn. The most popular mode of learning has been for youth and children (Pedagogy). Pedagogy gives the instructor major responsibility for making decisions about learning content, method and evaluation. Students are seen as generally being passive recipients of directions and content, bringing few experiences that may serve as resources to the learning environment. Educational psychologists recognized limiting factors in formal education theories and hence developed andragogy (Noe, 2010).

Andragogy the theory of adult learning (Knowles, 2013), is highly associated with adult learning theory. Knowles theory is based on the assumptions that adults have the need to know why they are learning something, have a need to be self-directed, bring more work related experiences into the learning situations, enter into a learning experience with a problem centered approach to learning, and, are motivated to learn both by extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The learner and trainer are both involved in creating the learning experience and ensuring that learning occurs. At the completion of any training, the trainer conducts an assessment by
interviewing and administering questionnaires to the learner so examine whether the training matched the expectations of the learner since in andragogy the trainee is involved in creating the learning experience as well; and this is part of feedback. Upon successful completion of the training, the employee can be promoted, appraised and recommended for better placement or remuneration. The environment of Andragogy must be safe and there should be a sound relationship between trainer and learner for conducive learning and development (Jones, 2016).

The study revealed that Reinforcement theory was dominant as it emphasized the power and control of simple learning principles. First, the Stimulus must be identified and Response follows after which Output/reward is administered as indicated (S → R → O). The reward may be reinforced in case of positive stimuli or withheld in case of negative stimuli but punishment may be administered instead. In the case of negative stimuli, the reinforcement inform of punishment fails to motivate the learner to perform. Such a learner may never appreciate the effect of either the positive or negative reinforcement and therefore the learner continues to perform poorly.

In the course of training session, the learner must follow instructions step by step until the process is complete. Sometimes assessment is carried out to establish whether learning took place. The trainees who pass assessment are rewarded by some incentives such as compliments, acknowledgement certificates, promised promotion, secondment or salary increase. Coupled with knowledge and skills attained during training, the trainees are motivated to perform better in their areas of operation (Noe, 2010).

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework in Figure 2.1 highlights descriptive categories which were systematically placed in broad structure of explicit propositions, statements of relationships between two or more empirical properties, to be accepted or rejected (Nachamias & Nachiamias 2009). Conceptual framework consisted of independent variables and the dependent variable. The dependent variable included performance
of non-teaching staff in management level at selected public universities, while the
Independent variables included, Training Needs Assessment, Mode of Training,
Training Duration and Training Feedback. Motivation was a moderating variable
between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level
in selected public universities in Kenya.

**Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Moderating Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training Needs Assessment</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Performance of Non-teaching staff in management level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Team work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Adherence to policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Competency</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Accomplished targets and goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode of training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- On the job training (job rotation, lecture method, Computer Based learning, Apprenticeship)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Off the job training (Simulation, Role Play,)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Duration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Long-term (PhD, Masters, Bachelor’s, Diploma)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Short term (Certificate courses, workshops, Seminars, Conferences)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Training feedback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Performance appraisal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Evaluation / interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Questionnaires/observations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance of Non-teaching staff in management level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Financial benefits (promotion, better remuneration, scholarship, salary)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Non-Financial benefits (higher responsibilities, recognition, personal advancement)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.3.1 Training Needs Assessment (TNA)

Training needs assessment aims at identifying performance requirements and the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by an organization’s workforce to achieve the requirements (Nyongesa, et al. 2014). Conducting needs assessment is fundamental to the success of a training program (Brown, 2002).

Training needs assessment aims at assessing the trainees’ level of acquaintance with or understanding of a science, art, or technique (Knowledge), possession of means (ability) to complete a task and proficiency (skill) in doing a task. The fact or condition of knowing something with familiarity is gained either through experience, association or training (Noe, 2010).

Training needs assessment involves organizational analysis, personal analysis and task analysis. Organizational analysis involves determining the appropriateness of training given the company’s business strategy, its resources available for training, and support by managers and peers from training activities. Personal analysis involves determining whether performance deficiencies result from a lack of knowledge, skills, or ability or from a motivational or work-design problem, identifying who needs training, and determining employees’ readiness for training. Task analysis identifies the important tasks and knowledge, skills, and behavior that need to be emphasized in training for employees to complete their tasks (Noe 2005).

Due to globalization with many changes in world economies and dynamism at workplace, it is imperative that organizations develop their employees. At times the individuals fund their development by acquiring more knowledge, skills and competencies required at work place (Wairimu, Gachunga & Mumbo, 2013).

TNA is the first step in the process which culminates into training and educational strategy of staff in an organization. TNA is therefore about understanding the nature of the need and strategizing how to solve it. Well planned training programs will give value to organizations in terms of increased productivity, increased morale, reduced costs, increase organization stability and flexibility to adapt to changing external requirements (Nyongesa, et al. 2014). Needs assessment can help improve the quality
of policy or program decisions and may lead to improvements in performance and accomplishments of desired results (Brown, 2002; Sifuna, 2006)

A well-developed development system enables organizations source from their in-house talent for staffing and promotion purposes. This gives assurance that the knowledge, skills, experience and aspirations available are matched with needs of the organization. Sifuna (2006); Wairimu, Gachunga, and Mumbo (2013), admit that education plays an important role in promoting the socio-economic development of a country. Universities therefore have a role of equipping employees with advanced knowledge, skills and competencies (Wairimu, Gachunga & Mumbo 2013). After training needs assessment has been conducted, the employees may be promoted or enrolled for further training to acquire more skills, knowledge and competencies to enable them improve on performance.

2.3.2 Mode of Training

There are mainly two modes of training, namely, on the job training and off the job training.

**On-the job Training**

This mode of training is exposed to new employees and those who lack experience, at a designated place within the work place. The trainees observe what their peers and managers do and later imitate what they observed (Mullins, 2010). On the job training (OJT) can be used for up-skilling in places which require new technology, within departments inform of cross- training, and where an employee has been promoted, or transferred to another section. Job Rotation is one of the OJT (On the job Training ) where trainees are transferred from department to department, job to job, plant to plant, in order to broaden their knowledge and skills and expose them to general operations of the organization (Dessler, 2005). Employees learn a lot from job-rotation experiences such as varied job exposures, and realization that all departments are equally important for the success of the organization.

Lecture method is another form of on the job training method in which trainees listen to trainers during a learning session (Noe, 2005; Ongori & Nzono, 2011). Trainees
learn specific topics and selected programs. Lecture method is limited as it lacks much interaction, participation and involvement. It also lacks feedback on whether the trainees understood the content that had been taught.

Apprenticeship is another form of on the job training, in which a master craftsman imparts skills on learners under his or her supervision. This type of training was commonly found among professionals such as Doctors, dentistry, law, and teaching and was not a preserve for artisans. Both classroom and job experiences are contained in apprenticeship and may require long period under experts guidance in order for trainees to gain proficiency.

Computer based training (CBT) or Digital Versatile Disc (DVD) systems are used by the trainees to enhance learning, acquisition of knowledge and skills (Dessler, 2005). Soft-ware and Computer Packages may be installed in computers for employees to use after tutorial sessions. Computer Based learning (CBT) is economical, time saving, and motivating to employees (Sims, 2006).

**Off the job training**

This is a form of learning administered away from the place of work hence reduces disruptions (Armstrong, 2009; Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011). It is productive due to nature of interaction and involvement experienced. It also allows simulation and role playing (Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011).

Simulation aims at facilitating the transfer of what has been learnt off-the job to on-the-job behavior by reproducing, in the training room, situations that are close as possible to real life. Trainees are thus given the opportunity to practice behavior in conditions identical to act or at least very similar to those they will meet when they complete the course (Armstrong, 2009).

Role playing is used to give managers, team leaders or sales representatives practice in dealing with face-to-face situations, such as interviewing, conducting a performance review meeting, counseling, coaching, dealing with a grievance, selling, leading a group or running a meeting. It develops interactive skills and gives people insight into the way which people behave and feel. In role playing, the participants
act out a situation by assuming the role of characters involved. The situation will be one in which there is interaction between two people or within a group. It should be specially prepared with briefs written for each participant explaining the situation and, broadly, their role in it. Alternatively, role playing could emerge naturally from a case study when the trainees are asked to test their solution by playing the parts of those concerned (Gajanan, 2016).

The technique of ‘role reversal’ in which a pair playing, for instance, a manager and a team leader run through the case and then exchange roles and repeat it, gives extra insight into the feelings involved and the skills required (Gajanan, 2016).

Role playing enables trainees to get expert advice and constructive criticism from the trainer and their colleagues in a protected training situation. It can help to increase confidence as well as developing skills in handling people. The main difficulties are either trainees are embarrassed or they do not take the exercise seriously and overplay their parts (Armstrong, 2009).

Computer based learning is an example of Electronic learning (e-learning), which uses computer Technology. No physical interaction occurs but learners are taught via instructions, observation, and processes that elucidate required skills and knowledge to meet needed organizational goals (Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011).

2.3.3 Training Duration

Various trainings may take varied time, some may be for short duration for instance few weeks to six months, and others may be over long period of time, that is, from seven months to some years (Akala, 2010).

Long - term training

Long term training encompasses PhD, Masters, and Bachelor’s degree. Both teaching and non-teaching employees undertake long term training depending on which education level they wish to accomplish. According to Knowles (2013), theory of andragogy, adults seek knowledge outside normal learning schedule for youth, to
enable them improve on their certificates and when possible to earn promotions, better salary, and associated perks (Odinga, 2010; Kipkebut, 2010).

**Short term training**

Today’s fast-paced and bustling world requires the modern worker to become a jack-of-all-trades. But, rather than spending a lifetime studying degrees and higher qualifications, short courses give employees the opportunity to update their skills (Andrea, 2010).

Akala (2010) revealed that, short term courses for non-teaching employees included workshops, seminars, conferences, symposiums, continuing enrichment courses, certificate courses for short periods of time which may last from a few weeks to six months. Short term programs have been proven to improve the individuals in various ways, and are a big investment for the future.

Ranging from one day to six months, short courses are perfect where the employee intends to formalize the skills gained in the workplace or build upon the qualifications gained through university. They can be the key to unlocking job prospects, promotions or new career ventures – and they’ll do wonders for their creativity. Short courses are an excellent way of filling the gaps in knowledge and give a competitive edge when it comes to job promotions. As technology evolves systems, programs and practices change, making it critical for workers to refresh their skills and stay on top of the game. Short courses are appealing to more employees because they help the employee specialize in a short time and employee feels more competent. For instance, an engineer will learn marketing to boost the marketing component that was lacking. Short courses also help an employee boost their curriculum vitae and show employer that he/she is willing to improve professionally. This enhances chances of being employed as well as self-employment (Andrea, 2010).

**2.3.4 Training feedback**

According to Opu (2008), feedback is the last step in the training process whereby trainees are asked to fill a form expressing their experiences during the training. The
questions seek to establish aspects of the training communication effectiveness on the part of the trainer, relevance of topics, and whether training objectives were achieved. Akala (2010) observed that during performance appraisal and performance contract exercises, non-teaching employees are evaluated against agreed organizational goals and objectives. The strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the employees’ performance evaluation outcome are determined and appropriate action taken. The action may be promotion, transfer, granting of awards, and recognition, further training, as incentives to make the employee perform better. Sometimes employees may suffer due to the biased nature of appraisal systems.

Noe (2010), contends that advanced technology, coupled with affordable costs for accessing technology has influenced delivery of training, making it real and has enabled employees to choose convenient places of work.

2.3.5 Motivation

Mullins (2010) asserted that motivation is the creation of stimuli, incentives and working environments that enable people to perform to their utmost. Thus motivation has a tendency of giving people what they want most from their work and in return, managers require better production, quality, and service. Motivation occurs in various forms such as: financial: promotions, better remuneration and scholarships which encourage more involvement in training. The study further established that employee engagement can be increased through sponsorship in an attempt to develop a performance culture to motivate employees. In terms of non-financial, motivation can be envisaged in higher responsibilities and personal development granted to employees.

Promotion is envisaged as one of the external reward in motivation together with salary and other extrinsic motivators, (Armstrong 2009; Mullins, 2010). On the other hand, intrinsic rewards are internal to people and have to do with personal growth, responsibility, accomplishment, competence, advancement, and recognition.

Promotional opportunities refer to extent employees conceive their chance to grow and gain vertical mobility in the organization. Managers who experience less
mobility are less committed than those who undergo more mobility during their tenure, and unfair promotional opportunities lead to negative attitudes, low morale, and low performance (Kipkebut, 2010).

Odinga (2010) revealed that promotion should be advanced to senior staffs that have been in service for a long time and it should be viewed as a reward for employees with additional skills and knowledge. In addition, fair performance appraisals may be used in promotion policies with consideration of staff competence. Promotion of university employees may depend on academic qualifications, administrative excellence, and, or established policies. Mwesigwa (2010) asserted that managers who engage staff in training programs create a dynamic and motivating climate in the work environment. From studies conducted in Uganda, Mwesigwa (2010) maintains that knowledge and skills must be refreshed by training in order to offer higher performance. Studies by Pheko (2008), indicate that lack of training for staff often leads to frustration and lack of motivation.

2.3.6 Employee Performance

Leung (2006) stated that Organization performance is the evaluation of efficiency, effectiveness and customer satisfaction. Other factors that can contribute to organization performance are government policies, adequate supply of equipment, resources such as finances, materials, the prevailing political and economic environments. Nyakundi, et al. (2012), asserted that employees seem to improve performance in instances where compensation is commensurate to the actual work they do. Employers and supervisors should acknowledge the achievements and accomplishments employees acquire. The study recognized employee performance indicators which include employee retention, absenteeism levels, exceeded targets, employee satisfaction, higher esteem and confidence, budgetary savings, or losses, minimized resources wastage, and relative ranking.

Organizations can improve employee performance by employee empowerment, which is a way of motivating them and has an effect on increasing performance.
Employees should be encouraged to make decisions with regard to the work they perform, input in managerial decision-making, and tasks delegated. Organizations should also provide job security, bonuses, and incentives on achievement of target as these HRM Practices have a strong correlation with employee performance. Other practices to be considered are decision making, allowing employees to plan execution of their duties, delegation, and equipping them with job related skills, set achievable targets, incorporate them in task setting, evaluate them fairly, increase salary on achievement of set targets, and offer administrative rewards (Munjuri, 2011).

2.4 Empirical Review
Studies by Aguinis and Kraiger (2009), stated that many benefits accrue from training such as innovation, tacit skills, adaptive expertise, technical skills, self-management skills, cross-cultural, adjustment and improved performance. They stated that recognition of benefits from training activities has made many countries in the world to adopt policies to improve training design and delivery which in turn lead to improved human capital and greater economic prosperity. Thus organizations should conduct needs assessment tests and use technology for training and provide trainees with adaptive guidance. Studies by Aguinis and Kraiger (2009), state that training should be incorporated with other human resource activities such as employee selection, performance management and rewards in order to succeed. Studies by Appiah (2010), posit that training varies with organizations in terms of amount, quality and quantity.

She revealed that the following factors influence training: quality, quantity of training and development activities, change in external environment, extent of internal change, availability of suitable skills within current employees, and management perception of training as a motivator in work. Studies by Ongori and Nzonzo (2011) revealed that training and development improved organizational effectiveness, enhanced organizational competitiveness and retention of human capital. They also mentioned that Human resource practices (HRM) should be added to the training component to make it complete.
Training is an aspect of human resource practices that help in enhancing employees’ skills, knowledge, and competences thus improving employees’ ability to perform more efficiently on current jobs and future assignment (Falola et., al. 2014). The level of competency, skills and ability of the workforces of an organization influences its ability to preserve its obtained positions and gain competitive advantage (Armstrong, 2010, & Houger, 2006). Meanwhile, employees competence, skills and pro-activeness is directly proportional to the level at which organization can compete with others. Organizations are confronted with increased competition resulting from changes in technology, economic environments and globalization (Nassazi, 2013).

Training plays an important role in employee performance. This is because through training, skills and knowledge are passed from the trainer to the trainee especially on new products/services and technology. It is through training that one builds the right attitudes towards work and unlearns the negative ones. When training is administered, it leads to effectiveness in service delivery and also makes the employees more confident at work hence job satisfaction is achieved (Ngo et.al, 2010).

There has been a lot of research to support the fact that employee performance can improve through training by building a sense of teamwork among employees and to develop specialized financial skills (Chiaburu, 2005). In addition to the aforementioned, one can acquire networks, transfer technology, develop commercial entities and acquire new and better management techniques (Maria et., al. 2012).

Elnaga and Imran (2013) further mentioned that a well-trained worker is able to make best use of organizational resources along with minimum level of wastages. Elnaga and Imran (2013) further mentioned that training sessions accelerate the initiative, ability and creativity of the workforce and to avoid human resource obsolescence that may occur because of demographic factors such as age, attitude or the inability to cope with the technological changes.

According to Kiruja and Mukulu (2013), the purpose of skills development is to provide a range of core skills (entrepreneurial, communication, financial management and participation in decision making processes) so that individuals are
equipped for productive activities and employment opportunities (such as wage employment, self-employment and income generation activities).

The way an organization trains its employees can influence its efficiency. Effective training program helps in constructing a more conducive learning environment for the workforce and train them to cope with the upcoming challenges more easily and in time (Tai, 2006). These programmes can be held on the job (job rotation, lecture method, Computer Based learning, Apprenticeship) or off the job (e.g. simulation and role play). Off the job is argued to be more effective since employees are away from work place and their concentration is fully at training. Depending on the knowledge needed, organization’s structure and policies, the trainers too may be hailing from within the corporation or outside the organization (Nassazi, 2013).

Mitikitu et., al. (2015) affirm that providing formal and informal training for new employees has an influence on employee’s development. There are a number of formal training courses and development program methods which may be used to develop the skills required within an organization. These courses and programmes are usually a set of defined and known programmes where the contents, durations and all the details about the training are clear to both the organization and the personnel to be trained. Unlike informal trainings and programmes, formal training and programmes can be planned earlier and also plan for their evaluation. Employees may undertake these courses and programmes while completely off work for a certain duration of time or alternatively be present for work on a part-time basis depending on whether the training is long-term (PhD, Masters, Bachelor’s, Diploma) or short term (Certificate, Workshops, Seminars, Conferences) (Nassazi, 2013).

Nassazi (2013) argues that policies are necessary to ensure that employee performance is evaluated, which in turn ensures that the appropriate training and development take place. With the help of the performance appraisal reports and findings, the organization can be able to identify development needs. However, individuals themselves can help to indicate the areas requiring improvement as a result of the issues raised in the performance appraisal process and their career path needs.
Performance appraisal is a process that is carried out to enable both the individual and the organization to analyze, examine and evaluate the performance of specified objectives over a period of time. This process can take up formal and informal forms (McCourt & Derek 2003). The purpose of performance appraisal has been classified into two groups that is; the developmental and administrative purpose. The developmental purpose of performance appraisal include providing performance feedback, identifying individual strengths/weaknesses, recognizing individual performance, assisting in goal identification, evaluating goal achievement, identifying individual training needs, determining organizational training needs, improving communication and allowing employees to discuss concerns. On the other hand, administrative purpose includes documenting personal decisions, determining promotion candidates, determining transfers and assignments, identifying poor performance, deciding layoffs, validating selection criteria and meeting legal requirements.

2.5 Critique of the Existing Literature relevant to the study

Most studies such as Brum (2007), Farooq (2011), Kipkebut (2010) and Ngethe (2013) concentrated on benefits of training, training and commitment, productivity, staff development practices, feedback, attitude, turnover and retention in corporate organizations in both the developed and developing world, although training enhances the development of both the individual employee and the organization. It has been suggested that longitudinal studies be conducted and comparison should be made with a control group to determine the relationship between training and improved business performance (Ongori and Nzonzo, 2011).

Training need assessment or identification of skill deficits in the civil service is a rarely performed activity. This could be due to the fact that most of the civil service reform activities are derived from high level decision. Ongalo and Tari (2015) Confer in Kenya electricity generating and distribution firms lacked clear policies governing training and development, which had a negative effect on organizational performance. Additionally, Golden (2003) study on training practices in Irish software companies revealed that almost one third of respondents believed that the
training provided by their organization was not structured based on employee feedback and requirements.

Goldstein (2007) says that, it is very unfortunate some programs have not gone through appropriate needs assessment, and many organizations do not collect the information to determine the usefulness of their own instructional programs. Thus, there is need to carry out studies of the employees ‘views to get their insights, because they are the envisioned consumers of the training events in terms of motivation, attraction and retention.

The other aspect of inefficiency by the training departments in Africa is the implementation of policies issued by the various directorates in charge of Personnel Management. Training and capacity building in the public service has been guided by circulars, general letters, policies, and other directives issued to the service from time to time. Training needs analysis has not been adequately conducted thereby making training more supply driven. This means the key areas of needs are rarely targeted by training hence lack of effectiveness (Mbijiwe, 2013).

Career development and mentoring are also necessary practices that have not been very prevalent in the public service in Kenya. Progression and promotions have in most cases been determined by political, racial, ethnic and other un-friendly considerations other than one’s abilities. It is clear that many public ministries do not have a T.N.A to guide their training projections and priorities (Mbijiwe, 2013). This is not an isolated case for Kenya as Sreekumar (2009) discovered the same of the training departments in India. To stamp the justification further, Stewart (2011) says it is unfortunate organizations sometimes place too much emphasis on the techniques and methods of training and not enough on first defining what the employee should learn in relation to desired job behaviors. In addition, fewer than 50% of all organizations even try to measure the value of training, and fewer still calculate the return in monetary terms. This is true even of sales training which would seem easy to measure. Just 11% of the companies attempt to assess the payoffs of training on sales.
While apprenticeships provide the technical skills needed for paid employment, it is unclear if apprentices receive the skills they need to be successful at self-employment. This is important because many former apprentices become unemployed for various reasons. For example, at the end of the formal apprenticeship period, companies can release apprentices to seek employment elsewhere. Some former apprentices may be unable to find paid employment, or when they do, may find wages in the smaller firms to be lower than their pay in the larger companies where they had received their training. Due to a lack of employment or underemployment, an increasing number of former apprentices leave formal wage employment and choose to enter into self-employment (Erskine et., al. 2012).

Some of the on the job training such as conferences are disadvantageous because it is not easy to ensure that all individual trainees understand the topic at hand as a whole; not all trainees follow at the same pace during the training sessions; focus may go to particular trainees who may seem to understand faster than others and thus leading to under training of other individuals (Mbijwe, 2013).

Performance appraisal has been a nagging problem in work places even in the most developed economies. As Obama (2006) notes of teaching in the U.S.A ,in exchange for money, teachers need to become more accountable for their performance and school districts need to have greater ability to get rid of ineffective teachers. So far teachers’ unions have resisted the idea of pay for performance, in part because it could be disbursed at the whim of a principal. This is a clear indication that there is no clear set system to measure the teachers’ performance even in developed economies like the USA. It is worse when it comes to appraising employees in the poor countries mostly because of the poor accounting systems and the social cultural and political lifestyles in such countries.

The importance of evaluation of training programs cannot be assumed, but this has not made even the best of the best organizations to put a lot of emphasis on them. According to Mbijwe (2013), of the Fortune 500 firms about evaluation indicate that most evaluations (86%) consist of trainee reactions that are written at the end of the
course. Relatively few efforts are made to collect information concerning performance changes by means of follow-up on the job, which is when both the trainee and the organization could discover whether the programs are achieving the desired results and when the evaluation could provide feedback to the modifications necessary to enable the program to work. When this evaluation is not done in such companies, it leaves one wondering if this has been accepted as the norm.

It is however important to note that, if there are no proper systems and plans to deal with the findings of the performance appraisal, the expected benefits of this process for the organization may not be realized. Further still, although good performance appraisal may be good for an organization, it may be bad if not professionally handled. Depending on the appraisal feedback; negative or positive, its impact to the employee may damage the organization if not taken well by the employee (McCourt & Derek, 2003). It can demoralize the employee and sometimes may lead to losing the key employees just because they could not take the appraisal feedback and feel that they will be better off somewhere else.

Arshad (2008), in his study on the “Role of Evaluation of Training in Designing Training Programs in Institutions of Government, Private and Public Sector and Banking Institutions in Andhra Pradesh”, found that the training systems is weak; evaluation of training in many organizations are unscientific and do not indicate transfer of learning on the job, and therefore suggested that the training evaluation system could be improved by simulated learning exercises, group discussions, video films and observation techniques.

Scholars have revealed that motivation can be met in terms of promotions and salary increments but have not mentioned other ways in which employees can be empowered such as career development and other non-financial ways of empowerment. Wairimu, Gachunga, and Mumbo (2013), posit that Universities should use other motivational strategies for instance through appraisal procedures to evaluate staff and enhance their development.

According to Mbijiwe (2013), performance-contingent rewards undermine intrinsic motivation; however, if the reward given to the employee conveys that the employee
has performed on a truly outstanding level, the reward would serve to solidify that employee's sense of competence and decrease the negative effect on that employee's intrinsic motivation.

Kiruja and Mukulu (2013) suggested that people are motivated to seek social equity in the rewards they receive for high performance. According to them, the outcome from job includes: pay recognition, promotion, social relationship and intrinsic reward. To get these rewards various inputs needs to be employed by the employees to the job, such as time, experience, efforts, education and loyalty. They suggested that, people tend to view their outcomes and inputs as a ratio and then compare these ratios with others and turn to become motivated if this ratio is high. Work motivation does not determine employee’s level of performance, but it does influence his/her effort toward performing the task.

Deci (2000) conducted and replicated an experiment that showed the negative impact of monetary rewards on intrinsic motivation and performance. A group of college students were asked to work on an interesting puzzle. Some were paid and some were not paid for the work. The students that were not paid, worked longer on the puzzle and found it more interesting than the students being paid. When the study was brought into a workplace setting, employees felt that their behavior was being controlled in a dehumanizing and alienating manner by the rewards. It was discovered that rewards would seriously decrease an employee's motivation to ever perform the task being rewarded, or one similar to it, any time in the future. Another observation of the study was that employees would expect a reward every time the task was to be completed if the reward was offered at one time. Employees would require the reward in order to perform the job and would probably expect the reward to increase in amount. If the rewards were not increased or if they were taken away they actually served as negative reinforcement.

2.6 Research Gaps
Training is important to employee performance. Much research has been conducted on influence of training on employee’s performance in various sectors of Kenya including banking, manufacturing and education. There are many studies on nexus
between training and performance; however there is lack of studies conducted on influence of training on performance among non-teaching staff at management level in selected public universities. Therefore the need study the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities. The study identified the need to adopt motivation as a moderator because most on the studies conducted earlier had used motivation as an independent variable. Moderators explain the conditions under which an effect or relationship is likely to be present and likely to be stronger (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009). Despite the increasing effects of training of organizational employees, it is worth noting that while much is known about the economics of training in the developed world, studies of issues associated with training in less-developed countries are rarely found hence the need for this study.

2.7 Chapter Summary

Generally, this chapter addressed various theories relevant to training for instance, reinforcement theory, social learning theory, goal setting theory, and adult learning theory.

Skinner (2013), states that people are motivated to perform or avoid certain behaviors due to past experiences that arise from these behaviors. Positive reinforcement results from pleasurable behavior outcome

Reinforcement theory focuses on reinforcing a desirable behavior or inhibiting an undesirable behavior through certain motivators or stimuli. Social learning theory is an approach that synthesizes principles of learning with those of cognitive psychology. Goal setting theory focuses on the assumption that learning is influenced by an individual’s life goals. Adult learning focuses on explaining that adults have a tendency to learn and to know the purpose behind the learning. They learn with a view to gaining experiences and solving problems (Azara, 2013). Training Needs Assessment refers to a process of identifying performance requirements and the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by an organization’s workforce to achieve the requirements (Nyongesa, et al. 2014). Mode of Training refers to a particular type, or technique of training (Hornby, 2002). The amount of time (days) dedicated to deliver
learning content (Tracey 2015). Training feedback refers to information that employees receive while they are performing on how well they are meeting objectives (Noe, 2010).

Motivation refers to strength and direction in behavior and the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways. It can also refer to goals that individuals have and how individuals choose their goals, and ways in which others try to influence their behavior (Armstrong, 2009). Performance refers to how well employees perform on the job and assignments given to them against the accepted performance standards set by the organization (Appiah, 2010) Ongori and Nzono (2011) revealed that training and development improve organizational effectiveness, enhance organizational competitiveness and retention of human capital. Studies by Aguinis and Kraiger (2009), stated that many benefits accrue from training such as innovation, tacit skills, adaptive expertise, technical skills, self-management skills, cross-cultural, adjustment and improve performance

Effective training program helps in constructing a more conducive learning environment for the workforce and train them to cope with the upcoming challenges more easily and in time (Tai, 2006). These programs can be held on the job (e.g. job rotation, lecture method, Computer Based learning, Apprenticeship) or off the job (e.g. simulation and role play). Employees may undertake these courses and programmes while completely off work for a certain duration of time or alternatively be present for work on a part-time basis depending on whether the training is long-term (PhD, Masters, Bachelor’s, Diploma) or short term (Certificate, Workshops, Seminars, Conferences)

Nassazi (2013) argues that policies are necessary to ensure that employee performance is evaluated, which in turn ensures that the appropriate training and development take place. Flippo (2001) adds that employee performance in institutions results in a more motivated work force that has the drive for higher productivity, quality, quantity, commitment and drive

The chapter also reviewed the empirical literature, critiqued it and gave research gaps that emerged from the review.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter addressed the following aspects: research design, sample population, target population, sampling techniques, and measurement of variables, data collection instruments, procedures for data collection, data processing and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design
The study adopted the Survey design and Correlational research designs. Scholars have stated that survey method is associated with deductive approach; it is a popular and common strategy in business and management research (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003; Saunders et al. 2009). Survey design answers questions with “who, what, how much, and how many”. Survey design allowed a large amount of data to be obtained by use of a questionnaire which was administered to a sample; the data was standardized, and allowed easy comparison and was relatively easy to understand and explain. Survey strategy allows collection of quantitative data which is analyzed quantitatively by use of descriptive and inferential statistics, (Mugenda & Mugenda 2003). Data which has been collected can be used to infer possible reasons for specific relationships. The study gained more control over the research process and during sampling it generated the findings which represented the entire population at an affordable cost than collecting data for the whole population.

The idea of a survey is that the researcher obtains the same kind of data from a large group of people or events in an economical, standardized and systematic way. The researcher then looks for patterns in the data that can be generalized to a large population and the group targeted (Martyn, 2010). Survey involves asking questions, interviewing, which form the basis of deriving information (Oates, 2010).

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), also indicates that Correlational research design is basically concerned with assessing relationships among variables. It is thus based on the premise that if a statistically significant relationship exist between two variables,
then it is possible to predict one variable using the information available on another variable.

Correlation is the statistical tool which is used to describe the degree to which one variable is linearly related to the other (Richard, 2009). The range of significant correlation lies between negative one (-1) and positive one (+1). It is strongly positively correlated when it is near positive one (+1).

Akala (2012), Waiganjo (2013) and Sila (2014) all in their studies adopted the survey and correlation design. It is on the backdrop of wide scholarly usage of the two research designs that informed the current study.

3.3. Population

Population is defined as the aggregate of all cases that conform to some sort of specifications, (Nachamias & Nachamias, 2009). In the study non-teaching employees at management level are composed of employees in management cadres in grade 13, 14 and 15. It is the total collection of elements about which the study wishes to make some inferences (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). In this case, the study population consisted of all non-teaching employees in management level in the selected twenty-two public universities in Kenya, who constitute a total of 900. The list of the public universities was attached as Appendix 3. The tabulated form of study population is indicated in Table 3.1.
Table 3.1: Study Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of University</th>
<th>Total No of Non-Teaching staff in Management Level Grade 13 to 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JKUAT</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KU</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOI</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELDORET</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UoN</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMUST</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egerton</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maseno</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedan Kimathi</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chuka</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimedia</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical university-Mombasa</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pwani</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kisii</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Eastern</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masaai Mara</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaramogi Odinga Odinga</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laikipia</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kabianga</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical University –NRB</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karatina</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meru</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>900</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.1: Target Population

Target Population is the population to which a researcher wants to generalize the results of a study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). In this study, the target population was selected by use of purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling procedure in which the study chose participants arbitrarily for their unique characteristics or their experiences, attitudes, or perceptions (Cooper & Schindler 2011; Saunders et al. 2009). Purposive sampling was used because it allows
generalizability to a large population with a margin of error that is statistically
determined. It allows use of inferential statistics. Statistical indices calculated on the
sample can be evaluated to determine the degree to which they accurately represent
the population parameters (Mugenda & Mugenda 2003). The eight (8) Universities
that were sampled for the study included JLUAT, KU, Moi, Eldoret, Egerton,
MMUST, Maseno, and University of Nairobi.

The study was conducted in 8 public universities in Kenya due to the following
reasons: they are the oldest universities in Kenya, and have substantial numbers of
non-teaching employees to sustain the study. The eight were selected by Purposive
sampling method. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), 10% of the required
target population was adequate, and 30 cases are required per group, for statistical
analysis. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) concur that research was possible with samples
of small sizes of 10 to 20. The views from the two Scholars justified the study to be
conducted in the 8 public universities which constituted 39% of the target
population.

Table 3.2: List of Eight Universities in Target Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of University</th>
<th>No of Non-teaching Employees at Management Level in Public Universities in Kenya Grade 13 to 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JLUAT</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KU</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOI</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eldoret</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UoN</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egerton</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maseno</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMUST</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>450</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4. Sampling Frame

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009) a sampling frame is a physical or actual representation of all the elements in the population from which the sample is drawn. In this study, the sample population consisting of all non-teaching staff at management level employed in grade 13 to 15 was worked at 39% as represented in Table 3.3.

3.5 Sample size and Sampling Technique

The sampling method was chosen according to Kothari (2008), and (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009), who maintain that stratified random sampling helps to achieve intended representation from various sub-groups in any given population, and guarantees minimal bias. Random sampling also assists in equalizing between groups the amount of error that occurs as a result of extraneous variables.

In the study, the population was divided into meaningful, subsets that do not overlap and, the subjects were chosen from each subset. The study used stratified and systemic random sampling because the population was heterogeneous. The total population of non-teaching employees in the target population was 450.

The Sample given was statistically determined using the indicated formula, since the total population was less than 10,000 (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

\[ n = \frac{z^2pq}{d^2} \]

Where:

- \( n \) = the desired sample (if the population is greater than 10,000).
- \( z \) = the standard normal deviate at the required confidence level
- \( p \) = the proportion in the target population estimated to have characteristics being measured.
- \( q = 1 - p \)
- \( d \) = the level of estimated significance set.

For instance, a target population with a characteristic .50, the \( z \) -statistic is 1.96, and desired accuracy at 0.05 level, the sample size as follows:
\[ n = (1.96)^2 \times (0.50) \times (0.50) = 384 \]

(0.05)^2

In this case, the target population was less than 10,000, and the required sample size was smaller. To get the sample size therefore, the formula given by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) was adapted in this study.

\[ n_f = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n}{N}} \]

Where:

- \( n_f \) = desired sample size when the population is less than 10,000
- \( n \) = desired sample size when population is more than 10,000
- \( N \) = the estimate of population size

For instance:

\[ \frac{384}{1 + \frac{384}{450}}/384 = 384 / 1 + 1.17 = 384 / 2.17 \]

\[ n_f = 176 \]

Percentage = 176/450*100 = 39%

The study worked with 39%. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), recommend that 10% of the accessible population is adequate, and at least 30 cases are required per group, for statistical data analysis.
Table 3.3: Sample Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of selected public university</th>
<th>No of Non-Teaching Employees at management level</th>
<th>Grades 13</th>
<th>Grades 14</th>
<th>Grades 15</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JKUAT</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KU</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOI</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eldoret</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UoN</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egerton</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maseno</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMUST</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>450</strong></td>
<td><strong>77</strong></td>
<td><strong>73</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>176</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

The main research instruments were questionnaires, and each item of the questionnaire addressed a specific objective, and research question, of the study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Both closed ended (structured) questions and open ended (unstructured) questions were used in the questionnaire. Primary data was collected through questionnaires, while secondary data was obtained from published materials and reports from other scholars. Close ended questions were used because they are easier to analyze since they are in a format that allowed one to use. They were also easier to administer, because they had alternative answers.

On the other hand, Open ended questionnaires allowed for greater depth of response. The respondents may give more information on the topic and they stimulate the individual to think deeper (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Questionnaires generally are low cost, free from bias of the interviewer as answers are in respondents’ own words, respondents have adequate time to give well thought out answers, and inaccessible respondents can be conveniently reached. Large numbers can be accessed, and results can be more dependable and reliable (Kothari, 2008). Likert scale was used on the questionnaires to determine respondents’ scores that are high and those that
are low, for instance 5, representing strongly agree, 4 agree, 3 Not sure, 2 Disagree, to 1, Strongly Disagree (Kothari, 2008; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009; Saunders, et al. 2009).

Most of the employees who fall in the supervisory category were also respondents and gave the same explanations confirming that public universities conducted TNA and exposed employees to various trainings. They concurred that some training sessions were short, others long and employees attended seminars, conferences and workshops. The supervisors revealed that employees were given feedback in various forms such as reports, verbal encouragement/appreciation and certificates on completion of training.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures
Visits were made to the institutions with intention of seeking permission to distribute the questionnaires. Structured questionnaires were used to collect data from respondents, since questionnaires are more objective than interviews, and they gather information in a standard way (Kothari, 2008). With the help of the research assistants, the researcher administered 176 questionnaires after giving notification and the time for distributing questionnaires. There was need to win the confidence of the respondents that whatever information gathered was confidential and it was used for research only (Nachamias & Nachamias, 2009).

The study was as objective as possible, avoiding intrusion on respondents’ privacy which could have made them not respond freely. Generally, the study used the drop and pick method as well as one on one interviews in the administration of the questionnaire with the help of a research assistant. According to Kothari (2008), interview method allows for gathering of more information and in great depth, interviewer can overcome resistance and allows for great flexibility in restructuring of questions. In addition to the aforementioned, personal information can be obtained easily and the interviewer can collect supplementary information about the respondent personal characteristics and environment which is of great value in interpreting results.
The responses from the questionnaire constituted the source of primary data, while secondary data was obtained from published materials and reports.

3.8 Pilot Testing

Before the questionnaire was administered in the field or administered on respondents, it was exposed or tested on 10% of the respondents, that is, 17 respondents. The pilot test intended to refine the questionnaire to reduce problems that could be experienced by respondents. Using Cronbach’s Alpha test known as KR$_{20}$ Mugenda & Mugenda, (2003) enabled the attainment of reliability and validity of the questionnaire that was used to collect data.

The Formula of cronbach’s Alpha test was as follows:

$$KR_{20} = \frac{(K) (S^2 - \sum s^2)}{(S^2) (K-1)}$$

Where:
- $K_{20}$ = Reliability coefficient of internal consistency
- $K$ = Number of items used to measure the concept
- $S^2$ = Variance of all scores
- $s^2$ = Variance of individual items

When results indicated high co-efficiency, it implied that correlation is high, thus, there was consistency in the items measuring the concept. In this case, a result of Alpha of 0.70, and above was regarded by the study as acceptable since it was indicative of high reliability (Sekaran & Bougie 2009).

After pilot testing, the questionnaire and interview guide were revised to incorporate the feedback that was provided.

3.8.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which the data collection techniques or analysis procedures yield consistent findings, free of bias. It is concerned with whether measures give same results at other occasions, whether similar observations were reached by other observers, and whether there was transparency in how sense was derived from raw data (Saunders, et al. 2009).
3.8.2 Validity

At the same time, there was need to test validity, that is, the accuracy and meaning of inferences, based on results of the research. Validity gave the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of data actually represented the phenomenon under study, and the variables of the study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). In Factor analysis when factor loadings are above 0.4, they are valid. This therefore means that they will be retained for analysis stage.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

3.9.1 Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis was used; this included the use of weighted means, standard deviation, relative frequencies and percentages (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Descriptive statistics were used to analyze Qualitative data while SPSS (Version 20) and stata (v.12) were used to analyze Quantitative data (Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Saunders, et al. 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009; and Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

The term analysis implies computation of certain measures along with searching for patterns of relationships that exist among data groups. Generally, data analysis involved a number of closely related operations which were performed with intent of summarizing the collected data, and organizing it in a way that it answers the research questions, Kothari (2008). In the study, editing, coding, classification and tabulation of data was conducted using SPSS (Version 20). Editing ensured that data was accurate, consistent with other facts gathered, uniformly entered, as completely as possible, and was well arranged to facilitate coding and tabulation. Field editing was done as soon as possible. Central editing was done after all forms or schedules were completed and returned to the office. Coding is the process in which numerals or other symbols are assigned to answers to enable responses to be put in categories, or classes. Classification of data involves arranging data in groups or classes on the basis of common characteristics. It was done according to attributes or class intervals (Kothari, 2008). Before analysis, all the outliers were dropped and using the means substitution method all missing values within the data set were replaced with the
sample mean. After replacement, the analysis was run as if all complete cases were present. Data was analyzed using readily available analysis software, SPSS Version 20 and Stata Version 12, (Saunders, et al. 2009).

The equation for multiple regressions was as depicted in the equation below:

\[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \epsilon \]

\( x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \) are independent variables \( x_5 \) is a moderating variable while \( Y \) is the dependent variable.

\( \beta_0 \) is the Constant.
\( x_1 \) is Training needs assessment
\( x_2 \) is Mode of training
\( x_3 \) is Training duration
\( x_4 \) is Training feedback
\( x_5 \) is Motivation
\( Y \) is Performance

\( \epsilon \) is error term assumed to be normal in distribution with mean zero and constant Variance.

The number of equations depended on the number of independent variables.

Individual effect of two variables taken separately gave the coefficient of multiple correlations as follows,

\[ r = \frac{\sum (x-\bar{x})(y-\bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x-\bar{x})^2 \sum (y-\bar{y})^2}} \]

Multiple regression was preferred because it gave expectation of better prediction. From multiple predictors, one can avoid picking or depending on a single predictor, can ‘avoid’ non-optimal combinations of predictors’ for instance total scores.
Multiple regression allowed the examination of more sophisticated research hypotheses, than is possible when using single correlations. This study was exploratory since it aimed to seek new insights into phenomena, to ask questions, and to assess the phenomena in a new light (Saunders et al. 2009).

The study used regression and correlation analysis. Regression was used to examine whether the coefficients of the independent variable can predict the dependent variable. Correlation was used to examine the strength and direction of the relationship between the independent and dependent variable. In this case, the study employed multiple Regression and correlation because there are more than two independent variables Kothari, (2008). Multiple regressions was preferred because it gave expectation of better prediction. From multiple predictors, one can avoid picking or depending on a single predictor, can avoid non-optimal combinations of predictors’ for instance total scores.

3.9.2 Data Presentation

Saunders, et al. (2009), stated that after data entry, and checking for errors, the next stage is analysis. Diagrams may be used to help understand data, and assist choice of analysis. Use of computer packages such as SPSS (Version 20) made it easier to present data. Each Figure and Table was well labeled at every stage. Computer software was helpful, and this called for saving all the diagrams and tables generated electronically. Bar graphs, pie charts, Bar charts, Histograms, line graphs, were used. Quantitative data was presented by use of statistical tables and Bar Graphs while qualitative data was presented descriptively (Saunders, et al. 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009).

3.9.3 Measurement of variables

Measurement can be defined as a procedure in which the researcher assigns symbols or numbers to empirical properties according to rules, (Nachamias and Nachamias, 2009). In this case a likert scale was used to obtain attitudes of respondents. The scale consisted of five points ranging from 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=not sure, 2=disagree and 1=strongly disagree.
Training Needs Assessment: it is geared towards identifying performance requirements, knowledge, skills and competencies needed by an organizations workforce to achieve the requirements (Nyongesa et al. 2014). The sub-variables for TNA were: Skills, knowledge and competency level. A five-point likert scale (5 = strongly agree, to 1= strongly disagree) was used for each of the statements corresponding to the various parameters of TNA.

Training Mode: this refers to a particular type or technique of training (Hornby, 2002). There are two modes of training, namely on the job training and off the job training. On the job training is a mode of training exposed to new employees and those who lack experience at a designated place within the work place (Mullins, 2010). Sub-variables considered in this category include: Job rotation, lecture method, computer based learning and apprenticeship.

Off the job training is a form of learning administered away from the place of work and therefore reduces interruptions during training sessions. It is highly valued due to its productive nature of interaction and involvement (Armstrong, 2009; Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011). Sub-variables included simulation, role playing and e-learning by use of technology. A five-point likert scale (5 = strongly agree, to 1= strongly disagree) was used for each of the statements corresponding to the various parameters of Training Mode.

The amount of time (days) dedicated to deliver learning content (Tracey 2015). Training Duration had two main sub-variables; long-term and short-term duration. Long term training (more than six months) encompassed sub variables such as: PhD, Masters, Bachelors and Diploma programs. Non-teaching employees may willingly pursue any of the above mentioned programmes as approved by training committee or undertake as an individual. Knowles (2003), theory of Andragogy states that adults seek knowledge outside normal learning schedule of the youth to enable them improve on certificates. This can enable them earn promotions, get better salary and other benefits (Odinga 2010; Kipkebut 2010). Short term duration (less than six months) refers to workshops, seminars, conferences, symposiums, continuing enrichment courses and certificates. A five-point likert scale (5 = strongly agree, to
1= strongly disagree) was used for each of the statements corresponding to the various parameters of Training Duration.

Training Feedback: this is the process whereby trainees fill forms expressing experience during the training (Opu, 2008). The sub-variables for Training Feedback were Performance Appraisals, Evaluation/interviews and Questionnaires/Observations. A five-point likert scale (5 = strongly agree, to 1= strongly disagree) was used for each of the statements corresponding to the various parameters of Training Feedback.

Motivation: Refers to the process in which an individual wishes and decides to act in a specific way of people (Opu, 2008). Motivation may be due to intrinsic or extrinsic factors (Mullins, 2010). The sub-variables for motivation were in two classifications; financial and non-financial benefits accrued from training. Financial benefits included better remuneration, salary and promotions; while non-financial included higher responsibilities, recognition in terms of compliments and certificates, and personal advancements. A five-point likert scale (5 = strongly agree, to 1= strongly disagree) was used for each of the statements corresponding to the various parameters of Motivation.

Performance: Refers to how well employees perform on the job and assignments given to them against the accepted performance standards set by the organization (Appiah, 2010). In this case, the sub-variables for non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities included; Teamwork, Adherence to policy, Accomplished targets and goals. A five-point likert scale (5 = strongly agree, to 1= strongly disagree) was used for each of the statements corresponding to the various parameters of Performance.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction
This chapter entails information on results of analyzed responses and further explanations for all the items contained in the questionnaire which originated from the research objectives. The general Objective of the study was to establish the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. The chapter entails the interpretation and presentation of findings established from the study which have been developed by use of descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.2 Response rate
A total of 176 questionnaires were distributed, 3 were completely destroyed and illegible, 173 questionnaires were returned in sound condition, representing 98%. In this case the response rate of 98% was considered acceptable as supported by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) who posit that a response rate of 70% and above is excellent. Bell and Bryman, (2011) also agree that a response rate of 60-70 is acceptable; 70-85 is very good, and 85 and above is excellent. The study managed to survey the eight public universities in Kenya with a percentage of response as indicated in Table 4.1. JKUAT 15%, KU 16%, UoN 14%, Moi 14%, University of Eldoret 12%, Egerton University12%, Maseno 7%, and MMUST 12%. The eight universities are among the oldest universities in Kenya and had adequate population to sustain the study.
Table 4.1: Rate of Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Number of respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jomo Kenyatta University</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Agriculture and Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyatta University</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moi University</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Eldoret</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egerton University</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maseno University</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Nairobi</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masinde Muliro University</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Results of Pilot Testing

Seventeen questionnaires were tested on the target population, to find out the correct validity of the study. The 17 questionnaires represented 10% of the target population. The pilot testing is a trial collection of data, to detect weaknesses in design and instrumentation and provide proxy data for selection of a probability sample. The process involves the assessment of questions and instruments before the start of a study. It helps to establish errors in questions, question sequencing, instructions, and other important pertinent issues pertaining to the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). 10% of the target populations were tested to derive validity and reliability of the instruments. Cronbach’s Alpha result should range from 0.7 and above (Mugenda &
The closer the coefficient is to 1, the more reliable the questionnaire, and the more it will have high validity. The results of the pilot testing are depicted in Table 4.2.

4.3.1 Reliability of the instruments

Reliability of the instruments was checked through the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient. The results in Table 4.3 were presented according to the variables. The results show that all variables had a reliability of Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.7 and above, hence were acceptable. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) posit that a high coefficient implies that there is high correlation among items and indicates that there exists consistency among the items in measuring the concept of interest. In this case a coefficient of 0.7 and above is acceptable.

Table 4.2: Reliability Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>No: of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment</td>
<td>0.702</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training mode</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training duration</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training feedback</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.810</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 4.2, Motivation which is the moderating variable had the highest reliability at 0.810, followed by Mode of training 0.800, Feedback 0.710, Training duration 0.705 and training needs assessment 0.702. The dependent variable was Performance had a reliability of 0.733. The reliability of all variables was 0.872 as indicated in Table 4.3.
Table 4.3: Reliability Statistics of all Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Respondents demographic information

The demographic information depicted in Figure 4.1 and 4.2 will help the researcher understand the general view of the respondents and is divided into two components, those that relate to the individual gender and age in years.

4.4.1 Gender of Respondents

In terms of gender, the males’ respondents were 54% while the females constituted 46%. This indicated that there were more males in the study group than females as shown in Figure 4.1. The assertion was in agreement with the study by Paula, (2015) in which data for census showed 86% males and 74% females hence more male than female counterpart employees in the labor market.

![Gender of Respondents](image.png)

Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents
4.4.2 Age of Respondents

The study consisted of five age groups as shown in Figure 4.2. Employees in the age of 31 to 40 years were 24%, those with the age of 41 to 50 years, 30% and 51 to 60 years with 29%. The remaining 17% was distributed between age group 20 to 30 years (15%) and those over 61 years 2%. The percentages in figure 4.2 show the age distribution of the individuals employed in the selected public universities in Kenya who were addressed in the study. It showed that there were few numbers of individuals in the age bracket 20 to 30 years and a marginal number with over 61 years and above.

This was deduced to be true of the age distribution of the working Kenyan population in general and other employment regulations which call for the retirement of individuals over 60 years. The retirement age and pensions ACT CAP.189 states that the government of Kenya raised the retirement age from 55 to 60 years with effect from 1st April 2009. It was actually established that very few employees are found in grade 15, Registrar, which is a preserve of those who are highly learned and have the longest serving experience in the university. Usually a university may have 2 or at most three full Registrars, thus the explanation for few employees in the cadre. In the case of age 20-30, these are the few young employees who just qualified to join management grades at the university.

Figure 4.2: Age in Years
4.4.3 Level of Education

Table 4.4 shows the cross-tabulation of gender and level of education. Majority of the respondents comprising of 48% had a master’s level of education with 54% males and 46% females. Those with a degree level comprising of 41% were split into two halves of males on one side and females on the other. Lastly two thirds of those with doctoral degree were male while a third was female but comprised of 11% of the total number of respondents. The distribution showed that there are more males 53.4% than females 46.6% which may be explained by the characteristics of the population in general and other social factors about the population studied at management level.
Table 4.4: Education Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Masters</th>
<th>PhD (Doctoral)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% in gender</td>
<td>37.90%</td>
<td>48.30%</td>
<td>13.80%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% in level of Education</td>
<td>49.30%</td>
<td>53.80%</td>
<td>66.70%</td>
<td>53.40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Count</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% in gender in Education</td>
<td>44.70%</td>
<td>47.40%</td>
<td>7.90%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% in level of Education</td>
<td>50.70%</td>
<td>46.20%</td>
<td>33.30%</td>
<td>46.60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Female Count</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% in gender</td>
<td>41.10%</td>
<td>47.90%</td>
<td>11.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% in level of Education</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.4 Departments

The study was structured to collect data from seven departments in the universities. As is shown in the table 4.5, administration, library, research and academic divisions had the highest distribution of the respondents as opposed to other departments. The highest percentage was that of administration at 24.3%, followed by Academic 17.3%, Research 16.8%, Library 15.6% with the other departments; Estates, Transport and Hostel having 6.9%, 6.9% and 8.7% respectively.
Table 4.5: Departments of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>No of Respondents</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estates</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostel</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.5 Cadres

Three jobs groups were studied and job group 13 and 14 had almost equal distribution of 42% each with the remaining 15% belonging to job group 15 as indicated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Cadre

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job cadre</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 13</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 14</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.6 Experience

Figure 4.3 showed distribution of the three groups that addressed the study population based on the number of years of experience. Those with 11 to 20 years’ experience comprised 43.7%, those having 5 to 10 years’ experience being 33.3% while those who had 21 to 30 years’ experience were 20.7%. Employees having 31 and above years of experience were 2.3%. The figures may in large part be explained by the real age distribution of the respondents as per the years of experience in Figure 4.3.
4.4.7 Number of trainings attended

Figure 4.4 show that 48.6% of the respondents had attended more than two trainings at their workplace. Those who had attended two trainings were 32.4%, with the remaining 19.1% having attended once. This distribution may largely be explained by the number of years that each respondent had worked or the department within which each individual works, such that those who had attended more than two trainings must have worked for longer periods of time than those who worked for few years.
4.4.8 Mode of Training

Figure 4.5 indicates that, more than half 52% of the individuals attended induction training more than any other type of training. This number is followed by those who attended management training at 29.3% with further 9% having attended technical training. Skills presentation as a type of training has been attended by 10.3% of the study respondents. The results are largely attributed to the fact that each individual had to attend induction training at the time of appointment and the nature of exclusivity of the management training.

4.4.9 Exposure to Training

Table 4.7 indicates that eleven (11) respondents consisting of 6% confirmed that they had not been exposed to training at all. One hundred and five (105) respondents who constituted 61% confirmed that they were exposed to frequent trainings. Another group of fifty-seven respondents constituting 33% confirmed to very frequently attend trainings. In this case there are those who never go for trainings, others happen to be enlisted once in a while, but another group is always enlisted for all trainings.
Table 4.7: Exposure to Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>No of Respondents</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None at all</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>60.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very frequent</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.10 Duration of attended Trainings.

Figure 4.6 indicates that 10% had attended training of over one year. With reference to the time taken by training, those who had attended two weeks training were 47% while those with one month training were 43% of the respondents.

![Duration of attended Training](image)

Figure 4.6: Duration of attended Training

4.4.11 Complaints experienced during training sessions

Though there were infinite number of complaints that arose during training period the study confined itself to only four. The reasons given fall into two categories such
as personal, the trainings taking employee’s work time (22%) and that trainings being boring (21%). The other reasons given were as follows; too much breaks during training session 30% and training sessions were unplanned 27%. The explanations for the answers given were that employees would prefer the training time that is distinct from work. The use of same trainers regularly did not augur well with different training regimes and thus the employees found them boring as indicated in Table 4.8.

**Table 4.8: Complaints Experienced During Training Sessions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complaints raised during training</th>
<th>No of Respondents</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee’s time was consumed</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent breaks during training</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training session were unplanned</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training session were boring</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.4.12 Short training Attended**

Figure 4.7 addresses the concerns of the respondents on short–term trainings and benefits accrued thereafter. On the variable of short courses attended, the majority of respondents 41.6% had attended the short courses two times in a year, while 23.1% had attended the short courses only once a year. The remaining percentage 35.3% had attended the said short courses more than twice in a year. The frequency and the duration of the trainings were probably dependent on the individual trainings needs, performance appraisals and departmental needs. Due to this factor, the frequency of the training and time of the same was attributed to organizational factors namely; training needs assessment, performance appraisals, departmental needs and extra-organizational factors such as competitive advantage, regulatory aspects and many other issues (Mullins, 2010).
Figure 4.7: Short Training Attended

4.4.13 Length of short Trainings

Figure 4.8 shows the length of the short trainings that range from one week to six months. Majority of the respondents 58% had attended the one week trainings followed by one month trainings at 36.2% with the lowest percentage at 5.7% attending training in more than a month. The frequency and the duration of the trainings were probably dependent on the individual trainings needs, performance appraisals and departmental needs. The frequency of the training duration was attributed to organizational factors for example training needs assessment, performance appraisals, departmental needs and extra-organizational factors such as competitive advantage, regulatory aspects and many other issues (Noe, 2010).
Figure 4.8: Length of Short Training

4.4.14 Promotion attained after Training

Figure 4.9 reveals that 31% of respondents had not received any promotion at all. Those who attained one promotion after training constituted 38.2%, those who received promotions twice consisted of 25%, while those who experienced promotion three times were 6.4%. In summary about 69% of respondents had been promoted after attending some training.

Figure 4.9: Promotion attained after Training

4.4.15 Impact of performance after Training

The respondents’ perception of the post–training effects were captured and displayed as seen in figure 4.10. A higher percentage comprising of 83.2% had higher expectations that they would be promoted with a further 15.6% expected promotion would come their way after the training. Sometimes, training makes employees hold some expectations that immediately after training they will be able to use their new skills and knowledge in different circumstances and thus the perceived expectations are in line with the perceptions that the organizational personnel hold.
4.4.16 Advantages of e-learning

Training could take many formats depending on the individual requirement and organizational needs. When the respondents were asked question surrounding e-learning, majority felt that e-learning had benefited them by making them effective in the jobs 68.4%, while 15.5% felt that e–learning helped in conferencing and effective presentations as depicted in Figure 4.11.

4.4.17 Contribution of Management

Management support for training was found to be important if the training is to succeed. Results from the study show that the respondents agreed that the organizational leadership could aid much in the success of training by enhancing
approvals for trainings 43.5% and providing financial support during training 54.7%. Respondents who did not appreciate the role of management in enhancing training consisted of 1.8% which was found to be minimal as indicated in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9: Contribution of management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contribution of management</th>
<th>No of Respondents</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not helped at all</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance approval for trainings</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide finances for training</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide finances for in-house training</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. 5 Factor Analysis

4.5.1 Factor analysis for Training Needs Assessment

TNA as an independent variable had a total of six (6) items. All factor loadings were above 0.4 therefore they were valid. They were retained for analysis stage. The indicators therefore passed the test of construct validity as indicated in Table 4.10.

**Table 4.10: Factor Loading for Training needs Assessment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated component matrixa</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted before skills acquisition</td>
<td>.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted helped improve the use of new technology.</td>
<td>.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted helps in performance standards</td>
<td>.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessed by administration before Training needs assessment conducted</td>
<td>.408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted enabled me undergo courses required</td>
<td>.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted enabled me to identify opportunities</td>
<td>.473</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracted method: principal component Analysis
Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
Training needs assessment had six items and all of them were confirmed to be valid, and had an acceptable reliability coefficient of above 0.7 as indicated in Table 4.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.5.2 Factor analysis for Mode of training**

Mode of Training as an independent variable has a total of ten (10) items. All the factor loadings were above 0.4 therefore they were valid. They were retained for subsequent analysis. The indicators therefore passed the test of construct validity as indicated in Table 4.12.
Table 4.12: Factor Loading for Mode of Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated component matrixa</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge gained after job training helped me master operations</td>
<td>.764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the job training helped me improve my performance</td>
<td>.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job rotation helped in operations</td>
<td>.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference materials from lectures improves performance</td>
<td>.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction after training led to comfort in executing duties at work</td>
<td>.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation helps in performance</td>
<td>.675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship is a better method of transfer of skills and knowledge to employees</td>
<td>.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I undertake bigger quality and quantity of work as a result of Computer based knowledge that I acquired</td>
<td>.561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge acquired from lectures improved performance</td>
<td>.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I concentrate better during role-play offered away from university premises</td>
<td>.499</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: principal component Analysis
Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Mode of training had ten (10) items and all of them were confirmed valid, and had an acceptable reliability coefficient of above 0.7 as indicated in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Reliability coefficient of Mode of Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.3 Factor Loading for Training Duration

Training duration as an independent variable had a total of five (5) items. All the factor loadings were above 0.4, therefore they were valid. They were retained for analysis later. The indicators therefore passed the test of construct validity as indicated in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Factors Loading for Training Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated component matrix(^a)</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate programs help in degree attainment</td>
<td>.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma training enhanced work performance</td>
<td>.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars improve knowledge and performance</td>
<td>.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conferences boost knowledge</td>
<td>.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One week workshops sponsored by university have improved my</td>
<td>.573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge and skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: principal component Analysis

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Training Duration had five (5) items and all of them were confirmed valid. They had an acceptable reliability coefficient of above 0.7, as indicated in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Reliability coefficient of Training Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.4: Factors Loading for Training Feedback

Training Feedback as an independent variable had a total of eight (8) items. All the factor loadings were above 0.4, therefore they were valid. They were retained for subsequent analysis. The indicators therefore, passed the test of construct validity as indicated in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Factor Loading for Training Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated component matrixa</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance appraisal improves skills</td>
<td>.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always get interviewed immediately after training</td>
<td>.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations made during training sessions improved my</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually given evaluation reports in relation to the</td>
<td>.596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge, skills and competencies acquired after training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results of Performance appraisals have greatly helped me to</td>
<td>.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undergo various trainings in the university</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always complete filling questionnaires after, training,</td>
<td>.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and the trainer gives immediate reports</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trainer conveys his observations timely after training</td>
<td>.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After training I discuss my interview results with the</td>
<td>.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trainer training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: principal component Analysis
Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Training Feedback had eight (8) items and all of them were confirmed valid. It had an acceptable reliability coefficient of above 0.7 as indicated in Table 4.17.
Table 4.17: Reliability coefficient of Training Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.5. Factor Loading for Motivation

Motivation as a moderating variable between independent and the dependent variables had a total of seven (7) items. All the factor loadings were above 0.4, therefore they were valid. They were retained for later analysis. The indicators test of construct validity, as indicated in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Factors Loading for Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated component matrix(^a)</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotions after training helps improves performance</td>
<td>.860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training leads to better remuneration</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary improvements after training</td>
<td>.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher responsibilities and leadership motivates</td>
<td>.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal advancement and development after training</td>
<td>.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having trained on university scholarship has encouraged me to work hard</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training</td>
<td>.519</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: principal component Analysis

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
Motivation had seven (7) items and all of them were confirmed valid. Motivation had an acceptable reliability coefficient of above 0.7, as indicated in Table 4.19.

**Table 4.19: Reliability coefficient of Motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.810</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.5.6. Factor Loading for Performance**

Performance as a dependent variable had a total of eight (8) items. All the factor loadings were above 0.4, therefore they were valid. They were retained for later analysis. The indicators therefore, passed the test of construct validity as indicated in Table 4.20.

**Table 4.20: Factor Loading for Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated component matrixa</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accomplishment of work targets leads to performance benefits</td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork translates into higher productivity</td>
<td>.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endeavour to meet the institution goals</td>
<td>.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High quality work</td>
<td>.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work gives great pleasure especially when I meet set targets</td>
<td>.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intends to work till retirement</td>
<td>.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhere to university policies</td>
<td>.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of absenteeism is low</td>
<td>.401</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: principal component Analysis
Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Performance had eight (8) items and all of them were confirmed valid. Performance had an acceptable reliability coefficient of above 0.7, as indicated in Table 4.21
Table 4.21: Reliability coefficient of Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Reliability coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.733</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6. Descriptive Statistics
This section elaborates on the analysis of responses from respondents as captured from the questionnaires. All variables were discussed.

4.6.1. Training Needs Assessment
TNA refers to a process of identifying performance requirements and the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by an organization’s workforce to achieve the requirements (Nyongesa, et al. 2014). This will facilitate the organization’s development of relevant trainings which lead to achievement of objectives and goals. It is important to conduct a needs analysis before mounting trainings to avoid launching trainings that are irrelevant to the needs of employees (Riech, 2008). The study revealed that 55.2% of the respondents strongly agreed to having been assessed by administration before training needs (TNA). 32.2% agreed, 1.7% were not sure, 9.8% disagreed and lastly, 1.1% strongly disagreed. Generally, 10.9% of the respondents disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, and 87.4% of the respondents agreed that they were assessed before TNA was administered to them. The results of the study clearly indicate that assessment by administration is conducted before TNA is carried out among non-teaching staff in management cadres at the universities. The study agrees with Noe, (2010), as he contends that personal analysis and task analysis are helpful in enhancement of organizational needs on training. Adherence to this practice leads to proper and correct training administered to employees.

Concerning training needs being administered before skills acquisition, 4.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed having been subjected to TNA before acquiring skills. 6.9% disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, 57.5% agreed, and lastly, 29.3% strongly agreed. Generally, 11.5% of the respondents disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, while, 86.8% of the respondents were in agreement with the fact that TNA was administered before skills acquisition. The results of the study is in agreement with
Mullins (2009), who states that full regard should be preferred to training needs of special groups. Noe (2010) also postulates that training needs is a prerequisite in instructional design process and ought to be conducted properly to produce effective results. Training should therefore have correct content to address cited issues for intervention purpose, to help curb mismatch between programs offered and demand from labor market (Riech, 2008). Klane and Pearson (2007), caution that training which may be administered but does not meet the needs of employees is just ‘perfunctory’, since some employees may miss out on practical experience of some aspects of the training.

The study also sought to establish the extent to which training needs assessment helped in improving the use of new technology. The study found out that 1.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed, another, 1.7% disagreed, 0.7% were not sure, and 37.9% agreed, while 58.0% strongly agreed that TNA helped improve the use of new technology. Generally 3.4% of the respondents disagreed, 0.7% were not sure, while 95.9% agreed that TNA helped improve the use of new technology. The study agrees with Noe (2010), who alluded that online technology can be used to monitor and track employee performance and is a skill used to provide feedback to employees. Dabale, Jagero and Nyauchi (2014), concur that training is important due to the complex work environment, rapid change in organizations and advancement in technology, especially in Nigeria and Zimbabwe municipalities, where they studied the relationship between training and employee performance. The study therefore established that training needs assessment helped employees improve in the use of new technology.

The study sought to determine how training needs assessment help employees to undergo required courses, which enhanced legislation and policies introduced by government.10.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 9.2% disagreed, 5.7% were not sure, 46.6% agreed, and 28.2% strongly agreed. The study agreed with Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi, and Singh (2012) who revealed that the government of Libya trained 98 graduates in 1953-54 in universities. These graduates underwent training of between six months to one year at national institute for administration. As a result,
Libyan manpower increased from 454,100 in 1975 to 678,400 in 1985, to 861,800 in 1989. This was a result of government policy and initiative.

The study sought to determine how training needs assessment helps in performance standards, hence, 1.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.7% disagreed, another 1.7% were not sure, while 50.6% agreed, and lastly, 44.3% strongly agreed. Generally, 3.4% of the respondents disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, while 94.9% agreed that training needs assessment helps in determining performance standards. The study agreed with Elnaga and Imran (2013) who revealed that employees are, evaluated to ensure they understand tasks and duties, smooth cooperation with supervisors and are aware of set targets.

The study sought to establish how training needs assessment aids in job opportunity identification. 10.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 3.4% disagreed, and 3.0% were not sure, 56.9% agreed, 26.4% strongly agreed that training needs assessment aids in job opportunity identification. Generally, 13.7% disagreed, 3.0% were not sure, and 73.3% agreed that training needs assessment aids in job opportunity identification. The study agrees with Noe (2010), who envisaged new job opportunities as one of the reasons or pressure points that justify the need for training thus agreeing that TNA assisted in new job opportunities identification.
Table 4.22: Training Needs Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessed by administration before training</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted before</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skills acquisition (training)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment helped improve</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the use of new technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment enabled me to</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergo courses required</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment helps in</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance standards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment aids in job</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opportunity identification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.23 gives the respondents views on issues touching on training needs assessment with concerns ranging from the assessment to knowledge gained after training. As seen most respondents affirmed that they were assessed (Mean = 4.30, SD = 0.99) before any training needs assessment. Most organizations usually conduct an assessment or an appraisal on their employees for any mismatch between job specification and skill requirement. A deficiency that is worth a training needs assessment occurs when the skills requirement is lacking on the part of the employee. This then necessitates a training needs assessment as a precursor to training. Once a mismatch is detected, training needs assessment is then carried out to identify the
areas that the employee needs training on. The respondents also affirmed (Mean = 4.23, SD = 3.19) that a needs assessment was conducted in order to evaluate and determine what kind of trainings were necessary.

Training needs assessment takes cognizant of the skill deficiency on the part of the employee in relation to the job. As is deduced from Table 4.23, the respondents alluded to the fact they lacked knowledge on the use of new technologies that are introduced at work place (mean = 4.49, SD = 0.758), it helped improve on their skills level by allowing them attend prerequisite job training such as induction and management training (Mean = 3.73, SD= 1.25) and that the needs assessment also is an evaluation tool to check on the performance level of each individual employee (Mean = 4.03, SD = 0.76). The justification that best sums up the reasons above is, that probably there is a mismatch in technological skills of the employees, new employees and the personnel hired lacked prerequisite training and thus the need for needs assessment. The output also suggest that respondents also use the needs assessment to identify job opportunities (Mean = 3.86, SD = 1.16) and that there is a knowledge transfer gained after each training (Mean = 4.74, SD = 0.58).

When the respondents were asked on the ways to identify their training needs assessment based on their own individual analysis, a variety of responses came up. The responses range from job assessment, performance standards, supervisor’s recommendation, job analysis, performance appraisal, skills and education levels. Majority of them preferred that the needs assessment should be best identified through performance standards or performance appraisals which show that they understood the needs assessment from their own individual perspective as per the human resource development literature. Others still preferred the task analysis as shown by the respondents (job analysis and assessment, education and skills levels and/or supervisor’s recommendation).
Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics on Training Needs Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N Statistic</th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessed by administration before training needs assessment</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment conducted before skills acquisition (training)</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.2299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment helped improve the use of new technology</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.4885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment enabled me undergo courses required</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.7299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs helps in performance standards</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.03391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment aids in job opportunity identification</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.8563</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.2 Mode of Training

The study sought to establish the extent to which performance improved after attending training. 1.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed that performance improved after attending the job training, 1.7% disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, 61% agreed, while 33.9% strongly agreed that performance improved after attending on the job training. Generally, 4.0% of the respondents disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, and 94.9% agreed that performance improved after attending training. The study concurred with findings by Shah et al. (2014) who alluded that programs which are developed according to the training need assessment and keeping in mind the organization’s short & long term objectives help improve performance. It has been
proved through various researches that training has a positive influence on employee performance, although, there may be other HR factors that boost performance. Employees who are exposed to proper training are likely to perform better than those who did not attend any training (Brum, 2007).

The study sought to establish the extent to which on the job training helped employees at the university in operations. 4.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 4.1% disagreed, 4.6% were not sure, 27.0% agreed and 60.3% strongly agreed. Generally, 8.1% disagreed, 4.6% were not sure and lastly 87.3% agreed that the on the job training helped employees at the university in operations. The study agreed with Jagero, Komba, and Mlingi (2012) who revealed that employee training involves teaching employees skills which will make them efficient and productive to the employer. Most employees undergo on the job training during their careers, thus they accrue some benefits as well as the employers. Training is often conducted to familiarize new employees with the roles and responsibilities of their positions as well as company policies. Many companies offer continuing training opportunities for employees, focusing on skills that can improve efficiency. Armstrong (2009) contends that trained employees often work better as teams because everyone is aware of the expectations and can achieve them together smoothly. Trained employees are also more confident in their performance and decision-making skills.

The study sought to establish the extent to which Computer-based knowledge acquisition helped non-teaching employees to undertake bigger quantity and better quality of work in the public universities in Kenya. 1.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 4.6% disagreed, 1.1% were not sure, 42.0% agreed, and 51.2% strongly agreed. Generally, 5.6% of the respondents disagreed, 1.1% were not sure, and lastly, 93.2% agreed that Computer-based knowledge acquisition helps non-teaching employees to undertake bigger quantity and better quality of work in the public universities in Kenya.

The study agrees with Robert (2006); Elnaga and Imran (2013) who maintained that effective training helped employees to get acquainted with desired new technological advancement, gain full command on competencies and skills required to perform a
specific job and reduce on mistakes. Elnaga and Imran (2013) reveal that there are varied ways of overcoming the employee performance gap, therefore, through training; employees may develop skills, competencies and ability leading to individual employee performance improvement and organizational productivity. Armstrong (2009) confirmed that new technology has overtaken employees’ jobs. Dabale, Nyauchi and Jagero (2014) revealed that employees need to train in use of technology to remain relevant.

The study sought to establish the extent to which lecture notes obtained during training help non-teaching employees as future reference materials in the course of their work. 10.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 6.9% disagreed, 9.2% were not sure, and 31.6% agreed, while 41.1% strongly agreed. Generally, 17.8% disagreed, 9.2% were not sure, and 73.3% agreed that lecture notes obtained during training help non-teaching employees as future reference materials in the course of their work. A lecture may involve talking by the facilitator, and the trainees may be required to listen and take notes, while answering questions when necessary. Lecture method is a means of transferring of information to learners (Armstrong, 2009). The visual aids used during lectures may prove helpful to the learner after training. The study therefore confirmed that materials used during lectures are of great benefit to employees.

The study sought to establish the extent to which non-teaching employees enjoy comfort at university work places after induction training. 1.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.7% agreed, 1.8% were not sure, 36.0% agreed, and 58.0% strongly agreed that non-teaching employees enjoy comfort at university work places after induction training. Generally, 3.6% disagreed, 1.8% were not sure, and, 94.0% agreed that non-teaching employees enjoy comfort at university work places after induction training. This implies that induction helps non-teaching employees to settle at work, familiarize with work environment, and the associated tasks. The HRM, the supervisor, or the team leader may address the new employees. The department heads may also address the new employee regarding immediate duties, and introduce them to the department. The employee may thereafter settle to perform assigned duties or proceed on further training, hence the study agrees with (Armstrong, 2009).
The study sought to establish the extent to which role playing improved learning during training offered away from the university. 51% of respondents strongly disagreed, 8% disagreed, 11% were not sure, 15.8% agreed, and 14.2% strongly agreed. Generally, 59% of the respondents disagreed, 11% were not sure, and 30% agreed that employees at the university, concentrated better during off-the-job training. The study clearly indicates that more than half of the respondents disagreed, implying that there may be other factors that may determine better concentration when employees are training away from the university premises. This may be due to dependence on balance between what may be considered as theoretically desirable and what participants understand as practically possible to implement (Mullins, 2010).

The study sought to determine the extent to which simulation benefited employees in the course of performing their duties. 22% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 18% disagreed, 10% were not sure, 7% agreed, while 43% strongly agreed that simulation trainings attended benefited employees in the course of performing their duties. Generally, 40% of the respondents disagreed, 10% were not sure, while 50% strongly agreed. The study concurred with Mullins (2010) who alluded that management development for instance simulation entails dual function of improving effectiveness of individual managers and improving management performance as a whole and organizational effectiveness. Therefore, an integrated approach is to be adopted regarding the development of the entire organization. Lastly all managers require continual enhancement of their professional competence (Armstrong, 2009).

The study sought to determine whether job rotation helps employees to master operations in most divisions within the universities. 10% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 11% disagreed, 21% were not sure, 5% agreed and 53% strongly agreed that job rotation helped employees to master operations in most divisions within the universities. The study agrees with Dessler (2005) who stated that employees learn a lot from job rotation experiences; for instance, varied job exposures and the realization that all departments are equally important for the success of the university/organization. Mullins (2010) asserts that job rotation can be used for upskilling in areas which require new technology, within departments inform of cross-
training and in cases where an employee has been promoted or transferred to another section.

The study sought to establish whether apprenticeship is a better method of transfer of skills and knowledge to employees. The study revealed that 8% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 10% disagreed, 17% were not-sure, 30% agreed, while 35% strongly agreed. Generally, 18% disagreed, 17% were not sure, and 65% of the respondents agreed that apprenticeship is a better method of transfer of skills and knowledge. ILO-Steedman, (2014) posit that employment services expand peoples’ awareness of apprenticeship and the kinds of jobs they can perform.
Table 4.24: Mode of Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>NOT</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On the job training helped me improve my performance</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the Job training helped me in operations</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer-based knowledge acquisition</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps undertake bigger quantity and better quality of work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge acquired from lectures during on the job training</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference materials from lectures help</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction after training led to comfort in executing duties at work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role playing improves my learning during training offered away from the university</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation benefitted me in the course of performing my duties</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job rotation has helped me to master operations in most of the divisions in the university</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship is a better method of transfer of skills and knowledge to employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.25 focused on specific aspect of on-the job training which ranged from computer based training, job rotation, lectures, simulation and role play. The descriptive statistics shows that job training serves three objectives; improvement in operations, knowledge acquisition and performance improvement. The respondents affirmed that their performance improved after training (Mean = 4.27, SD = 0.66),

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there was an improvement in operations (Mean = 4.37, SD = 1.01) and that they acquired knowledge during the training lectures (Mean = 4.33, SD = 0.72). This implies that the training being offered was geared towards knowledge and skill acquisition and towards the improvement of individual and organizational performance. Another aspect of on job training is the computer – based knowledge acquisition which is touted as a solution to the work place job performance. Organizations investing in IT with the hope that it will lead work place efficiencies but such investment require the prerequisite investments in the human aspect of IT in order for the information systems to serve its purpose. The respondents affirmed that the training in IT (Mean = 4.39, SD = 0.78) is important as it is a prerequisite to the investments in IT.

In general, the organization offers a variety of training ranging from induction training through lectures to role play at management level. In between there are a variety of training geared towards specific objectives and outcomes. The employees tend to feel the job rotation after training (Mean = 4.55, SD = 0.68) and that simulation is an important aspect of improving performance (Mean = 4.51, SD = 0.57). At entry level, most employees hold prerequisite educational level but lack the critical skills to undertake their jobs and thus the need for job rotation to equip them with the job skills. Similarly, simulation is critical to individuals who are promoted or hired to management positions. They may have the technical skill, but may lack in the person management skill and thus apprenticeship is offered to them to help them cope with the increase in responsibilities.

Computer – based learning is a technique that is used in training workforce with an emphasis on the use of IT. As per the responses, the benefits of computer –based learning range from training and communication, information access and storage, work efficiency, improved use of new technology, computer skills acquisitions, communication and conferencing. Majority of the respondents felt that IT improves information access and storage and thus it aids in training and communication, improvements in the use of new technology and computer skills acquisition.
According to respondents, the other HRM strategies that might be used include open door policy, interpersonal relationship, employee welfare, and improvement in working conditions and motivation (incentives, better pay and allowances). The responses illustrated that HR policies at work place were not effective enough to be felt by the employees and thus the need to focus on employee motivation in terms of incentives, better pay, allowances and employee welfare in terms of insurance. Other issues raised include the improvement in working conditions and open door policy.

**Table 4.25: Descriptive Statistics on Training Mode**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N Statistic</th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std.Deviation Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On-the-job training helped me improve</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.2659</td>
<td>.66371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the Job training helped in operations</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3699</td>
<td>1.01249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer based knowledge acquisition</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3931</td>
<td>.78233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge acquired from lectures</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3353</td>
<td>.71753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference materials help in work</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.8613</td>
<td>1.32654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job training led me to master</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.5491</td>
<td>.67700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation benefitted me in the course of performing my duties</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.5087</td>
<td>.56670</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.3 Training Duration

The study sought to establish the extent to which certificate programs help in the attainment of degrees. 1.0% strongly disagreed, 2.3% disagreed, 2.7% were not sure, 17.0% agreed, and 77.0% strongly agreed. Generally, 3.0% disagreed, 2.0% were not sure, and 94.0% agreed that short programs helped in the attainment of degrees. KarimImani, Tavakkoli, and Salagegheh (2013) agreed that training and improvement lead to deeper insights, higher knowledge, and more abilities and skills in employees within the organizations/universities, as they conduct their duties, and as a result organizational goals are achieved with much more efficacy and output.

The study sought to establish the extent to which diploma training enhances work performance. 1.0% strongly disagreed, 2.0% disagreed, 2.7% were not sure, 64.0% agreed, while, 30.3% strongly agreed. Generally, 3.0% disagreed, 2.7% were not sure, and 94.3% agreed that short term training enhances work performance. The study agreed with Seyed, (2015) who postulated that diploma training improves employee performance, since they have positive impact on job skills, improvement of behavior and organizational decision making.

The study sought to establish the extent to which, workshops sponsored by the university improved employee knowledge and skills. 1.1% strongly disagreed, 2.8% disagreed, 8.0% were not sure, 48.0 % agreed, and 40.1% strongly agreed. This study concurred with KarimImani, Tavakkoli, and Salagegheh (2013), who revealed that, workshops involve participation and interaction among the learners which helped increase interest in learning and grasping content. Seminars, conferences and workshops are intended to enable work to be done quickly, efficiently and easily. The participants are expected to use relevant tools and systems at their disposal to improve production (w.w.w.Womac Company.Com).

The study sought to establish the extent to which Seminars held within and outside the University for Improved Employee Knowledge and performance. The study showed that 1.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.5% disagreed, 2.6% were not sure, 31.6% agreed, 62.7% strongly agreed. Generally, 3.1% disagreed, 2.6% were not sure, and 94.3% strongly agreed that seminars held both within and outside
the University for three to four weeks, improved employee knowledge and performance. Seminars, conferences and workshops are intended to enable work to be done quickly, efficiently and easily. The participants are expected to use relevant tools and systems at their disposal to improve production (w.w.Womac Company.Com.)

The study sought to establish the extent to which conferences attended by employees in six months duration boosted knowledge. 2.9% strongly disagreed, 0.6% disagreed, 9.2% were not sure, 53.4% agreed, while 33.9% strongly agreed. Generally, 3.5% disagreed, 9.2% were not sure, and 87.3% agreed that attended by employees in six months duration boosted knowledge among non-teaching employees at the university. Seminars, conferences and workshops are intended to enable work to be done quickly, efficiently and easily. The participants are expected to use relevant tools and systems at their disposal to improve production (w.w.Womac Company.Com.).
Table 4.26: Training Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>NOT</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate programs help in degree attainment</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma training enhances work performance</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workshops sponsored by the university</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars held both within and outside the university</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conferences I attended for six months</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.27 highlights the various aspects of training. The training may take the form of certificates, Diplomas, workshops, seminars and conferences. As it can be deduced from statistics, certificates and Diploma training enhances work performance (Mean = 4.73, SD = 0.59; Mean = 4.30, SD = 0.47) respectively. This highlights the fact that the institution focuses on certificate training to improve performance.

Short-term training can fall into three categories; workshops, seminars and conferences. From the statistics, employees prefer the three methods since they affirmed that the three forms contribute to performance (Mean = 4.11, SD = 0.925; Mean = 4.54, SD = 0.74 and Mean = 4.28, SD = 0.71) respectively. The perception can be attributed to the institutionalism within the organization; the preference for workshops, seminars and/or conferences as a mode of training and knowledge dissemination.
The study looked at the ways in which management and HR can benefit from long-term training courses and the responses points to a variety of answers which range from bonding employees, skills and competence acquisition, promotion and better performance. Since training of employees takes enormous financial resources, the respondents would preferably be bonded for certain period of time. Skills and competencies acquired would lead to better performance and even promotion.

Table 4.27: Descriptive Statistics on Training Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N Statistic</th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std.Deviation Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short programs help in degree attainment</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.7326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short term training enhance work performance</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week long workshops improves knowledge and skills</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.2849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars held improves knowledge and performance</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.5439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference boost knowledge</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.1170</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.4 Training Feedback

The study sought to establish the extent to which Performance Appraisal practiced at the university helped identify areas to improve employee skills. 2.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 2.0% disagreed, 2.3% were not sure, 16.7% agreed and 77.0% strongly agreed that Performance appraisal practiced at the university helped identify areas to improve employee skills. Generally, 4.0% of the respondents disagreed, 2.3% were not sure, while 83.7% agreed that Performance appraisal practiced at the university helped identify areas to improve employee skills. This study complied with Prowse and Prowse (2009); Wilson and Western (2001) who revealed that appraisal is a tool for improving individual employees in attainment of university/organizational goals by helping managers to execute effective management. Appraisal should therefore be conducted frequently according to set goals. The sentiments echo goal setting theory which stipulates that the learners must agree on and accomplish the set goals on time (Locke & Latham 2006).

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees get interviewed immediately after training. 5.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 9.2% disagreed, 2.7% were not sure, 52.9% agreed while 30.5% strongly agreed. Generally, 14.9% of the respondents disagreed, 2.7% were not sure, while 83.4% of the respondents agreed that employees get interviewed immediately after training. This study agreed Anna and Bierstaker (2009); Ohman and Svanberg (2013); and Stewart and O’Leary (2011) who posit that there is a general belief that feedback can improve performance although not much evidence has been envisaged.

The study sought to establish the extent to which observations made by trainer and shared with the employees’ improved performance. 1.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 2.3% disagreed, 2.3% were not sure, 35.0% agreed and 58.6% strongly agreed that observations made by trainer and shared with the employees’ improved performance. Generally, 4.1% disagreed, 2.3% were not sure, and 93.6% agreed that observations made by trainer and shared with the employees’. The study agreed with Irawanto (2015) who argued that employee involvement in decision making is a strategy that enhances employee satisfaction (sharing decisions with employees), and
culminates in accomplishment of organizational goals, reduces on stress and conflict but promotes and encourages organizational goal attainment, commitment, and acceptance of change.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees always completed filling questionnaires after training, and the trainer gave immediate reports. 5.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 2.3% disagreed, 2.9% were not sure, 58.0% agreed, while 31.6% strongly agreed that employees always complete filling questionnaires after training, and the trainer gives reports immediately. Generally, 7.5% disagreed, 2.9% were not sure, and 89.6% agreed that employees always complete filling questionnaires after training, and the trainer gives immediate reports. According to Opu (2008), feedback is the last step in the training process whereby trainees are asked to fill a form expressing their experiences during the training.

The study sought to establish the extent to which the trainer conveys his observations timely after training. 7.5% of the respondents strongly disagreed 4.0% disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, 43.1% agreed, 43.7% strongly agreed that the trainer conveys his observations timely after training. Generally, 11.5% disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, 86.8% agreed that the trainer conveys his observations timely after training. The study realized that successful assessment for learning strategies result in improved learner progress on a continual basis and the value of the feedback is dependent on the quality of the feedback, and how learners receive and ultimately use it. There is need for learners to be trained on how to appreciate feedback and use the information contained therein effectively to improve their work. The facilitators require induction on training for the learners to appreciate feedback (Jones, 2016).

The study sought to establish the extent to which results of performance appraisals have greatly helped employees undergo various trainings in the university. 9.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 4.0% disagreed, 4.0% were not sure, 42.5% agreed, while 39.7% strongly agreed. Generally, 13.8% of the respondents disagreed, 4.0% were not sure, while 82.2% agreed that results of performance appraisals have greatly helped me to undergo various trainings in the university. Managers across the University already support staff to take paid time off to attend staff training and
development activities such as courses, workshops and conferences. The employee study, training Policy and associated procedures do not supersede the existing mechanism for staff to request and take paid time off to attend any training courses coordinated by the Staff Development unit (Akala 2012).

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees are usually given evaluation reports in relation to the knowledge, skills and competencies acquired after training. 3.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 5.0 % disagree, 3.0% were not sure, 37.0 % agreed, while 52.0 % strongly agreed that employees are usually given evaluation reports in relation to the knowledge, skills and competencies acquired after training. Generally, 8.0% disagreed, 3.0% were not sure, while 89.0% agreed that employees are usually given evaluation reports in relation to the knowledge, skills and competencies acquired after training. The study is in agreement with Mullins (2010) who stated that results of evaluation of training would consider the extent to which the training contributed to enhanced organizational performance, effectiveness, quality and prospects of employees. When employees are deemed to be competent, then automatically, their skills and knowledge are acceptable for the required, expected and improved performance.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees after training, discuss their interview results with their trainer. The study revealed that 10.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 9.0% disagreed, 19.0% were not sure, 19.0% agreed, and 43.0% strongly agreed that employees after training discuss their interview results with their trainer. Generally, 19.0% disagreed, 19.0% were not sure, and 62.0% agreed that employees after training discuss their interview results with their trainer. The environment of Andragogy must be safe and there should be a sound relationship between trainer and learner for conducive learning and development (Jones, 2016). The learner and trainer are both involved in creating the learning experience and ensuring that learning occurs (Knowles, 2013).
Table 4.28: Training Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>NOT</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance Appraisal practiced at the university helped identify areas to improve my skills</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always get interviewed immediately after training</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations made during training sessions improved my performance</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always complete filling questionnaires after training, and the trainer gives immediate reports</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trainer conveys his observations timely after training</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results of Performance appraisals have greatly helped me to undergo various trainings in the university</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually given evaluation reports in relation to the knowledge, skills and competence acquired after training</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After training I appreciate discussing my interview results with the trainer training</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.29 highlights the respondents’ views on training feedback. The statistics show that the respondents viewed performance appraisal as a way to improve skills (Mean = 4.76, SD = 0.47). Most organizations conduct a performance appraisal specifically to gauge performance deficiency from the employee. This performance deficiency can be due to lack of skills or skills mismatch and thus appraisal measures detect these anomalies. Once appraised, the individual will know the level of skill deficiency.
Employees prefer to get interviewed immediately after training (Mean = 3.95, SD = 1.09). A feedback after training serves to alert the trainer of the training gaps or effectiveness of the training to the individual employee. The feedback may be in the form of suggestions, questions and follow-ups from an interview.

The employees would also prefer to be observed and observation reports shared with them for improving performance. (Mean = 4.54, SD = 0.64). Feedback in the form of observational reports improves productivity and performance.

Statistics show that the respondents get evaluation reports in relation to knowledge, skills and competencies after training (Mean = 4.10, SD = 0.94). The respondents alluded to the fact that the presence of training policy assisted in matters touching on training (Mean = 3.99, SD = 1.22). A good training policy would help govern the training agenda within the organizations. Lack of it would likely lead to skill deficiency, skills mismatch and haphazard training regimes. Most employees affirmed that they were comfortable with their jobs and that the training acquired adequately prepared them for challenging duties. This shows that the training they received gave them relevant skills that match the jobs demand.

There appropriate ways suggested by respondents were; improvement in working condition, specialized training (skills deficiency), promotion, recognition, remuneration and incorporation in decision making. From the answers given, it can be deduced that there are many underlying structural issues affecting the respondents; which may include the workplace design which affected the ergonomic aspect at work place, skills deficiency on those who required specialized training, and their being incorporated in decision making.
Table 4.29: Descriptive Statics on Training Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>N Statistic</th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance appraisal improves skills</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.7572</td>
<td>0.46882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always get interviewed immediately after training</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.9535</td>
<td>1.0887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation made during training sessions helped improve performance</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.5407</td>
<td>0.63391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually given evaluation reports in relation to knowledge, skills and competencies after training</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.1047</td>
<td>0.93695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time allowance for reflection learning</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.1214</td>
<td>1.13212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training policy help in training</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.9942</td>
<td>1.2211</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.5 Motivation

The study sought to establish the extent to which promotions that employees attained after training sessions helped improve performance at work. The study revealed that 1.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.1% disagreed, and 2.9% were not sure, 13.2% agreed, 81.0% strongly agreed that promotions that employees attained after training sessions helped improve performance at work. Generally, 2.8% disagreed, 2.9% were not sure and 94.2% agreed that promotions that employees attained after training sessions helped improve performance at work. It is true that promotions play a dual function in goal attainment; that is, promotion is used to identify personnel for positions of greater responsibility or matching duties of the promotion system and, it also motivates employees by instilling healthy competition for employees to aim at higher ranks (Phelan and Zhang lin, 2001); (Gibbs, 2008). Employees who feel comfort at work place improve their status by attending training in some discipline to help improve status, skill and knowledge, thus they feel motivated to develop themselves (Illeris, 2003).
The study sought to establish the extent to which training had led to better remuneration thus making employees to work hard. 0.6% strongly disagreed, 1.1 % disagreed, 2.9% were not sure, 28.2% agreed, while, 67.2% strongly agreed that training had led to better remuneration thus making employees to work hard. Generally, 1.7% disagreed, 2.9% were not sure, while, 95.4% agreed that training had led to better remuneration thus making employees to work hard. The study agrees with Morrison (2014) who posits that compensation is a result of services rendered, and benefit that employees receive in the form of pay or wages as rewards intended to persuade employee’s to increases performance.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees who trained on scholarship felt encouraged to work hard. 1.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.8 % disagreed, 4.0% were not sure, 25.9% agreed, and 67.2% strongly agreed that employees who trained on scholarship felt encouraged working hard. Generally, 2.9% disagreed, 4.0% were not sure, and 93.1% agreed. The study concurred with Morrison (2014) who posits that research has identified that employee engagement can be increased through sponsorship to develop a performance culture.

The study sought to establish the extent to which improvement in salary after training made employees more interested in working hard for the university. 5.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 2.9% disagreed, and 9.2% were not sure, 23.6 % agreed and 59.2 % strongly agreed that improvement in salary after training made employees more interested to work hard for the university. Generally, 8.1% disagreed, 9.2% were not sure, while 81.8% agreed that improvement in salary after training made employees more interested to work hard for the university. Onyancha et., al. (2014) stated that remuneration of employees depended on the skills and competencies that they possess, and not on the jobs worth. This statement clearly agrees with the study in that after training, the employees are equipped with necessary skills to undertake new assignments. Workplace surveys provide a special upward feedback and are useful in assessing the performance of individuals in supervisory positions and above (Branham, 2005).
The study sought to establish the extent to which after attending training, employees get higher responsibilities which was motivating. 1.1% strongly disagreed, 1.7% disagreed, 8.0% were not sure, 17.4% agreed, and 71.8% strongly agreed that after attending training, employees get higher responsibilities which were motivating. Generally, 2.8% disagreed, 8.0% were not sure, 88.6% agreed that after attending training, employees get higher responsibilities was motivating. The study agrees with Illeris, (2003) who stated that employees who feel comfort of work place improve their status by attending training in some discipline to help improve status, skill and knowledge, thus they feel motivated to develop themselves.

The study sought to establish the extent to which recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training. 1.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.1% disagreed, 6.9% were not sure, 24.7% agreed, and 66.1% strongly agreed that recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training. Generally, 2.3% disagreed, 6.9% were not sure, and 90.8% agreed that recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training. The study agreed with Gruber (2015) who stated that praise leads to positive reinforcement, may develop and maintain an individual’s academic achievement behavior, or strategies. He continues to assert that praise can affect behavior in relation to performance. Praise can be used to minimize problems thus modifying behavior, encourage learning, influence other behaviors and enhance efficacy.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees experienced general personal advancement, development and were more confident in performing their duties. 1.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 14.0% disagreed, 16.0% were not sure, 10.0% agreed, and 59.0% strongly agreed. Generally, 15.0% disagreed, 16.0% were not sure, while 69.0% agreed that employees experience general personal advancement, development and are more confident in performing their duties. The study agreed with Billet (2004) who revealed that during learning, employees undergo personality changes which happen at the same time causing changes in the cognitive, emotional, and socio-societal dimensions that give rise to transformative
learning. The three dimensions help the learner to attain competence as development occurs. Lastly, employees should be exposed to opportunities to develop their skills and grow and in the art of learning new things and applying them. The employee is more likely to retain what has been learnt and more likely to be motivated (Branham, 2005).

Table 4.30: Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOT SURE</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Financial sub variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I appreciate promotions I attained after training sessions as they helped me improve on my performance</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training has led to better remuneration which has given me impetus to work hard and achieve both organizational and personal goals</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having trained on university scholarship has encouraged me to work hard</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After training, my salary improved, thus, making me more interested to work hard for the university</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Non-financial sub variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After undertaking training, non-teaching employees are given higher responsibilities, which motivates them to perform better Recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training Employees experience general personal advancement, development and are more confident in performing their duties</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.31 shows the opinions of the respondents’ expectations on rewards and incentives after trainings. These expectations are either direct such as promotions, better remunerations, scholarship or indirect such as broaden responsibilities, recognition, advancement and development.

The statistics show that employees would prefer promotions (Mean = 4.71, SD = 0.63), to scholarships (Mean = 4.39, SD = 0.85) and better remuneration (Mean = 4.27, SD = 0.75). These are direct forms of incentives to the employees since the forms were directly felt by the respondents. In this case promotion is double edged since it bequeaths the employees’ salary improvement and a rise in position. This shows that salary improvement is only one sided since it offers only the raise in pay.

The second component of incentives is the indirect forms of motivation which include the recognition, career advancement and enlarged responsibilities. The respondents would prefer responsibilities (Mean = 4.57, SD = 0.81), to recognition (Mean = 4.32, SD = 0.66) and career advancement (Mean = 4.27, SD = 0.92). The rationale for this is that; three job groups were considered and thus at some levels responsibilities is more important than other factors, the sector in which the study was conducted was not-for profit and academic and thus holding a position is a more important form of compensation. The respondents were indifferent on the idea that the promotion criteria was adhered to. The responses point to the fact that promotion is inherent in the workplace because the institutions are not-for profit enterprises. When the respondents were asked on the factors that affect promotions, many pointed to discriminations, nepotism.
Table 4.31: Descriptive Statistics on Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N Statistic</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotion after training help improve</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.7110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training leads to better remuneration</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.2659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University scholarships encourage</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary improvement after training</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.5723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultant responsibilities and leadership motivates</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.5665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition accord after successful training</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal advancement and development after training</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.6 Performance of non-teaching employees

The study sought to establish the extent to which accomplishment of work targets lead to performance benefit. The study revealed that 1.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.8% disagreed, 1.1% were not sure, 27.0% agreed, and 69.1% strongly agreed. Generally, 2.8% disagreed, 1.1% were not sure, and 96.1% agreed that accomplishment of work targets leads to performance benefit. Logistics encompasses a complex set of activities which require a collection of metrics to adequately measure performance. Ideally, the performance metrics used should be selected and maintained as a system, so that they can complement and support each other and provide the decision makers with a well-balanced picture of the logistics process (Sheriff, 2012).
The study sought to establish the extent to which employees enjoy working at the university because the university promotes teamwork which translates into higher productivity. The study revealed that 1.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 5.7% disagreed, 2.4% were not sure, 51.1% agreed, and 39.1% strongly agreed. The study agreed with Irawanto (2015) who revealed that training can be viewed as a tool for enabling organizations to increase productivity for the organization and the employees.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees endeavor to meet university goals when possible. The study revealed that 1.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.1% disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, 40.5% agreed, and 55.7% strongly agreed that employees endeavor to meet university goals when possible. Generally, 2.1% disagreed, 1.7% were not sure, while 96.2% agreed that employees endeavor to meet university goals when possible. There is empirical evidence by Irawanto (2015) that positive work participation is encouraged through current organizational issues, related to achieving organizational goals, and discussed at meetings. In addition, employees also show deeper commitment to increasing their motivation in work situation setting, both informal work discussions and formal work environment.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees adhere to university policies at all times. The study revealed that 2.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 2.3% disagreed, 5.1% were not sure, 46.6% agreed and 43.1% strongly agreed that employees adhere to university policies at all times. Generally, 5.2% disagreed, 5.1% were not sure, and 89.7% agreed that employees adhere to university policies at all times. The study agreed with Lecourt et al. (2013) posit that organizations/universities corporate training policies enhance employee interest in training and provide guidance for orderly training schedules, as a university/organization endeavor.

The study sought to establish the extent to which work of employees at the university is of high quality. The study revealed that 8.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1.1% disagreed, 4.0% were not sure, 40.0% agreed, 37.0% strongly
agreed. Generally, 9.1% disagreed, 4.0% were not sure, while 77.0% agreed that work of employees at the university is of high quality. The study thus agreed with ILO (2015) which revealed that in many industries, shorter hours are associated with higher output rates per hour and that flexible working hours have a positive effect on employee satisfaction. In addition, Gupta (2012) observed that well managed organizations viewed employees as a source of quality and productivity gains hence a fundamental source of improvement especially when goals are achieved. According to Appiah (2010), the amount, quality and quantity of training provided vary among organizations. The factors which influence the quantity and quality of training and development activities and output include the degree of change in the external environment, internal environment, the availability of suitable skills within the existing work-force and the extent to which management views training as a motivating factor.

The study sought to establish the extent to which job at the university gives employees pleasure especially when they meet set targets. The study revealed that 2.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 4.0% disagreed, 2.0% were not sure, 33.0% agreed, while 59.0% strongly agreed that job at the university gives employees pleasure especially when they meet set targets. The study agrees with Zimeras et al. (2014) who posit that a large number of factors for instance, work environment and compensation policies influence employee performance.

Organizations should also provide job security, bonuses, and incentives on achievement of target as these HRM Practices have a strong correlation with employee performance. Other practices to be considered are decision making, allowing employees to plan execution of their duties, delegation, equipping them with job related skills, and setting of achievable targets. Other practices to be incorporate include: involvement in task setting, fair evaluation, increased salary on achievement of set targets and administrative rewards (Munjuri, 2011).

The study sought to establish the extent to which the rate of absenteeism at the university is very low. 13% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 9.0% disagreed, 11.0% were not sure, 50% agreed, and 17% strongly agreed. Generally, 22%
disagreed, 11.0% were not sure, while 67% agreed that which the rate of absenteeism at the university is very low. Thus, Punctuality is a sound performance indicator which allows airlines to differentiate themselves from their competitors. It therefore offers significant potential for saving on costs. Similarly, the employees at the university strive to keep time and avoid being absent from work (Booz et., al., 2006).

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees intend to work at the university till retirement. The study revealed that 4.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 2.0% disagreed, 1.0% were not sure, 20.0% agreed, while 73% strongly agreed that employees intended to work at the university till retirement. Generally, 6.0% disagreed, 1.0% were not sure, and 93.0% agreed that employees intended to work at the university till retirement. The study concurred with Akala (2012) who argued that employee retention among non-teaching staff at the UoN is influenced by training and development, performance appraisal, welfare benefits, disciplinary procedure and career growth. Non –teaching employees accepted that institutional support for staff training and development was a major contributor to employee retention. Clear performance targets, fair ratings in assessment, timely application of performance results and upward mobility in careers greatly enhances employee retention at the university. ILO (2012) revealed that employers who offer work schedule flexibility to their employees are likely to improve the recruitment of new staff and the retention of staff, resulting in cost savings to the organization.
Table 4.32: Performance of Non-Teaching Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>NOT</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accomplishment of work targets leads to</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance benefit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy working at the university because</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the university promotes teamwork which</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>translates into higher productivity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I endeavor to meet university goals</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when possible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I adhere to university policies all the</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My work at the university is of high</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rate of absenteeism at the university</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is very low</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job at the university gives me great</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pleasure especially when I meet set</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>standards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intent to work at the university till my</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retirement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.33 shows the resultant effect of the trainings. As is observed from the Table 4.33, there are two components of performance; the individual employee productivity and organizational performance. The individual employee productivity includes high quality work and rate of absenteeism whereas organizational performance is capture by work targets, teamwork and institutional goals. The
statistics show that the respondent’s perceived that accomplishment of work targets would translate to improved performance (Mean = 4.70, SD = 0.48). The work set targets are benchmarks for performance in any organization and thus the respondents perceived that accomplishing work targets would result in improved performance though sometimes it may not be the case.

Teamwork is the new face of work productivity and as such it is given weight by the organizational members (Mean = 4.32, SD = 1.61). Teamwork has been emphasized by many studies as the solution to the employee productivity because it brings unity of purpose, sense of belonging and harmony. Adherence to the institutional goals and objectives is the foundation to the organizational performance and thus the respondents affirmed that they adhered to them (Mean = 4.53, SD = 0.57). Institutional goals serve as a motivator to drive the employee towards the attainment of organizational goals and thus organizational performance.

On the part of the individual employee productivity, the most basic indicator is the quality of work as is performed by the employee. The employees affirmed that they carry out their work assignments to the utmost desired quality (Mean = 4.17, SD = 0.81) while at the same time reducing the time lost by lowering the absenteeism rate to the bare minimum (Mean = 3.70, SD = 1.32). Evidently, the employees were more satisfied with their work (Mean = 4.16, SD = 1.01). The aspect is heavily dependent on the nature of the job the employee is performing, the skills required and job demands. A mismatch in the skill requirement would inadvertently lead to disconnect and thus the dissatisfactions. Most of the responses were centred on the training itself such as continuous training, use of distance learning modules, while others alluded to mentoring and induction, provision of scholarship and provision of financial support. Employees suggested the following ways to improve on employee performance: better pay and remuneration, motivation, equity, recognition and promotion.
Table 4.33: Descriptive Statistics on Employee Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accomplishment of work target leads to performance benefit</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.6994</td>
<td>.48447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork translates into higher productivity</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.3179</td>
<td>1.60579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endeavor to meet the institution goals</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.5318</td>
<td>.56587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adherence to university policies</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.2616</td>
<td>.87602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher quality work</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.1706</td>
<td>.81427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of absenteeism is low</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.6763</td>
<td>1.32479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work gives great satisfaction</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>4.1618</td>
<td>1.01003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intends to work until retirement</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>3.7225</td>
<td>1.06389</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7. Correlation between Independent variable constructs and dependent variable

Table 4.34 shows the correlation coefficient(r) statistics between study variables Training needs assessment (r = 0.025), Training Mode (r = 0.186), Training Duration (r = 0.24) and Training feedback (r =0.017) all positively correlate with performance.

Correlation coefficients can range from -1 to +1. -1 indicates that there is a strong negative relationship between the variables whereas +1 indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between the variables.
Table 4.34: Correlation between Independent variable constructs and dependent variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Training needs assessment</th>
<th>Training Mode</th>
<th>Training duration</th>
<th>Training feedback</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training needs</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.061*</td>
<td>0.086*</td>
<td>0.187*</td>
<td>0.093*</td>
<td>0.025*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.165*</td>
<td>0.022*</td>
<td>0.192*</td>
<td>0.186*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Mode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.168*</td>
<td>0.135*</td>
<td>0.241*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Duration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.121*</td>
<td>0.017*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Feedback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.077*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance at 0.05

4.8 Diagnostics tests (Assumptions of regression analysis)

4.8.1 Shapiro-Wilk Normality tests

Shapiro-Wilk's is recommended for small and medium samples size n = 2000 whereas for large samples, Kolgomorov - Smirnov is recommended. When W is significantly smaller than 1, the normality assumption is not met with W = 1 showing perfect normal distribution.

Table 4.35: Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test the study constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Obs</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>Prob&gt;</th>
<th>z</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.79324</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shapiro-Wilk test for normality in performance construct

H₀: Data is distributed normally
H1: Data is not distributed normally

Since p value is greater than 0.05, the study did not reject the null hypothesis, hence data is assumed to be distributed normally as indicated in table 4.35. Normal distribution means that the data is symmetrical and most of the results lie near the mean.

4.8.2 Tests for Multicollinearity
Two techniques are used concurrently to manage multicollinearity; tolerance and variance inflation factor. In cases of tolerance, the cut-off value is usually 0.4 (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010) the independent variable should be dropped from the analysis due to multicollinearity. Variance inflation factor (VIF) is simply the reciprocal of tolerance. When variance inflation factor (VIF) is used in lieu of tolerance, the rule of thumb is that VIF>10 (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010) when multicollinearity is a problem. Although in this study there was no multicollinearity detected.

4.8.3 Tests for Heteroscedasticity
Heteroscedasticity causes standard errors to be biased. OLS assumes that errors are both independent and identically distributed; robust standard errors relax either or both of those assumptions. The use of robust standard errors did not change the coefficient estimates provided by OLS, but changed the standard errors and significance tests. This means that the test statistics gave reasonably accurate p values (Anderson, 2003 & Saunders, et., al. 2009).

4.9 Linear regression analysis
Before the regression analysis was done the items were dimensionally reduced using factor analysis. This performance component will be used in all the regression models. With the aid of Stata Version 12, linear regression was carried out using the robust model inclusive of the test for heteroscedasticity (Robust HC3).
4.9.1 Objective 1: Training needs assessment

H₀ Training needs assessment had no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Vs.

H₁ Training needs assessment had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Training needs assessment was linear regressed on employee performance. With a constant beta coefficient = 0.941781, table 4.30 shows that \( F(1, 172) = 3525.56 \), with the \( \text{Prob} > F < 0.001 \). This indicates that the overall model is statistically significant in explaining the employee performance. The explanatory power \( R^2 \) is 0.9535 with the adjusted \( R^2 = 0.9532 \). The VIF value is 1, illustrating that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Given the “t” statistic value (30.53)> 1.96, the study rejected that that training needs assessment coefficient is different from zero and since \( p \) value (0.001) < 0.05; the study therefore rejected the null hypothesis (H₀) and thus did not reject the alternate hypothesis (H₁) and concluded that training needs assessment influenced the performance of the non–academic employees at management level in selected public universities. An increase in training needs assessment results in 97% increase in employee performance. In support of this, Nyongesa et., al. (2014) stated that TNA led to well-planned training programs which gave value to organizations in-terms of increased productivity, increased morale, reduced costs, increased organizational stability and flexibility in adapting to changing external environment thus led to improved employee performance.
### Table 4.36: Linear regression analysis for employee performance and training needs assessment

| Training needs assessment | Unstandardized Coefficients | Std. Err. | t     | P>|t| | Standardized Beta coefficient |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------|-------|-----|-----------------------------|
| .9741781                  | .0319075                   | 30.53     | 0.001 | 1.941248                    |

Number of obs = 173
F( 1, 172) = 3525.56
Prob> F < 0.001
R-squared = 0.9535
Root MSE = 0.92753
AdjR-squared = 0.9532
VIF = 1

### 4.9.2 Objective 2: Training mode

H₀: The mode of training had no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Vs.

H₁: The mode of training had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Training mode was linear regressed on employee performance. With a constant beta coefficient =0.9520602, table 4.31 shows that F(1, 171) = 13225.47, with the Prob> F < 0.001. This indicated that the overall equation is statistically significant in explain the performance. The explanatory power R² was 0.9872 with the adjusted R² = 0.9871. The VIF value is 1 illustrating that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Given the “t” statistic value (115.00)> 1.96, the study rejected that that training mode coefficient is different from zero and since p value (0.001) < 0.05; the study therefore rejected the null hypothesis (H₀) and thus did not reject the alternate hypothesis (H₁) and concluded that training mode influenced the performance of the non–teaching employees at management level in selected public universities. An increase in training mode results in 98% increase in employee performance. In support of this
Ongori and Nzongzo (2011) argued that training mode elucidated skills and knowledge that led to improved employee performance.

**Table 4.37: Linear regression for training mode and employee performance**

| Performance | Unstandardized Coefficients | Std. Err. | t | P>|t| | Standardized Beta coefficient |
|-------------|----------------------------|-----------|---|-------|-----------------------------|
| Training modes | .9520602 | .0082786 | 115.00 | 0.001 | .7951646 |

Number of obs = 173  
F(1, 172) = 13225.47  
Prob> F < 0.001  
R-squared = 0.9872  
Root MSE = 0.48727  
Adj R-squared = 0.9871  
VIF = 1

4.9.3 Objective 3: Training duration

H0: Training duration had no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.  
Vs.  
H1: Training duration had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Training duration was linear regressed on employee performance. With a constant beta coefficient = 0.9622036, table 4.32 shows that F (1, 172) = 14840.50, with the Prob> F < 0.001. This indicated that the overall equation is statistically significant in explain employee performance. The explanatory power R² is 0.9886 with the adjusted R² = 0.9885. The VIF value is 1 illustrating that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Given the “t” statistic value (121.82)> 1.96, the study rejected that that training duration coefficient is different from zero and since p value (0.001) < 0.05; the study rejected the null hypothesis (H₀) and thus did not reject the alternate hypothesis (H₁) and concluded that training duration significantly influenced the performance of the
non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities. An increase in training duration results in 96% increase in employee performance. In support of this finding, Akala (2010) established that training duration had proven to improve the individuals in various ways, and were a big investment for the future.

Table 4.38: Linear regression for training duration and employee performance

| Performance | Unstandardized Coefficients | Std. Err. | t | P>|t| | Standardized Beta | VIF |
|-------------|-----------------------------|-----------|---|-------|-------------------|-----|
| Training duration | 0.9622036 | .00789 | 121.8 | 0.001 | 0.6937262 | 1 |

Number of obs = 173, F(1, 172) = 14840.50, Prob> F < 0.001, R-squared = 0.9886, Root MSE = 0.45936, Adj R-squared = 0.9885, VIF = 1

4.9.4 Objective 4: Training feedback

H₀ Training feedback had no significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Vs.

H₁ Training feedback had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Training feedback construct items was linear regressed employee performance. With a constant beta coefficient = 0.9881002, table 4.33 shows that F(1, 171) = 8366.53 with the Prob> F < 0.001. This indicated that the overall equation was statistically significant in explaining employee performance.
Given the “t” statistic value (91.47) > 1.96, the study rejected that that training feedback coefficient is different from zero and since p value (0.001) < 0.05; the study therefore rejected the null hypothesis (H₀) and thus did not reject the alternate hypothesis (H₁) and concluded that training feedback significantly influenced the performance of the non–teaching employees at management level in selected public universities. An increase in training feedback results in 98.8% increase in employee performance. In support of this Akala (2010) argued that from training feedback promotions, transfers, awards, recognition and further training were incentives that led to better employee performance.

**Table 4.39: Linear regression for training feedback and employee performance**

| Performance | Unstandardized Coefficients. | Std. Err. | t | P>|t| | Standardized Beta coefficient |
|-------------|------------------------------|-----------|---|------|-----------------------------|
| Training feedback | .9881002 | .0108026 | 91.47 | 0.001 | 1.025905 |

Number of obs = 173

F(1, 172) = 8366.53

Prob> F < 0.001

R-squared = 0.9799

Root MSE = 0.61037

Adj R-squared = 0.9797

VIF= 1

Table 4.40 shows the overall regression coefficients. With a constant beta coefficient = 0, table 4.34 results show that F (4, 168) = 4154.13, with the Prob> F < 0.001 which indicated that the overall equation is statistically significant in explain the employee performance. The explanatory power R² is 0.9900 with adjusted R² being 0.9898 whereas two variable training; training duration and training mode suffice to explain the employee performance.

Given that all the “t” statistic value are less than 1.96, the study rejected that that training coefficient is different from zero and since p value (0.001) < 0.05; the study therefore rejected the null hypothesis (H₀) and thus did not reject the alternate
hypothesis and concluded that training significantly influenced the performance of the non-teaching employees at the management level in selected public universities.

Table 4.40: Multiple regression for employee performance

| Performance                                    | Unstandardized Coefficients | Std. Err. | t     | P>||t| | Standardized Beta coefficient |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|-------|--------|-----------------------------|
| Training needs assessment                     | .0024177                    | .041117   | 1.93  | 0.042  | 0.0048442                  |
| Training mode                                 | .3967962                    | .088966   | 4.46  | 0.001  | .3330958                   |
| Training duration                             | .558018                     | .094575   | 5.90  | 0.001  | .4023178                   |
| Training feedback                             | .0080652                    | .077022   | 1.83  | 0.0441 | .0084151                   |

Number of obs = 173
F(4, 168) = 4154.13
Prob> F < 0.001
R-squared = 0.9900
Root MSE = 0.43442
AdjR-squared = 0.9898
VIF = 1

4.9.5 Objective 5: Motivation

H₀ Motivation had no moderating influence on the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

Vs.

H₁ Motivation plays a moderating role in the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.
The Table 4.41 results show that $F (4, 168) = 2.56$, with the Prob $> F = 0.0395$, which indicates that the overall model is statistically significant in explain the moderating effect on employee performance. The explanatory power $R^2$ is 0.9715 with adjusted $R^2$ being 0.9435 whereas two variable training; training duration and training mode suffice to explain the employee performance.

Given that all the “t” value are less than 1.96, the study rejected that that motivation coefficient is different from zero and since p value $(0.0395) < 0.05$; The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis ($H_0$) and did not reject alternate hypothesis ($H_1$) and concluded that motivation influences moderation of the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

This effect shows that motivation accentuates the effect of the independent variables by increasing the effects of the individual variables (training mode and training duration). To support this statement Mullins (2010) asserted that motivation is the creation of stimuli, incentives and working environments that enable people to perform to their utmost.
Table 4.41: Linear regression for motivation and employee performance

| Performance       | Unstandardized Coefficients. | Std. Err. | t     | P>|t|   | Standardized Beta coefficient | VIF |
|-------------------|------------------------------|-----------|-------|-------|-------------------------------|-----|
| Training needs assessment | .0120571                    | .0386006  | 4.31  | 0.035 | .0241583                     | 1   |
| Training mode     | .7155889                     | .0976348  | 7.21  | 0.029 | .180979                      | 1   |
| Training duration | .7559528                     | .1094895  | 2.34  | 0.021 | .184536                      | 1   |
| Training feedback | .0803237                     | .0775636  | 5.04  | 0.040 | .0838092                     | 1   |
| Motivation        | .0887686                     | .0881853  | 2.01  | 0.032 | .0839629                     | 1   |

Number of obs = 173
F(4, 168) = 2.56
Prob > F = 0.0395
R-squared = 0.9715
Root MSE = 0.40698
AdjR-squared = 0.9435

1. Test for moderating effect on Motivation and Training duration

The test for moderating effect on training duration was created by multiplying motivation and training duration. The interaction and the main effects are included in a multiple linear regression model. The output is shown in Table 4.42. As indicated by the coefficients in Table 4.42, the slope of independent variable “TD*M” was statistically significant at 95% confidence interval. The slope was 0.335, thus, for every unit increase in motivation, there is 33.5% increase in Training duration predicted holding other variables constant. The results indicated that Motivation positively moderates the relationship between TD and motivation in predicting performance of non-teaching employees in selected public universities in Kenya. The study addressing factors that influence employee retention among non-teaching staff at UoN, by Akala (2010), agree with the findings as he postulates that certificate programs have been proven to improve the individuals’ performance in various ways and are a big investment for the future.
Table 4.42: Coefficients of Motivation and Training Duration

The model used is \( Y = B_0 + B_1 X_1 + B_2 X_2 + B_3 X_3 + B_4 X_4 + B_5 X_5 + \varepsilon \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.586</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td>5.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training duration</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>2.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>2.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>9.090</td>
<td>3.773</td>
<td>2.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training duration</td>
<td>-1.297</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>-1.471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>-1.284</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td>-1.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation*Training Duration</td>
<td>.335</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>1.739</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interaction effect coefficient is significant (p value= 0.044), hence motivation moderates training duration. The change in R square when interaction effect is included is also significant (0.21). This means that 21% of the corresponding change in Motivation can be explained by a unit change in Training Duration. The R square was 21% which means that 21% of change in moderating variable is explained by a change in the independent variable. The results therefore indicate a strong relationship since the recommended level by Szewezak and Snodgrass (2002) lies between 20% to 30%. Therefore it can be concluded that training duration had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management levels in selected public universities in Kenya.
Table 4.43: Interaction Effect Coefficient of Motivation and Training Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Test for moderating effect of Motivation and Training mode

The slope in the regression equation in Table 4.44 indicated that there was an average change in the independent variable with a one unit increase in the moderating variable. The slope of the moderating variable TM*M was not significant in the model at 95% confidence interval. Thus, for every unit increase in TM*M, a decrease in motivation was predicted. This is indicated by regression results with unstandardized beta coefficient of 0.012 and a p-value of 0.931. This implied that there is no significant moderation effect between TM and M. The findings are supported by Tao and Bucy (2007), who state that sometimes a variable may be significant or insignificant, depending on the hypothetical causal path of the model.

Table 4.44: Coefficients of Motivation and Training Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.696</td>
<td>.476</td>
<td>5.665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>2.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training mode</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>2.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.933</td>
<td>2.789</td>
<td>1.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td>.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training mode</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td>.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation*TrainingMode</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model used was Y=B_0+B_1X_1+B_2X_2+e
The results in Table 4.44 showed that Motivation has no moderating effect on the relationship between training mode and performance.

### Table 4.45: Interaction Effect of Motivation and Training Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Adjusted R</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
<th>Sig. F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>F Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td>.40623</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.275</td>
<td>.40742</td>
<td></td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The slope in the regression equation in Table 4.45 indicated that there was an average change in the independent variable with a one unit increase in the moderating variable. The slope of the moderating variable TM*M was not significant in the model at 95% confidence interval. Thus, for every unit increase in TM*M, a decrease in motivation was predicted. This is indicated by regression results with unstandardized beta coefficient of 0.012 and a p-value of 0.931, the $R^2$ change is 0.000. This implies that there is no significant moderation effect between TM and M. The findings are supported by Tao and Bucy (2007), who state that sometimes a variable may be significant or insignificant, depending on the hypothetical causal path of the model.

### 3. Test for moderating effect of Motivation and Training needs assessment

The test for moderating effect on Motivation and Training needs assessment was obtained by multiplying motivation and Training needs assessment. This interaction and the main effects are included in a multiple linear regression model. The output is shown in Table 4.46. As indicated in the coefficient table, the slope of independent variable “TNA*M” was statistically significant at 95% confidence interval. The slope was 0.087. Thus for every unit increase in motivation, there is 1.3% increase in TNA predicted holding other variables constant. The results indicated that there was moderation between TNA and M in predicting management level non-teaching
employee’s Performance in selected public universities in Kenya. The study by Nyongesa et al, (2014) agrees with the findings as he postulates that well planned training programs give value to organizations in terms of increased morale, productivity, reduced costs, and increase in organizational stability, and flexibility to changing external requirements. Brown (2002); and Sifuna (2006), stated that TNA helps improve quality of policy, program decisions and may lead to improvements in performance and accomplishments of desired results.

Table 4.46: Coefficients of Motivation and TNA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>3.559</td>
<td>.319</td>
<td>11.156</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>2.622</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TNA</td>
<td>-0.112</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>2.980</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (Constant)</td>
<td>5.270</td>
<td>1.824</td>
<td>2.890</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>2.505</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TNA</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>2.975</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation*TrainingNeeds</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>2.953</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model used was \( Y=B_0+B_1X_1+B_2X_2+B_3X_3+\varepsilon \)

The interaction effect coefficient is significant (p value = 0.013), hence motivation moderates training needs assessment (TNA). The change in R square when interaction effect is included is also significant (0.013). The interaction term improves the goodness of fit by 10.1 %. This change was found to be significant. The results therefore indicate a strong relationship since the recommended level by Szewezak and Snodgrass (2002) is between 20% and 30%.
Table 4.47: Interaction Effect of Motivation and TNA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of R</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
<th>R Square Change</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.41167</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>3.439</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td>.31178</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>4.908</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Test for moderating effect of Motivation and Training Feedback

The slope in the regression equation in Table 4.48 indicated that the average change in the independent variable with a one unit increase in the moderating variable. The slope of the moderating variable TF*M was not significant in the model at 95% confidence interval. Thus, for every unit increase in TF *M, a decrease in motivation was predicted. This is indicated by regression results with unstandardized beta coefficient of 0.058 and a p-value of 0.723. These imply that there is no significant moderation effect between TF and motivation. The findings are supported by Tao and Bucy (2007), who state that sometimes a variable may be significant or insignificant depending on the hypothetical causal path of the model.
Table 4.48: Coefficients of Performance and Training Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Error</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>3.626</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>8.313</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>2.083</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training feedback</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>2.328</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (Constant)</td>
<td>4.780</td>
<td>3.284</td>
<td>1.455</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>.700</td>
<td>-.120</td>
<td>.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training feedback</td>
<td>.295</td>
<td>.768</td>
<td>-.384</td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation*TrainingFeedback</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>.723</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model used was $Y=B_0+B_1X_1+B_2X_2+B_3X_3+B_4X_4+\varepsilon$

The results in Table 4.49 showed that Motivation explained 72.3% of the variation in training feedback. The results therefore indicated a strong relationship as the level recommended by Szewezak and Snodgrass (2002) is between 20% and 30%. The relationship of $R=0.428$ and $R^2 = 0.001$ meant that 0.1% of the corresponding change in TF can be explained by a unit change in Motivation. The interaction term improves the goodness of fit by 0.1%. This change was found to be insignificant.

Table 4.49: Interaction effect of Motivation and Training Feedback

| Model | Std. | Change Statistics | |
|-------|------|--------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|       | Adjusted R | Error of R | R Square | Estimate | Change | Square | F | df1 | df2 | Sig. F | Change |
| 1     | .428 | .41164 | .039 | 3.449 | 2 | 170 | .034 |
| 2     | .423 | .41271 | .001 | .126 | 1 | 169 | .723 |
Multiple Regression Analysis Results for all Variables

The study aimed at establishing the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employee at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. The aspects of training that were studied included training needs assessment, training duration, training mode and training feedback, with motivation as the moderating variable.

The model equation, is \( Y = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4 + B_5X_5 + \varepsilon \), measured at 60% as shown in Table 4.50. The \( R^2 \) value was .600. This shows that the model explains 60% of the variance in the dependent variable. This therefore indicated a strong relationship since the recommended level by Szewezak and Snodgrass, (2002) is between 20% and 30%. The relationship of, \( R = 0.600 \) and \( R^2 = 0.092 \) which meant that 9.2 % of the corresponding change in performance can be explained by a unit change in motivation. Co-efficient of determination in linear regression relationship, tells how well the regression line fits the data. It is an important indicator of the predictive accuracy of the equation. Goodness of fit refers to how well the model fits the data, (Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams 2002).

The overall model as shown on Table 4.51 imply that out of the four independent variables, TNA was significant at \( p=0.022 \) with a beta of 0. 013. Training Duration had a \( p \) value of 0.001, hence significant and a beta of 0.703. Feedback exhibited a low significance at \( p=0.086 \) and its beta was 0.241. Mode had a high significance of \( p=0.037 \) with a beta of 0.928. These results suggested that TNA, TD and TM had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employee at management level in selected public universities, while Feedback was insignificant.

The findings corroborate with what Tao and Bucy, (2007), found out that although the level of interactivity in structural studies is generally presumed to be objective and the effects more or less uniform across users, interactive attributes can and do have differential effects. Such findings suggest that changes in the dependent variable are not a direct function of the independent variable, (the level of interactivity), that is, \( Y \) is not equal to \( f(X) \). Instead, there may be one or more
variables moderating the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

**Table 4.50: Model Summary without Constant**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Adjusted R</th>
<th>Error of R Square</th>
<th>Change in R Square</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.41773</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>167</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td>.40487</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>9.592</td>
<td>164</td>
<td></td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Linear Regression analysis of performance and Motivation**

Linear Regression analysis of performance and motivation was done and based on the results of the study as presented in Table 4.51, it was indicated as follows: the correlation coefficient (p) between performance and motivation was found to be at 0.000 with a beta coefficient of 0.234. These findings indicate that there was strong linear correlation between the two variables.

**Training needs assessment**

Training needs assessment had a beta of 0.017 and standard error of 0.040, with a calculated t value of 0.437, with a p value of 0.662. This implies that motivation had a low moderating effect on TNA with a (p) value of 0.662. Although, studies by Brown (2002); and Sifuna (2006), state that TNA helps improve quality of policy, program decisions and may lead to improvements in performance and accomplishments of desired results.

**Training Mode**

Training mode variable had a beta coefficient of 0.328, standard error was at 0.087, with a calculated t value of 3.757 and the (p) value was 0.000. This implies that motivation had a strong positive significant effect on training mode.
Training Duration

Training duration had a beta coefficient of 0.404 and a standard error at 0.099. Calculated t was at 4.058 and the p value was= 0.000 .This suggests that motivation had a high significant influence on Training Duration. The study on factors that influence employee retention among non-teaching staff at UoN, by Akala (2010), agree with the findings as he postulates that short-term programs have been proven to improve the individuals’ performance in various ways and are a big investment for the future.

Training feedback

Training feedback had a beta of 0.006 and standard error was 0.74. Calculated t was at 0.086 and the (p) value was= 0.932 .This implies that motivation had a very weak influence on training feedback. Opus (2008), stated that there was no positive relationship between employee motivation and resultant good performance since other factors exists in the interplay and should be in place, such as achievement, advancement, responsibility, and recognition. In addition to positive relationships which are essential for performance, there is need for adequate remuneration, good working conditions, and reliable job security to motivate employees. In addition; supervision, performance appraisals, coupled with training were important to encourage employee good performance. However, a contrary opinion is held by Atwater et al. (2000) who reported that providing individuals with written feedback does not necessarily predict improvement in subsequent performance.
Table 4.51: Model Summary with constant and without constant in model 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Motivation</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>3.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TNA</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training mode</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>3.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training duration</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>4.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training feedback</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>5.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 TNA</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.408</td>
<td>2.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training mode</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>2.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training duration</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>0.564</td>
<td>3.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training feedback</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>1.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation*TrainingNeeds</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>2.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation*TrainingDuration</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>2.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation*TrainingMode</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>1.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation*TrainingFeedback</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>1.024</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.10 Optimal Model

The coefficients for regression of all variables indicated that TNA, TD, TM and TF were significant. However, Training Mode and Training Feedback presented low significance. In arriving at the final model, the four variables TNA, TM, TD and TF were significant and were retained since they all had influence on performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

The model holds that: \[ Y=0.13X_1 +0.928X_2+0.703X_3+0.241X_4+\varepsilon \]

Where \( Y \) = Dependent variable (Performance)
X_1 = TNA
X_2 = Training Mode
X_3 = Training Duration
X_4 = Training Feedback
ε = Error Term

Training Needs Assessment X_1

Training Mode X_2

Training Duration X_3

Training Feedback X_4

Performance Y

Motivation X_5

Independent Variables

Moderating Variable

Dependent Variable

Figure: 12 Optimal Model
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter comprises of the summaries of the findings and implications derived from the objectives of the study and conclusions arrived at from the objectives are stipulated. Important recommendations and suggestions for further research are incorporated, based on the results of this study.

5.2 Summary of major findings
The study aimed at establishing the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. The independent variables included: Training needs assessment, Training Mode, Training duration and Training feedback. Motivation was a moderating variable, while performance was the dependent variable. The study revealed that all the independent variables such as TNA, Training Mode, Training Duration, and Training feedback all played a significant role in the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

5.2.1 Influence of training needs assessment on performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya
The study revealed that public universities in Kenya administer TNA to non-teaching employees in management cadres to enable exposure of staff to relevant trainings, with the aim of achieving organizational goals and objectives. For instance, most of the respondents agreed to having been assessed by administration before they were exposed to TNA exercise. In this case, TNA lead to acquisition of appropriate skills. Greater regard should be preferred to training needs of special groups. TNA helped identify employees who seriously needed to improve on the use of new technology in performing duties. With the onset of Globalization, new technology has made communication easier as it is through the use of new technology that organizations
will keep abreast with new economic and social trends in the world. TNA curbs wastage of man hours, and monetary resources by not launching unrequired programs for employee training. TNA therefore helps in maintaining standards in performance. The right personnel are exposed to the right training which bridges the gap of lack of adequate training. Through TNA, new job opportunities are identified for employees and as a result, many employees stay focused in their relevant and appropriate jobs. TNA helped in the improvement of quality policy and program decisions culminating in improvement in performance and accomplishment of desired results. TNA involved moving from current to desired results and directed subsequent decisions such as design, implementation, and evaluation of projects and programs that give desired results.

5.2.2 Influence of mode of training on performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya

The study revealed that mode of training had played a significant influence on non-teaching employee performance at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. Most of the respondents agreed that performance improved after training while on the job training helped in operations, as computer based knowledge helped them to undertake bigger quantity and quality of work. Depending on the mode of training, employees acquired knowledge that improved their performance. Job rotation helped employees to master operations in most departments within the university, enabling employees to work with ease in any department. Where possible for senior technical staff, apprenticeship promoted transfer of skills and knowledge to employees through participation and observation.

5.2.3 Influence of training duration on performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya

The study revealed that duration of training played a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. Duration implies the length of time training takes; therefore, there are short programs: seminars, conferences, workshops, and long programs: PhD, Masters, degree, diploma, certificate, others include management sponsored
trainings. Most of the respondents agreed that short-duration programs helped in the attainment of degree programs, and at the same time enhanced work performance. Generally majority of respondents indicated high percentages agreeing that duration of training played a significant role in non-teaching employee performance in selected public universities in Kenya. Short training improved employee performance at management level in selected public universities and had a positive impact on job skills, improved behavior, and organizational decision making.

5.2.4 Influence of Training feedback on performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya

The study revealed that training feedback played a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. Most of the respondents agreed that appraisal practiced at universities helped identify areas to improve skills. The study therefore established that employees required frequent feedback; as positive reinforcement was the most desired and effective form of feedback.

5.2.5 Influence of motivation in moderation of the relationship between training and performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya

The study revealed that motivation played a significant role in moderating the relationship between non-teaching employee training and performance. Motivation occurs in various forms such as: financial: promotions, better remuneration, salary, and scholarships, which encourage more involvement in training. The study further established that employee engagement can be increased through sponsorship in an attempt to develop a performance culture to motivate employees. Non-financial motivation can be envisaged in higher responsibilities, personal advancement and recognition granted to employees. Recognition by compliments and certificates are accorded on completion of courses. The motivating factors mentioned inherently cause employees to perform better. The study confirmed that allowing employees to participate in decision making led to increase in motivation, job performance and organizational growth.
5.3 Conclusions
The study aimed at establishing the influence of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya. The independent variables included: Training needs assessment, mode of training, training duration and training feedback. The moderating variable was motivation, and the dependent variable was performance. The study revealed that all independent variables of training had a significant influence on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities in Kenya.

The universities administer TNA, for total quality management control. The mode of training used is of relevance to employees and of good quality. Training duration was well timed and acceptable to both employees and the university management. Training feedback is an area given much attention by public universities management as well. The study established that motivation played a significant moderating influence between training and non-teaching employee performance. Motivated employees work with purpose, vision, and accomplish set assignments.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Training Needs Assessment.
Public universities should continue administering TNA to employees to help identify areas affecting staff and recommend for them trainings accordingly to help bridge the gap between what is happening and what is expected to be done. This is because trainings which are irrelevant to employees, would lead to waste of time and financial resources. Through trainings need assessment, public universities will realize many new job opportunities for various employees and employees will therefore be happy, satisfied and stay focused in their appropriate jobs.

5.4.2 Training Mode.
Various training methods in the study were widely used in most public universities in the study. However, public universities must recognize the effect of globalization and step up computer/web based training/awareness to all employees, in order to survive in this competitive era. Job rotation should not be used as a punishment but it should
be done in a way that is appealing, knowing employees would benefit from exposure to many departments.

5.4.3 Training Duration.
Programs should be well designed and take adequate duration to enable appropriate evaluation. The programs should be developed by experts and involve participation by employees. Employees should be encouraged to attend workshops, seminars & conferences to stay relevant in their jobs.

5.4.4 Training Feedback.
Public Universities must give timely training feedback to employees after attending trainings. Delayed feedback is of no use to employees. Feedback should be relayed with caution and in a humane manner to encourage positive reception and taking of action.

5.4.5 Motivation
Public universities should consider effecting timely financial and non-financial benefits to employees. Motivation is an incentive that employees cherish and appreciate. Delayed motivation already waves the desire for employees to perform better. On successful completion of training, employees should be motivated timely with appropriate promotions, salary increments, scholarships, higher responsibility, recognition and personal advancement. If motivation is delayed, then employees lose morale and lower performance.

Employee welfare is considered by incorporating HR department to hasten employee updates and appropriately slotting them in required cadres with relevant provisions. For instance, after promotion there are advantages the employees deserve. The universities should formulate and effect policies for motivating their employees.

5.5 Areas for further research
More research should be conducted on the same topic as well as longitudinal study to compare various times and happening and check for consistency in the way universities conduct and monitor training. This study concentrated on the influence
of training on the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in selected public universities, but another study could be conducted covering all university staff both teaching and non-teaching from lower cadres to the higher levels. In addition, a study could be conducted on employees in private universities, or a comparative study between private and public universities.
REFERENCES


Henriksen, T. (2004). *Beyond role and play: On the transmutation of educational role-play: A critical reframing to the role-play in order to meet educational demands*. Helsinki: Solmukohta Inc.


*Oxford advanced learners dictionary, 6th edition*


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APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

JKU/HD412-0624/2010

Khakayi Scholastica Wamwayi

P.O Box 62000-00200,

Nairobi.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: DATA COLLECTION

I am Scholastica Khakayi Wamwayi. REG NO: HD412-0624/2010 PhD student at JKUAT. I am kindly requesting for your cooperation to obtain data and information from you, within the scope of the study.

The title of the research is: Role of training in the performance of non-teaching employees at management level in public universities in Kenya.

Please note that information obtained will be confidential, and only serve for research purposes.

I appreciate your assistance and co-operation.

Yours Faithfully

Scholastica Khakayi W.
APPENDIX 2  SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been designed to gather information on the role of training in the performance of non-teaching employees in management level in grades 13 to 15 in public universities. The findings will help to enhance effectiveness of training in the university.

Kindly respond by placing a tick in the appropriate box depending on how you view the situation. Please do not write your name nor identify yourself as that is not part of the research.

SECTION I: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Age

   20-30 □
   31-40 □
   41-50 □
   51-60 □
   51-60 □
   Over 61 □

2. Gender

   Male □
   Female □
3. What level of education have you attained to date?

- Degree
- Masters
- PhD
- Other

4. Please indicate your department.

- Administration
- Library
- Estates
- Transport
- Hostels
- Research
- Academic division
- Other

5. Indicate your job group

- Grade 13
- Grade 14
- Grade 15
6. State the number of years you have worked at the university

5-10 Years

11-20 Years

21-30 Years

Above 30 Years

7. State the number of trainings you have undergone.

One

Two

More than two

**Tick as appropriate:**

8 a) What type of training is imparted to employees that help them to settle quickly in the university?

- Induction training
- Technical training
- Management training
- Skill presentation
- Other (Specify)

b). How frequent have you benefited from the long duration courses you were exposed to, by the university

- Very frequent
- Frequent
- Not at all
c). How long did the training take?

Over Two weeks
One month
One year
Over one year

9. General complaints raised by non-teaching employees about training sessions include:

Time of the employee having been taken away
Too frequent breaks between training sessions
Training sessions seem unplanned
Training sessions being mostly boring

10. Explain how many times you benefitted from the short courses which you attended.

Once
Twice
More than twice

11. How long did the short term training you attended take?

One week
One month
More than a month
12. How many promotions have you attained after training sessions?

One  □
Two □
Three □
None of the above □

13. The training I underwent created an impact on my Performance

To a small extent □
To great extent □
Not at all □

14. How has e-learning benefitted you in the execution of your daily duties?

Made work easier □
Helps in making presentations at meetings □
Helped me to acquire more knowledge by use of E-conferencing □
Has not helped me at all □
15. How has the current leadership helped in the improvement of your work?

Enhanced approval and attending of trainings
Provided finances for training away from work
Has provided finances for in-house training
Has not helped me at all
SECTION II (A): INFORMATION ON INFLUENCE OF TRAINING ON THE PERFORMANCE OF NON-TEACHING EMPLOYEES AT MANAGEMENT LEVEL IN SELECTED PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA.

1. Training Needs Assessment

Training needs assessment refers to a process of identifying performance requirements and the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by an organization’s workforce to achieve the requirements (Nyongesa, et al. 2014). TNA is a systematic process for determining and addressing needs or ‘gaps’ between current conditions and desired conditions or ‘wants’. The discrepancy must be measured to identify the need, which may be a desire to improve current performance or to correct a deficiency (Wikipedia).

Appropriately tick the extent to which you agree or disagree on the following TNA statements where:

5 Strongly Agree 4 Agree 3 Not sure 2 Disagree 1 Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>5 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>4 Agree</th>
<th>3 Not-Sure</th>
<th>2 Disagree</th>
<th>1 Strongly Dis-Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was assessed by administration on Training needs assessment before undertaking training.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment was conducted before my acquisition of new skills</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training needs assessment has helped to improve my use of New Technology</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

165
Training needs assessment enabled me to undergo courses which enhanced Legislation, and policies that are introduced by Government.

Training needs assessment helped me to gain higher standards in performance.

Training needs assessment enabled me to identify new jobs opportunities.

State the best methods used in identification of employees Training needs in the university:

Suggest ways in which feedback from Training needs assessments should be submitted to employees:

2. Mode of Training

Mode of training refers to a particular type, or technique of training (Hornby, 2002).

Appropriately tick the extent to which you agree or disagree on the following Mode of training statements where:

5 Strongly Agree  4 Agree  3 Not sure  2 Disagree  1 Strongly Disagree
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>4 Agree</th>
<th>3 Not Sure</th>
<th>2 Disagree</th>
<th>1 Strongly Dis-Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have gained a lot of knowledge after attending on the job training</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the job training has improved my performance skills at the university</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Rotation has helped me to master operations in most of the divisions in the university</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship is a better method of transfer of skills and knowledge to employees</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I undertake bigger quantity and quality of work as a result of Computer based knowledge that I acquired</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge acquired during training by lecture method helps improve my work performance</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lecture notes obtained during training have helped me in terms of reference material in the course of executing my duties.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I concentrate better during training</td>
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<tr>
<td>Offered away from the university premises</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy comfort at work place after induction training at the university</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management trainings that I attended have benefitted me in the course of performing my duties</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suggest ways in which Computer Based learning can be of benefit to Human Resource functions of the university—

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State other HRM strategies that the university could employ to enhance work performance—

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3. Training Duration

Training duration refers to the length of time that training lasts or continues (Horn by, 2002).
 Appropriately tick the extent to which you agree or disagree on the following Training duration statements where:

5 Strongly Agree 4 Agree 3 Not Sure 2 Disagree 1 Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Not Sure</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Strongly Dis-Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I appreciate long duration Programs which have enabled me to higher degrees.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long duration trainings attended enhanced my work performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>The one week workshops sponsored by the university have improved my knowledge and skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seminars held within and outside the university for three to four weeks improve my knowledge and performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The conferences I attended for six months have boosted my knowledge</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Suggest how best the University Management and HR Department could benefit from long duration courses

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169
In your view, suggest whether Conferences and workshops attended by senior management non-teaching employees are beneficial.

4. Training Feedback

Training feedback refers to information that employees receive while they are performing how well they are meeting objectives (Noe, 2010).

** Appropriately tick the extent to which you agree or disagree on the following Training feedback statements where:**

5 Strongly Agree 4 Agree 3 Not sure 2 Disagree 1 Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Performance Appraisal practiced at the university helped identify areas to improve my skills</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I always get Feedback immediately after training</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. My participation in management decision making has improved my</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>I always accomplish targets set by the university</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually accorded adequate time to reflect and understand whatever I learn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Training policy has greatly helped me to undergo various trainings in the university</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually evaluated in relation to the knowledge, skills and competence acquired after training.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy using up to date materials during training</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State whether training acquired prepared you adequately for more challenging duties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State whether you are comfortable and satisfied with your current job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you are not satisfied, suggest the best ways the University could employ to make the situation satisfying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Motivation

Motivation refers to strength and direction in behavior and the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways. It can also refer to goals that individuals have and how individuals choose their goals, and ways in which others try to influence their behavior (Armstrong, 2009).

Appropriately tick the extent to which you agree or disagree on the following motivation statements where:

5 Strongly Agree 4 Agree 3 Not sure 2 Disagree 1 Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a) Financial sub variable</th>
<th>5 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>4 Agree</th>
<th>3 Not Sure</th>
<th>2 Disagree</th>
<th>1 Strongly Dis-Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I appreciate promotions I attained after training sessions as they helped me improve my work performance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training has led to better remuneration which has given me impetus to work hard and achieve both organizational and personal goals</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having trained on university scholarship has encouraged me to</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After attending training, my salary improved, thus making me more interested to work hard for the university.

**b) Non-financial sub variable**

After undertaking training, non-teaching employees are given higher responsibilities, leadership which motivates them to perform better.

Recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training.

Employees experience general personal advancement, development and are more confident in performing their duties

State whether the criteria of promotion is adhered to at the university. --------------------

What other problems are experienced in relation to promotions at the university?-----
Do you think training can lead to improvement and betterment of the employee?

1. Performance of Non-Teaching Staff

Refers to how well employees perform on the job and assignments given to them against the accepted performance standards set by the organization (Appiah, 2010)

Carefully think about the following statements and appropriately tick the extent to which you agree or disagree using the key provided
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5 Strongly Agree</th>
<th>4 Agree</th>
<th>3 Not Sure</th>
<th>2 Disagree</th>
<th>1 Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy exceeding given work targets which lead to surplus from which I benefit in terms of bonus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy working at the university because the university promotes teamwork which translates into higher productivity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I endeavor to meet university goals when possible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I adhere to university policies all the time.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suggest various ways in which the university H/R can improve training to enhance non-teaching employee work performance.

Suggest possible ways in which top management at university can improve employee performance.
APPENDIX 4  SUPERVISOR’S INTERVIEW GUIDE

1) a). How does the university conduct Training needs assessment for non-teaching employees in the university
b). How do you identify gaps in terms of employee skills?
c). How does the university identify employees with gaps and require acquisition of more knowledge?

2) a). Are non-teaching employees assessed to ascertain whether they are able to transfer the learning situation to the working situation?
b). Are non-teaching employees subjected to job rotation and why?
c). Does the university use apprenticeship training methods for non-teaching employees.
d). Do employees with Computer Based Knowledge give better output at work?

3) a). After non-teaching employees attend long-term training? Do they perform their duties utmost? And who sponsors such trainings?
b). Does the university offer development programs for non-teaching employees?

4) a). Does the university appraise no-teaching employees after the training?
b). What other methods does the university use to get feedback from non-teaching employees?

5) a). What kind of financial incentives does the university extend to non-teaching employees
b). What kind of non-financial incentives does the university give to non-teaching employees

6) a). Does the university encourage teamwork among the non-teaching employees?
b). Does the university adhere to training policy for non-teaching employees?
c). Does the university encourage non-teaching employees to accomplish set targets and meet the goals of the university?
## APPENDIX 4  LIST OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of University</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Chuka</td>
<td>Chuka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. DedanKimathi university of technology</td>
<td>Nyeri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Egerton University</td>
<td>Njoro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. JaramongiOgingaOdinga University of science and technology</td>
<td>Bondo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Jomo Kenyatta university of agriculture and technology</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Karatina university</td>
<td>Karatina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Kenyatta university</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Kisii university</td>
<td>Kisii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Laikipia university</td>
<td>Nyahururu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Maasai Mara university</td>
<td>Narok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Maseno university</td>
<td>Maseno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. MasindeMuliro university of Science and Technology</td>
<td>Kakamega</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Meru university of Science and technology</td>
<td>Meru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Moi university</td>
<td>Eldoret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Multimedia university</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Pwani university</td>
<td>Kilifi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. South Eastern Kenya university</td>
<td>Kitui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Technical university of Kenya</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Technical university of Mombasa</td>
<td>Mombasa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. University of Eldoret</td>
<td>Eldoret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. University of Kabianga</td>
<td>Kericho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. University of Nairobi</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Commissions for University Education (2014)*