

Role of Training Needs Assessment in the Performance of Non-Teaching Employees at Management Level In Public Universities in Kenya

Scholastica Khakayi Wamwayi*, Dr. Iravo M. Amuhaya**, Prof. ElegwaMukulu***, Dr. Gichuhi A. Waititu****

* Ph.D. Student; Department of Entrepreneurship, Technology, Leadership and Management; Jomo Kenyatta University of Science and Technology: Nairobi, Kenya.

** Senior Lecturer: Department of Entrepreneurship, Technology, Leadership and Management; Jomo Kenyatta University of Science and Technology: Nairobi, Kenya.

*** Professor: Department of Entrepreneurship, Technology, Leadership and Management; Jomo Kenyatta University of Science and Technology: Nairobi, Kenya.

**** Senior Lecturer: Department of Basic and Applied Sciences; Jomo Kenyatta University of Science and Technology: Nairobi, Kenya.

Abstract- The aim of this study was to establish the role of training needs assessment in the performance of non-teaching employees in public universities in Kenya. The study was conducted in eight of the twenty-two public universities in Kenya with a sample size of 176 non-teaching employees. 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 and correlation. The study used open and closed ended questionnaires and a Likert measurement scale of 1 to 5. The study results revealed that training need assessment (p value = 0.001) was statistically significant and therefore had a role to play in the performance of the non-academic staff at the public universities.

Index Terms- training, performance, training needs assessment, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

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). It is imperative that the institutions of higher learning or businesses whose goals are to survive and prosper invest in training and development in order to improve production and acquire great returns in the investment of human capital (Truitt, 2012). According to Akala (2010), training is crucial for the development of non-teaching employees, due to HR activities such as job training, coaching, mentoring, counseling, and general career development that enable employees get support, knowledge, abilities that promote chances of being employed, and remain marketable as they are endowed with required specific skills in the universities

Training in work or organizations and society is well suited for making a 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. 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). 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 & Farooq, 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.

Employees who receive specific training for instance, on-the-job training are likely to stay, than those who do not, (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. In multinational companies, training can provide an important impetus to achieve shared values and to facilitate network building between headquarters and subsidiaries.

Training of employees in universities, increases higher productivity through better job performance, more efficient use of human resources, attainment of organization goals, reduced costs due to less labor turnover, reduced errors, reduced accidents and absenteeism, more capable workforce and retention of existing staff.

Dessler (2005) postulated that having high quality employees, puts an organization in a competitive advantage over others even if it be the same industry and 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 changes (Ongori & Nzonzo, 2011). 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

Training and development is envisaged as the process of systematically developing expertise in individuals for the purpose of improving performance (Swanson, 2001). The employees turn out to be better after training, perform better and increase both individual and company performance, culminating in high productivity and output.

The challenges experienced by universities currently, such as large student enrollments, globalization, with inherent competitive advantage for employees and students, has called for more recent trends in the expertise of delivery of quality services, need for recognition and prestige, and a competitive edge over each other. The recent introduction of performance contract requires that staff productivity is assessed annually, especially on the attainment of agreed performance indicators for non-teaching staff. The employees must be quick to adapt to the ever changing world markets and universities must continuously develop their employees as revealed in studies of Shelton, (2000). The gap between employees' abilities, skills, and knowledge of work and organizational goals and objectives must be bridged. 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).

Newly transferred staff requires induction to boost performance while older employees require upgrading of skills and adapting to new technology (ILO, 2008). The universities should be assertive in training employees in order to remove weak and negative aspects which can derail employees and firm output. Studies have been conducted on training and commitment, attitudes, retention and turnover among teaching employees (Brum, 2007; Kipkebut, 2010; Ngethe, Iravo & Namusonge, 2012, & Obwogi, 2011), yet not many studies have been conducted on the topic addressing the role of training needs assessment in the performance of non-teaching employees in public universities in Kenya. Problems such as heavy reliance on government for financing staff remuneration, unfair promotions, few promotional opportunities, and promotion criteria that is subject to manipulation all the time result in demoralization, low motivation and brain drain (Kipkebut, 2010).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Reinforcement Theory

Skinner (2013), stated that people are motivated to perform or avoid certain behaviours due to past experiences that arise from these behaviors. Various processes in reinforcement theory such as positive reinforcement which is pleasurable behaviour resulting from a behaviour. Negative reinforcement is the removal of pleasurable behaviour outcome. When both the pleasurable and un-pleasurable behaviours are withdrawn the

resultant behaviour is extinction. Punishment is unpleasant outcome resulting from some behaviour that may culminate in the decrease in that behaviour. From a training perspective, reinforcement theory suggests that for learners to acquire knowledge, change behaviour or modify skills, the trainer needs to identify what outcomes the learner finds most appealing and which he or she finds negating.

Trainers should therefore connect these outcomes to learners acquiring knowledge or skills or changing behaviour. There are very many advantages that learners will encounter when they participate in training programmes. 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 programme content. The effectiveness of learning depends on the pattern or schedule for providing these reinforcers or benefits (Mullins, 2010). Modifying behaviour 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 behaviours at work. This actually promotes the employees wellbeing and positive feedback given to them. Reinforcement theory argues that behaviour 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 and change of behaviour, modification of skills and positive feedback, and progress achieved in steps leading to desired results.

Reinforcement theory emphasizes 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



The reward may be reinforced in case of positive stimuli, or withheld in case negative stimuli but punishment may be administered instead. 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)

2.2 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework illustrates the relationship between the independent variable (performance of non-teaching staff in management level) and the dependent variable (Training Needs Assessment). Motivation will be a moderating variable

between training and performance of non-teaching employees in public universities in Kenya. Figure 2.1 below illustrates the conceptual framework which will be used in the study.

Training Needs Assessment

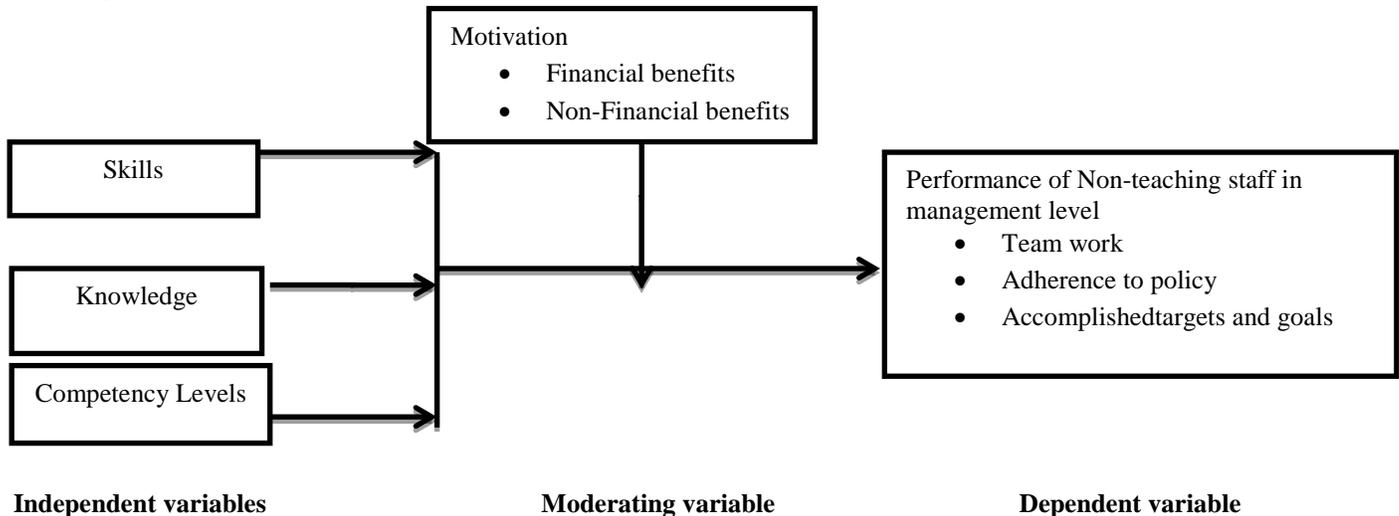


FIGURE 2.1: Conceptual Framework

III. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the Survey design and Correlational research designs. Survey strategy allows collection of quantitative data which can be analyzed quantitatively by use of descriptive and inferential statistics.

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.

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. 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 random sampling because the population is 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).

$$n = \frac{z^2 p q}{d^2}$$

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 will be:

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (.50) (.50)}{(0.05)^2} = 384$$

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) has been adapted in this study.

$$Nf = n / (1+ nf)/N$$

Where:

nf= 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:

$$= 384/ (1+450) / 384$$

$$= 384/ 2.17$$

$$= 176$$

$$\text{Percentage} = 176/450 * 100 = 39\%$$

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.

The accessible population or the respondents were drawn from the 8 out of the 22 public universities in Kenya. A sample of (36%) 8 public universities out of the total 22 public universities were selected for the purpose of this study. The study

used Non-probability sampling specifically purposive sampling technique to select the 176 non-teaching staff in management level at public universities. Table 1 below illustrates the sampling frame developed by the researcher of the 8 selected public universities operating in Kenya.

Name of University	No of Non-Teaching Employees	Non-Teaching Employees in Grades			Sample Size
		13	14	15	
JKUAT	67	11	11	5	27
KU	65	12	11	4	27
MOI	63	11	10	3	24
Eldoret	50	9	8	3	20
UoN	66	11	11	3	25
Egerton	54	9	9	2	20
Maseno	35	5	5	3	13
MMUST	50	9	8	3	20
TOTAL	450	77	73	26	176

Table 1 Sample Frame

A structured questionnaire was used to obtain the data. A Pilot study of 10% (17 respondents) of the desired sample size of 176 respondents will be carried out at Kenyatta University, Nairobi University and Jomo Kenyatta University. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) the purpose of the pilot study is mainly to pretests the instrument to ensure that the items in the instrument are stated clearly and have the same meaning to all the respondents. The pretest enabled the study asses the clarity of the instrument and asses the time taken to administer the instrument. The reason for choice of 3 universities: Kenyatta, Nairobi and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology is because they have similar characteristics and features as the other universities in Kenya. The pretest was subjected to the internal consistency technique using the Kunder-Richardson (K-R) 20 Formula which is as follows:

$$KR_{20} = \frac{(K)(S_2 - \sum s_2^2)}{(S_2)(K-1)}$$

Where:

KR20= Reliability coefficient of internal consistency

K = Number of items used to measure the concept

S2 = Variance of all scores

s2 = Variance of individual items

A high coefficient will imply that items correlate highly among themselves indicating that there exists consistency among the items in measuring the concept of interest (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

Data was analyzed using quantitative analysis. The first step described and summarized the data by use of descriptive statistics. This enabled the researcher to meaningfully describe the distribution of results depending on the variables in the study and the scale of measurements used. Descriptive statistics such as

Measures of central tendency (Mean, Mode and Median) and Measures of variability (range, standard deviation, frequency distribution, histograms, frequency polygons, bar charts, percentages and relationships) was used in analyzing the data. Inferential statistics on the other hand was used to make inferences about the population based on results obtained from samples. In this study, the researcher used regression and correlation tests which will attempt to establish the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable. The questionnaires were coded and the data will be keyed into the computer using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS V-17) as well as STATA (10/12) Statistical Software. The statistical software's was used to analyze both descriptive. The results were presented using charts, graphs and tables.

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 General and Background Information

4.1.1 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. Bryman and Bell, (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. The universities sampled include JKUAT, KU, UoN, Moi, University of Eldoret, Egerton University, Maseno, and MMUST. These eight universities are among the oldest universities in Kenya and have adequate population to sustain the study.

4.1.2 Gender of Respondents

In terms of gender, the males respondents were 54% while the females constituted 46%. This indicates that there are more males in the study group than females as shown in figure 4.1. The assertion is in agreement with the study by Cotter *et al.*,

(2004) and Paula, (2015) in which data for census showed 86% males and 74% females hence more male than female counterpart employees in the labor market.

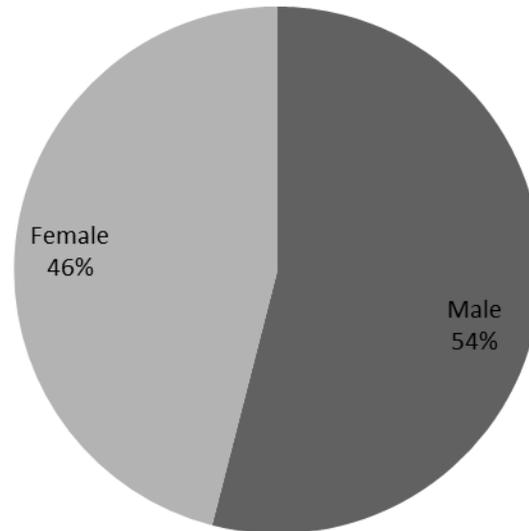


Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondent

4.1.3. 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 had 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 25% and those over 61 years 2%. The percentages in Figure 4.2 show the age distribution of the individuals employed in the public universities in Kenya who were addressed in the study

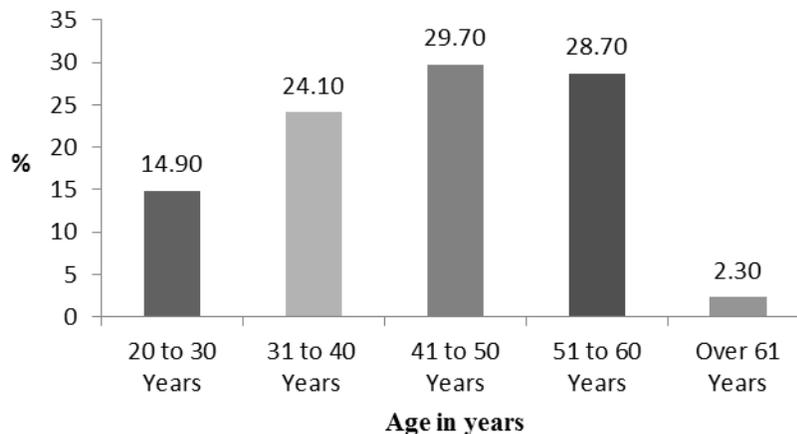


Figure 4.2: Age in Years

4.1.4 Level of Education

Table 4.1 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 were female, but comprised of 11% of the total number of respondents. The distribution shows 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.

Table 4.1: Education Levels

		Level of Education			Total
		Degree	Masters	PhD (Doctoral)	
Gender Male	Count	33	42	12	87
	% in gender	37.9%	48.3%	13.8%	100.0%
	% in level of education	49.3%	53.8%	66.7%	53.4%
Female	Count	34	36	6	76
	%in gender	44.7%	47.4%	7.9%	100.0%
	% in level of education	50.7%	46.2%	33.3%	46.6%
Total	Count	67	78	18	163
	%in gender	41, 1%	47.9%	11.0%	100.0%
	% in level of education	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

4.1.5 Number of trainings attended

Figure 4.3 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 one time. This distribution may largely be

explained by the number of years that each respondents had worked or the department within with 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.

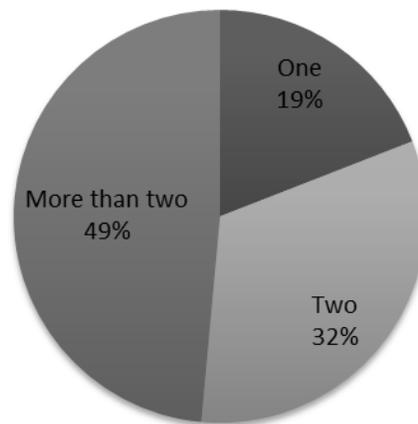


Figure 4.3: Frequency of Training Needs

4.1.6 Exposure to Training

Table 4.2 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 constitute 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 4.2: Exposure to Training

Frequency	No. of Respondents	Percentage
None at all	11	6.3
Frequent	105	60.9
Very frequent	57	32.8
Total	173	100.0

4.1.7 Promotion attained after Training

Figure 4.4 reveals that 31% of respondents had not received any promotion at all. Those who attained one promotion after training constitute 38.2%; those who received promotions twice

consist 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.

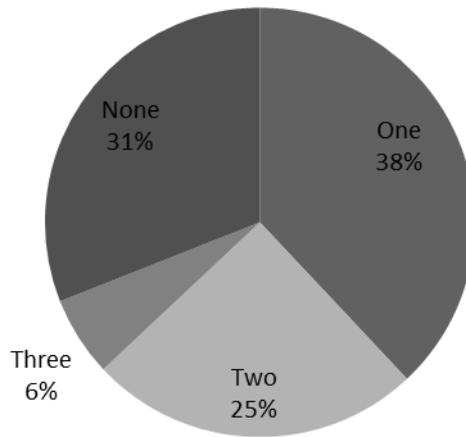


Figure 4.4: Promotion attained after Training

4.1.8 Impact of performance after Promotion

The respondents' perception of the post – training effects are captured and displayed as is seen in figure 4.5. A higher percentage comprising of 83.2% had higher expectations that they will be promoted with a further 15.6% expected promotion

would come their way after the training. Sometimes, training make employees hold some expectations that after training they would be able to use their new skills and knowledge in different circumstances and thus the perceived expectation were in line with the perceptions that the organizational personnel hold.

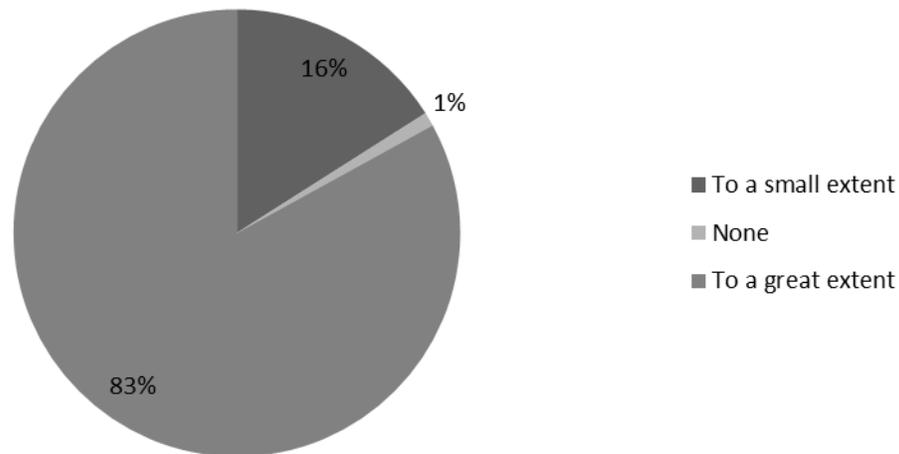


Figure 4.5 Impact of performance after Promotion

4.1.9 Respondents views on training needs assessment from likert scale

Table 4.3: Training Needs Assessment

	SA	A	NOT SURE	D	SD %	Total
Assessed by administration before training Needs assessment	55.2	32.2	1.7	9.8	1.1	100

Training needs assessment conducted before skills acquisition (training)	29.3	57.5	1.7	6.9	4.6	100
Training needs assessment helped improve the use of new technology	58.0	37.9	0.7	1.7	1.7	100
Training needs assessment enabled me to Undergo courses required	28.2	46.6	5.7	9.2	10.3	100
Training needs assessment helps in Performance standards	44.3	50.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	100
Training needs assessment aids in job opportunity identification	26.4	56.9	3.0	3.4	10.3	100

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% was 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 studies by 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 studies by 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 programmes offered and demand from labour 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 in 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 therefore established that training needs assessment helped employees improve in 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 studies by Noe (2010), which 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 studies by Al Mehdi (2004), Khan and Iqbal (2011) and 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% was 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 reveal 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 envisages new job opportunities as one of the reasons or pressure points that justify the need for training thus agreeing that TNA assists in new job opportunities identification.

The table 4.4 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. The

respondents also affirmed (Mean = 4.23, SD = 3.19) that a needs assessment was conducted in order to evaluate the organization, individual employees and employee's task to determine what kinds of training if any are necessary.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics on Training Needs Assessment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Assessed by administration before training needs assessment	173	4.3046	.98795
Training needs assessment conducted before skills acquisition (training)	173	4.2299	3.1939
Training needs assessment helped improve the use of new technology	173	4.4885	.75830
Training needs assessment enabled me undergo courses required	173	3.7299	1.25460
Training needs helps in performance standards	173	4.03391	.75645
Training needs assessment aids in job opportunity identification	173	3.8563	1.16154

Table 4.5: Motivation

	SA	A	NOT SURE	D	SD	Total %
a) Financial sub variable						
I appreciate promotions I attained after training sessions as they helped me improve my work performance	81.0	13.2	2.9	1.1	1.7	100
Training has led to better remuneration which has given me impetus to work hard and achieve both organizational and personal goals	67.2	28.2	2.9	1.1	0.6	100
Having trained on university scholarship has encouraged me to work hard	67.2	25.9	4.0	1.8	1.1	100
After training, my salary improved, thus, making me more interested to work hard for the university	59.2	23.6	9.2	2.9	5.2	100
b) Non-financial sub variable						
After undertaking training, non-teaching employees are given higher responsibilities, leadership which motivates them to perform better	71.8	17.4	8.0	1.7	1.1	100
Recognition in terms of compliments and certificates are accorded to employees on successful completion of training	66.1	24.7	6.9	1.1	1.2	100
Employees experience general personal advancement, development and are more confident in performing their duties	59.0	10.0	16.0	14.0	1.0	100

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 which 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 (Zhiang & Lin, 2001); (Gibbs, 2008). 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 (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 the study of Arslan *et. al.*, (2014) compensation is a result of services rendered, and benefit that employees receive in the form of pay, wages as rewards intended to persuade employee's to increase 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 the study Morrison and Maitland (2014) posit that research has identified that employee engagement can be increased through sponsorship to develop a performance culture to motivate employees to adopt a customer orientation, establish a fit between employee and organizational values and engage employees in a diverse range of performance programs.

The study sought to establish the extent to which improvement in salary after training made employees more interested to work 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, and leadership which was motivating. 1.1% strongly disagreed, 1.7% disagreed, 8.0% were not sure, 17.8% agreed, and 71.8% strongly agreed that after attending training, employees get higher responsibilities, and leadership which was motivating. Generally, 2.8% disagreed, 8.0% were not sure, 88.6% agreed that after attending training, employees get higher responsibilities, and leadership which was motivating. The study agrees with Illeris (2003) states 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) stated Praise leads to positive reinforcement, may develop and maintain an individual's academic achievement behaviour, or strategies. He continues to assert that praise can affect behaviour in relation to performance. Praise can be used to minimize problems thus modifying behaviour, encourage learning, and influence other behaviours and enhance efficacy.

The study sought to establish the extent to which employees experience general personal advancement, development and are more confident in performing their duties; 1.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 14.1% 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 the study of Billet (2004) which 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 4.6 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), than scholarships (Mean = 4.39, SD = 0.85) better remuneration (Mean = 4.27, SD = 0.75). The direct forms of incentives to the employees since these forms are directly felt by the respondents. They would be explained by the fact that promotion is double edged since it bequeaths the employee salary improve and a rise in position whereas the salary improvement or better remuneration only is only one sided since it offers only the raise in pay.

The second component of incentives is the indirect forms which include the recognition, career advancement and enlarged responsibilities. The respondents would prefer responsibilities and leadership (Mean = 4.57, SD = 0.81), than recognition (Mean = 4.32, SD = 0.66) and career advancement (Mean = 4.27, SD = 0.92). The rationale for this is that; there were three job groups were considered and thus at some levels responsibilities

and leadership 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 more important form of compensation.

Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics on Motivation

	N Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation
Promotion after training help improve performance	173	4.7110	.62668
Training leads to better remuneration	173	4.2659	.74619
University scholarships encourage	173	4.3895	.84777
Salary improvement after training	173	3.5723	1.44743
Resultant responsibilities and leadership motivates	173	4.5665	.80869
Recognition accord after successful training	173	4.3237	.65536
Personal advancement and development after training	173	4.3237	.92059

4.2.0 Performance of non-teaching employees

Table 4.7: Performance of Non-Teaching Employees

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

The study sought to establish the extent to which accomplishment of work targets leads 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. Ideally, the performance metrics used should be selected and maintained as a system, so they 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 the study by Gannon (2015) 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 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 the study by Gannon (2015) 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. 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 all the time. 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 all the time. Generally, 5.2% disagreed, 5.1% were not sure, and 89.7% agreed that employees adhere to university policies all the time. 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. 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) 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, Kavita (2012) observed that well managed organizations view 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 study sought to establish the extent to which job at the university gives employees great job satisfaction. 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 great job satisfaction at the university gives employees great job satisfaction The study agrees with Zimeras *et al.*, (2014) posit that a large number of factors for instance, job satisfaction, work environment, compensation policies, influence employee performance in studies in healthcare services which agrees with revelation by this study that job satisfaction is experienced by most employees at the university. Proactive human resources policies, reinforcement of workers, by implementation of various

productivity schemes, suggestion schemes, workers participation in management decision making, timely resolution of grievances, counseling and good working conditions, welfare facilities , help maintain a satisfied and productive work force, better quality of service and industrial peace, with consequent benefits resulting in employee job satisfaction (Ram, 2013).

The study revealed that the study sought to establish the extent to which the rate of absenteeism at the university is very low as 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 (Jones, 2006).

The study sought to establish the extent to which employee's intent 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) posits that employee retention among non-teaching staff at the UoN is influenced by training and development, performance appraisal, welfare benefits, disciplinary procedure and of potential for 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 and timely application of performance results and upward mobility in careers greatly enhance employee retention at the university.

Table 4.8 show the resultant effect of the trainings. As is observed from the table, there are two components of performance; the individual employee productivity and organizational performance. The individual employee productivity includes high quality work, rate of absenteeism, work satisfaction whereas organizational performance is captured 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 by accomplishing work targets would result in improved performance a fact that 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 stressed by the 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). By endeavoring to meet the institutional goals serves 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). On the same extent, the employees suggested the following ways to improve on employee performance include: better pay and remuneration, motivation, equity, recognition and promotion

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics on Employee Performance

	N Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic
Accomplishment of work target leads to performance benefit	173	4.6994	.48447
Teamwork translates to higher Productivity	173	4.3179	1.60579
Endeavor to meet the institution goals	173	4.5318	.56587
Adherence to university policies	173	4.2616	.87602
Higher quality work	173	4.1706	.81427
Rate of absenteeism is low	173	3.6763	1.32479
Work give great satisfaction	173	4.1618	1.01003
Intends to work until retirement	173	3.7225	1.06389

Table 4.9: Correlation between Independent variable constructs and dependent variable

	Training needs assessment	Training mode	Training duration	Training feedback	Motivation	Performance
Training needs assessment	1.0000					
Training mode	0.061*	1.000				
Training duration	0.086*	0.165*	1.000			
Training feedback	0.187*	0.022*	0.168*	1.000		
Motivations	0.093*	0.192*	0.135*	0.121*	1.000	
Performance	0.025*	0.186*	0.241*	0.017*	0.077*	1.000

* Significance at 0.05

Table 4.9 shows the correlation coefficient(r) statistics between study variables. Training needs assessment correlates with performance (r = 0.025, p<0.05) this implies that any single unit increase in Training Needs Assessment will increase performance by 25%.

Table 4.10: Linear regression analysis for employee performance and training needs assessment

	Unstandardized Coefficients.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	Standardized Beta coefficient
Training needs assessment	.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					

Training needs assessment was linear regressed on employee performance. With a constant beta coefficient = 0, table 4.10 shows that F (1, 172) = 3525.56, with the Prob> F < 0.001 indicates that the overall model is statistically significant in

explaining the employee performance. The explanatory power R² is 0.9535 with the adjusted R² = 0.9532. The study therefore rejected the null hypothesis and thus concluded that training needs assessment has an impact on the performance of the non –

academic staff at the public universities. A unit increase in training needs assessment results in 0.9741 unit increase in employee performance.

4.2.1 Motivation and Training needs

To test for motivation moderating TNA was obtained by multiplying motivation and Training needs assessment. The output is shown in Table 4.11. 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 Public universities in Kenya.

Table 4.11 Coefficient of Motivation and TNA

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients			Sig.
		B	Std. Error	t	
1	(Constant)	3.559	.319	11.156	.000
	Motivation	.166	.063	2.622	.011
	TNA	-0.112	.038	2.980	.010
2	(Constant)	5.270	1.824	2.890	.004
	Motivation	.193	.182	2.505	.046
	TNA	.424	.135	2.975	.033
	Motivation*Training Needs	.087	.011	2.953	.013

Table 4.12 Model Summary with constant and without constant in model 2

Model		Coefficients		t	p value
		B	Std. Error		
1	Motivation	.234	.061	3.834	.000
	TNA	-.017	.040	-.437	.662
	Training mode	.328	.087	3.757	.000
	Training duration	.404	.099	4.058	.000
	Training feedback	.006	.074	.086	.932
2	Motivation	0.93	0.127	5.023	0.018
	TNA	0.13	0.408	2.218	0.022
	Training mode	0.928	0.589	2.177	0.037
	Training duration	0.703	0.564	3.106	0.001
	Training feedback	0.241	0.086	1.281	0.086
	Motivation*Training Needs	0.524	0.127	2.412	0.024
	Motivation*Training Duration	0.167	0.133	2.254	0.033
Motivation*Training Mode	-0.818	0.016	-1.106	0.612	
Motivation*Training Feedback	0.64	0.127	1.024	0.753	

In Table 4.12, 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, it signifies that there was low moderation effect on the variable (TNA).

V. CONCLUSION

5.1 Conclusion

The study revealed that public universities in Kenya conduct 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 leads to acquisition of appropriate skills. TNA helps identify employees who seriously need to improve in the use of new Technology in performing duties. TNA curbs wastage of man hours, and monetary resources by only launching required programs for employee training. TNA therefore helps in maintaining standards in performance. The right personnel were exposed to the right training which bridged the gap of lack of adequate training. Better training translated into better performance which attracted promotions, better remuneration, scholarships, rewards, recognition, higher responsibilities and leadership. Through TNA, new job opportunities were identified for employees as a result; many employees stayed focused in their relevant and appropriate jobs. TNA involved moving from current to desired results. TNA directed subsequent decisions such as design, implementation, and evaluation of projects and programmes that gave desired results.

5.2 Recommendations

Public universities should continue conducting TNA to staff to help identify areas for training that affect employees 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 would realize many new job opportunities for various employees and employees will therefore be happy, satisfied and stay focused in their appropriate jobs, while performing to their utmost.

Public universities should strive to train and effect timely financial and non-financial benefits to employees for better performance.

REFERENCES

[1] Akala, H. S. (2012). Factors influencing employee retention among the non teaching staff at the University of Nairobi. University of Nairobi. Nairobi: University of Nairobi.

[2] Appiah, B. (2010). *The Impact of Training on Employee Performance: A Case Study of HFC Bank*. Ashesi University College, Department of Business Administration (MBA Thesis). Accra: Ashesi University College.

[3] Armstrong, M. (2009). *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice* (11th ed.). London: Kogan Page.

[4] Bell, E. & Bryman, A. (2011) (3rd ed.) *Business research methods*, New York, Oxford University press.

[5] Billet, S. (2004). Work place participatory practices: Conceptualising workplace as learning environment. *The Journal of Workplace Learning*, 16 (6), 312-324.

[6] Branham, L., & Saratoga. (2005). *The Seven Hidden Reasons Employees Leave*. New York: American Management Associate.

[7] Brown, J. (2002). Training needs Assessment: A Must for Developing an Effective Training Program. *Public Personnel Management*, 31(4), 569-578.

[8] Brum, S. (2007). *What Impact does training have on Employee Commitment and Employee Turnover?* University of Rhodes, Schmid Labour Research Center: Seminar Research Series. Rhodes: University of Rhodes.

[9] Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2011). *Business Research Methods* (11th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill International.

[10] Dabale, W., Jagero, N., & Nyauchi, M. (2014). The Relationship Between Training and Employee Performance: The Case of Mutare City Council Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 4(4), 61-72.

[11] Elnaga, A. &. (2013). The Effect of Training on Employee Performance. *European Journal of Business Management*, 5(4), 137-147.

[12] Farooq, M., & Khan, M. (2011). Impact of Training and Feedback on Employee Performance. *Far East Journal of Psychology and Business*, 5(1), 23-33.

[13] Gibbs, M. (2007) *Personnel economics for managers* (2nd Ed.). http://www.nursing-standard.co.uk/archives/ns/vol_15-43/vol_15w-43p384/pdf accessed 16th Jan, 2008.

[14] Golden, L. (2012). The Effect of Working on Productivity and Firm Performance. *A Research Synthesis Paper, ILO*, 33(32-39), 1-43.

[15] Gruber, T. (2015). When good news is bad news: the negative impact of customer feedback on frontline employee well being. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 29 (7), 599-612.

[16] Gupta, K. (2012). Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Performance, A Challenge for Human Resource Managers in Changing Environment. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Reviews*, 1(3), 88-95.

[17] Illeris, K. (2003). Workplace learning and learning theory. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 15 (4), 167-178.

[18] ILO (2015) *World employment and social outlook*, Geneva

[19] Irawanto, D. (2015). Employee Participation in Decision Making: Evidence from a State owned Enterprise in Indonesia. *Journal of Management*, 20 (1), 159-172.

[20] Jones, R (2016). *Innovation, research and the UK's productivity crisis*. Sheffield Political Economy Research Institute. London: Sheffield Political Economy Research Institute.

[21] Kipkebut, D. J. (2010). *Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction in Higher Educational Institutions: The Kenyan Case* (PhD Thesis). Middlesex University. London: Middlesex University.

[22] Klane, J. & Pearson, G. (2007) *Training Needs Assessment-Who, What, When, Where, Why and How!* http://www.Osha/publications/Osha_2254.pdf.

[23] Kothari, C. R. (2008). *Research Methodology-Methods and Techniques* (2nd ed.). New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.

[24] Lecourt. (2013). Driving human resource towards quality in a highly competitive environment. *International Journal of Manpower*, 34 (8), 839-860.

[25] Leung, A. (2006). Conceptual model of Information Technology Training Leading to Better Outcomes. *International journal of Business and Information*, 1(1), 74-95.

[26] Mugenda, O. & Mugenda, A. (2003). *Research Methods Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi: ACTS Press.

[27] Mullins, L. (2010). *Management and Organizational Behaviour* (9th ed.). London: Pearson Education Limited.

[28] Munjuri, M. (2011). The effect of Human Resource Management Practices in Enhancing Employee Performance in Catholic Institutions of Higher Learning in Kenya. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 2(4), 1-36.

[29] Mwesigwa, A. (2010). The Impact of Training on Employee Work Performance Behaviour: A Case Study of Government Aided secondary

- schools in Ibanda District Uganda. *International Journal of Arts and Commerce*, 1(7), 1-14.
- [30] Nachamias, D., & Nachamias, C. F. (2009). *Research Methods in the sciences* (5th ed.). London: Hodder Education.
- [31] Noe, R. A. (2010). *Employee Training and Development* (5th ed.). Singapore: McGraw Hill.
- [32] Nyakundi, A., Karanja, K., Charles, M., & Bosibori, N. (2012). Enhancing the Role of Employee Recognition towards improving Performance. *International Journal of Arts and Commerce*, 1(7), 95-108.
- [33] Nyongesa, W., W. B., Nyamanga, E. A., & Syanda, P. (2014). Accessing the extent to Which Staff Training Needs are implemented at the Kenya Polytechnic University College. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(28), 212-231.
- [34] Odinga, M. (2010). *Staff Development Programs and Job Performance of Lecturers of Moi University*. Makerere University (MA Dissertation). Kampala: Makerere University.
- [35] Ololube, N. (2006). *Teachers Job Satisfaction and Motivation for School Effectiveness: An Assessment*. University of Helsinki. Helsinki: University of Helsinki.
- [36] Ongori, H., & Nzonzo, C. (2011). Training and Development Practices in an Organization: An Intervention to enhance Organizational effectiveness. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Science*, 2(4), 187-198.
- [37] Onyancha, W., Nyanumba, M., Munene, E., & Muturi, M. (2014) Effect of Remuneration on employees performance in the ministry of internal Security: A case of Kisii county. *International journal of human resource studies*, 4(1), 223-231.
- [38] Pavlov, L. (2014). *Conditioned Reflexes*. London: Oxford University Press.
- [39] Paula, E. (2015) Gender inequality in labour markets: The role of motherhood and segregation.
- [40] Oxford journals: social politics 12(2), 264-288.
- [41] Pheko, E. (2008). Secondary School Leadership in Botswana: Implications for Effective Training. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership Journal*, 38(1), 71-84.
- [42] Phelan & Zhianglin (2001) Promotion systems and organizational performance: A contingency model. *Computation and mathematical organization Theory*, 1(7), 207-232. School of management, university of Texas at Dallas, Richardson.
- [43] Ram, P. (2013). The relationship between job crafting and job performance: A study on warehouse worker in Bukit Kayu, Hitam, Kedah, Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, 2(2), 16-35.
- [44] Riechi, A., Oanda, I., & Jowe, J. (2013). University Expansion & Challenges to social development in Kenya: Dilemmas and Pitfalls. *Council for the development of social science Research in Africa*, 10 (1), 49-71.
- [45] Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- [46] Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2009). *Research Methods for Business - A Skill Building Approach* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons Limited.
- [47] Shelton, K. (2001). The Effect of Employee Development Programs on Job Satisfaction and Employee Retention. University of Wisconsin-Stout. Wisconsin: Menomonie Press.
- [48] Sifuna, D. N. (2006). The Governance of Kenya Public Universities. *Research in Post Compulsory Education*, 3(2), 175-212.
- [49] Singh, P., Rajan, R., Josh, P., Satyawadi, R., & Ghoshi, P. (2012). Towards more effective training programmes: A Study of Trainer attributes. *Journal of Industrial and Commercial Training*, 44(4), 194-202.
- [50] Skinner, B. (2014). *Science and Human Behaviour*. London: Macmillan Press.
- [51] Swanson, R. A. (2001). Human Resource Development and its Underlying Theory. *Human Resource International Journal*, 4(3), 299-312.
- [52] Szweczak & Synodgrass (2002) Managing the human side of information Technology: challenges and solutions, Idea Group publishing. *The information Society* 1 (20), 151-152. University of Pennsylvania state.
- [53] Tao, C. & Bucy, E.P. (2007) The mediated moderation model of interactivity. *Media psychology* 1(9), 647-672. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- [54] Wairimu, N., Gachunga, H., & Mumbo, H. (2013). Impact of Employee Development Programs on Organizational Commitment in the Public Universities. *International Journal of Human Resource and Procurement*, 1(5), 1-14.
- [55] Zimeras, S., Reklitis, P., Plastis, C. (2014) Relationship between job satisfaction and job performance in health services. *International conference on strategic innovative marketing* 1(175), 480-487-Madrid, Spain.

AUTHORS

First Author: Scholastica Khakayi Wamwayi, is a PhD. Student at the College of Human Resource Development. Department of Entrepreneurship, Technology, Leadership and Management: Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology in Nairobi, Kenya. Email: scholawam@gmail.com

Second Author: Dr. Iravo Mike Amuhaya, PhD. is the Principal of JKUAT Westlands Campus and a Senior Lecturer in the College of Human Resource Development, Department of Entrepreneurship, Technology, Leadership, and Management at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology in Nairobi, Kenya. Email: mamuhaya2005@yahoo.com

Third Author: Professor, Elegwa Mukulu, PhD. is a Principal and Professor in the College of Human Resource Development, Department of Entrepreneurship, Technology, Leadership and Management at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology in Nairobi, Kenya. Email: emukulu@ihrd.jkuat.ac.ke

Fourth Author: Dr. Waititu Anthony Gichuhi, PhD. is a Director of Academic Programmes at JKUAT Westlands Campus and a Senior Lecturer in the College of Pure and Applied Sciences, Department of Basic and Applied Sciences at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology in Nairobi, Kenya. Email: agwaititu@yahoo.com