A SURVEY OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES APPLIED BY THE INTERNATIONAL NGOs OPERATING IN NAIROBI [A]

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.

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DEDICATION

To my family

My loving husband, Peter

My lovely Children: Sydney, Serena and Scott

For your patience, motivation and inspiration.

AKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wouldlike to thank the almighty God through whose grace I have come to the completion of this programme.

My very sincere gratitude to all who contributed immensely in one way or another to the completion of this research project and to my entire MBA course. My special gratitude goes to my project supervisor, Prof. P. K'Obonyo, for his guidance and advice throughout this project.

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Thank you and God Bless you all!

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ABSTRACT

This survey was carried out between May and June 2006. The study sought to find out Training and Development practices among the International NGOs operating in Nairobi. The population of interest in the study consisted of the Training and Development managers in the various non-governmental organizations. They were identified to shed light on their training practices and policies. The information was collected using questionnaires completed by the HR manager and one other high-ranking person from the HR Department. The questionnaires were filled in my presence. Forty international NGOs were selected randomly from a list of one hundred and twelve. Seventeen of them responded.

The study found that the NGOs practiced Training and Development to a small extent due to their background and manner of operation which tends to be flexible. A higher percentage of employees tend to be women and the employees in charge of training are mostly the Human Resource managers. The employees do not serve for long periods, making training difficult due to the short-term projects.

From the foregoing, it is evident that training and development practices among the NGO sector are not quite comprehensive due to the nature of their operation. To this extent it is recommended that shot-term programmes should be put in practice to supplement the normal training and development practices which tend to be appropriate for medium to long-term objectives.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

In the recent past a number of management techniques and theories have been developed to improve the practice of management in organizations. The more significant of these include management by objectives, organization development, strategic management, training and development and operations research. In most cases these theories and techniques were initially developed for and applied in private sector settings (Schwella, 1988). But attempts have been made to transfer these to other sector contexts. The principles of management models developed for the private sector have been applied to help the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) sector improve their management performance (Warsame, 2002).

A non-govemmentai organization (NGO) is an organization that is not part of a government and was not founded by a state. NGOs are therefore typically independent of governments. Although die definition can technically include for profit corporations, the term is generally restricted to social, cultural, legal, and environmental advocacy groups having goals that are primarily noncommercial. NGOs are usually non-profit organizations that obtain at least a portion of their funding from private sources (Korten 1990). Because the Label "NGO" is considered too broad by some, as it might cover anything that is non-govemmental many NGOs now prefer the term private voluntary organization (PVO) (Korten 1990).

A 1995 UN report on global governance estimated that there were nearly 29,000 international NGOs. National numbers are even higher. The United States has an estimated 2 million NGOs, most of them formed in the past 30 years. Russia has 65,000 NGOs. Dozens are created daily. In Kenya alone, some 240 NGOs both registered and non-registered come into existence every year (The Economist, 2000).

NGOs operating in Kenya can be categorized into Local and International NGOs. Local NGOs have their operations based only in Kenya. Some of them operate in only one district while others are spread throughout the country, operating in more than one district. They also tend to draw their workforce from within the country as opposed to going beyond the national boundaries (Campbel, 1987)

International NGOs have their operations in more than one country, like is typical of other international organizations. A number of them operate in more than one sector of the economy such as environment, health and relief (NGO coordinating Bureau, 2004). Some of them are for example Care International, World Vision, Action Aid, and Plan International. The international NGO workforce is drawn from various countries and the organizations put no limits to nationality as long as the individuals meet the desired qualifications. Financial support is extended by development partners (NGO coordinating Bureau, 2004).

NGO exist for a variety of purposes, usually to further the political or social goals of their members. Examples include improving the state of the natural environment, encouraging the observance of human rights, improving the welfare of the disadvantaged, or representing a corporate agenda. However, there are a large number of such organizations and their goals cover a broad range of political and philosophical position (Korten, 1990).

According to Amulyoto (2004), one realizes that the NGO donors requires that the selection of a suitable NGO to practice should be based on the evaluation by specialists from various fields related to the project including finance. While the internal regulations of many donors requires that the choice of NGOs be based on Jie scrutiny of past performance, in practice international NGOs are preferred and lot necessarily subjected to thorough scrutiny. Even when some donors have a policy i)f supporting the local NGOs more by strengthening their sustainability, the same ionors tend to have a higher percentage of local NGOs. Some times the choice of an SIGO is based on the simple reason that no other NGOs are willing to come forward rnd for the provision of given services. Thus the choices made are not always as per he policy guidelines, numerical ratings or generally narrated strengths and weaknesses vhen compared to established criteria, but rather the general liking or preference for a *iven NGO or its leader, or because the choices are limited.

\mulyoto (2004), further argues that for international NGOs, there tends to be clear inancial regulations that are in line with those of their parent offices, with laid down ntemal controls. For some local NGOs there is lack of clear internal financial egulations or guidelines. Generally even where such guidelines exist for both local md international NGOs, the implementation at particularly the field level is hampered >y high staff turnover as many people apply to work in hardship areas due to lesperation for employment. Also most of the field staff who undertake the ransactions are not conversant with the contract or agreement and the financial equirements or expectations by the donors.

.1.1 Training and Development

/fonappa et al (1996) define training as the teaching/learning activities carried out for rimary purpose of helping members of an organization to acquire and apply the nowledge, skills abilities and attitudes needed by the organization. According to Cole 1997), training is a learning activity, which is directed towards acquisition of specific nowledge and skills for the purpose of an occupation. It will focus on the job or task. Training can both be formal and informal and is usually carried out to assist the employee understand and perform his/her job better. While according to Manpower Services Commission (1981), It is the process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose in the work situation is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organization. Broadly speaking, training is the act of increasing knowledge and skills of an employee necessary for doing a particular job.

Generally speaking, Training is the creation of an environment where employees may acquire or learn specific, job related behaviors, knowledge, skills abilities and attitudes. Sisson (1989) argued that the amount of training and development are crucial, for ensuring that the organization does not depend entirely upon the external labor market, which may not inculcate the kind of values and attitudes the organization desires. If one wishes to make a distinction between training and development, it would be that training is directed at helping employees perform better on their current jobs while development represents a future investment in employees (Gomuti, 1993).

Development includes both training to increase skill in performing a specific job and education to increase general knowledge and understanding of the total environment. Cole (1997) defines development as any learning activity, which is directed towards future needs rather than present needs and which is concerned with career growth than immediate performance. Planned development programmes will return value to the organization in terms of increased productivity, heightened morale, reduced costs and greater organizational stability and flexibility to adapt to changing external requirements (Flippo, 1984).

Among firms, which profess to believe in some type of planned systemic executive development, a great variety of developmental techniques are used. Obviously, the executive requires job knowledge in the assigned position, and thus the methods of on-job-experience, coaching and understudies are available. The job is performed within an organizational environment, and such required organizational knowledge can be obtained through position rotation and multiple management.

Development involves activities like learning which is a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of practice or experience. Education is also a development activity of which knowledge values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than the knowlegeand skills relating to particular areas of activity are developed. Development itself which is the growth or realization of a persons ability and potential through the provision of living and educational experiences while training is the planned systematic modification of behavior through learning events programs and instructions which enable individuals to achieve the level of knowledge, skill and computer to carry out their work effectively (Armstrong 1977).

The process of training starts by defining the training needs then deciding what sort of training is required often which the experience and trained trainers are used to plan and implement training. Finally follow up and evaluation of training is done to ensure that it is effective.

Different methods can be applied in the analysis of training needs, which include analysis of performance reviews and carrying out training surveys. We have different training methods that can be applied by an organization as discussed by Armstrong (1977) these include in company or On-the-job training which consists of teaching or watching by managers team leaders or trainers at the desk or the bench. It may also consist of individual group assignments and projects and the use of mentors. Off-the-job training can take place on special course or training areas or centers, which have been specially equipped and staffed for training. Another method is external training which is useful for the development of managerial law leading, technical and social knowledge and skills especially if the courses carry standard theory and practice which can easily be translated from the general to the particular. Just in time training is also another training method that is closely linked to the pressing and relevant needs of people by its association with immediate or movement business activities.

Development is any learning activity which is directed towards future needs, and which is concerned more with concern growth than immediate performance. Training is any leaning activity which is directed towards the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills for the purposes of an occupation or task. Management Development contributes to business success by helping the organization to grow the managers. It requires to meet its present and future needs. It improves manager's performance, gives them development opportunities, and provides for management succession. Career Management consists of the processes of career planning and management succession, career planning shapes the progression of individuals within an organization in accordance with assessments of organizational needs and the performance potential and preferences of individual members of the enterprise. Management succession planning takes place to ensure that, as far as possible, the organization has the managers it requires to meet future business needs (Armstrong 1997).

(Martinez Espinoza, 1998) argues that there is no ideal best combination of development methods. Each organization must design its own particular program to suit the climate of the firm, the organizational level for which the training is required, the particular characteristics of the personnel to be developed, the recognized specific developmental needs, and the availability of economic resources that can be allocated to training and education without itemizing the listed methods used by any one firm. Also their political, economic, social and cultural environment evidently shapes Training and Development arrangements. The current environment of change brought about by economic, technological, social and political factors is undoubtedly the most powerful force driving the search for closer and new forms of collaboration between the State, enterprises and other stakeholders. (Martinez Espinoza, 1998).

The development of partnerships can be triggered by major political change in a country. One illustration is Chile's transition to a market economy in the 1970s, which reinforced the role of the private sector and led to the pioneering of new forms of training alliances. As part of the liberalization process, reforms were undertaken with a view to develop a market-driven, enterprise-led training system operating in a competitive market (Martinez Espinoza, 1998).

Kenya has recently established a micro and small enterprise-training fund to upgrade skills in the informal sector in an innovative partnership between the Government and the Juan Kali Association for the Informal Sector (Juan Kali, meaning hot sun). The aim is to develop demand-driven training and enhance cost sharing for enterprise-based skills upgrading. Public funds will be channeled on a competitive basis to training providers. The fund is managed jointly by the public/private members appointed by the Minister for Research, Technical Training and Technology, with three representatives of the Kenya Federation of Juan Kali Associations (formed in 1992), three from the Government, and four from organizations working with the informal sector. Training vouchers are also used to encourage training in small firms.

(UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), 1997)

Development is based on the fact that an employee will need an evolving set of knowledge, skills and abilities to perform well in the succession of the positions encountered during his or her career. Preparation of an employee for these series of positions is what is meant by employee development (Storey, 1992). The foundations for flexible training are a sound general education and a broad-based basic training, which are the prerequisites for all subsequent training and work. Developing a broad-based knowledge requires reforms not only in initial training, but also necessitates retraining the workers who have received specialized training in line with the Taylor's approach (1997) to work. To learn new technical and non-technical skills, these workers need to broaden their current skill base. This broad and transferable body of knowledge is the basis of lifelong learning and the acquisition of the multiple skills that give mobility and employability. The types of multiple skills that enhance employability include the development of technical knowledge and skills in "core" (generic) skill areas that are central to a number of occupations and which therefore enhance worker mobility.

The multiskilling of workers in related skill and occupational areas undoubtedly promotes both external and internal employability (Mitchell, 1998). Therefore, many employers consider that transferable or portable skills should be acquired at the cost of the worker, since they increase the individual's mobility outside the company. In contrast, workers maintain that it is the responsibility of the employing enterprise to protect the worker's employability.

1.1.2 Training and Development Practices in the NGO Sector

Human Resource Development is concerned with the provision of learning, development and training opportunities in order to improve individual, team and organization performance. To do this, it is essential to develop the skills base and intellectual capital the organization requires as well as ensuring that the right quality of people are available to meet present and future needs (Armstrong 1977). The research topic will concentrate on training as part of human resource development and other practices like promoting organizational team and individual learning.

Training is the systematic modification of behavior through learning which occurs as a result of education, instruction, development and planned experience (Armstrong 1977). In the NGO sector, from the studies that has been carried out like Warsame (2002) on strategic management, are just but a few done on the NGO sector but do not cover Training Practices hence the need to study training and development as it is not fully covered.

Training and development may bring with it several benefits to the NGO sector such as minimization of costs, helping to develop positive culture in the organization that is oriented towards performance improvement and to manage change by increasing the understanding of the reasons for change and providing people with the knowledge and skills they need to adjust to new situations (Armstrong 1977). Some of the practices the researcher intends to survey is whether practices like Job Analysis are performed by the International NGOs in Nairobi Kenya. Job Analysis is the examination in details the content of jobs, the performance standards required in terms of quality and output and the knowledge, skills and the competitiveness needed to perform the job.

The NGO sector is involved in different kinds of training and development activities like, orientation, on the job training, management training, employee performance appraisal for promotions and transfers. They encourage a lot of volunteer work which is one way of making sure the staff is well trained first before they are permanently employed. This helps in attitude training which Graham (1974) says it determines the general approach of an employee towards work for example, the care that is taken to avoid mistakes.

NGOs provide various types of support, such as training and technical assistance towards creating an environment in which development projects can be initiated and sustained (Gomuti 1993). They also appear to have different characteristics depending on the context in which they originated and their degree of development as institutions for social development. NGOs want to be instrumental to development in those areas where human resources are needed.

Gomuti (1993) further discusses that the problems facing the third world countries such as structural adjustment, international debt, and inflation led to formation of NGOs in these areas. This therefore means that staff training in the NGO sector was a serious matter that needed attention in order to find solutions to these problems mentioned above that the countries such as Kenya were facing. Governments in developing countries are not able to provide basic services to their people: healthy education, water and sanitation systems are in many cases worse than they have ever been. Bureaucracy and corruption have expanded and the limited resources available have been eaten up by mismanagement and inefficiency. This calls for the NGOs to provide proper training for their staff to avoid such kind of management problems through counseling and performance management procedures to curb these problems as has been discussed by the researcher.

According to Gomuti (1993) NGOs practice "Capacity building" which is misunderstood by some NGOs which use a lot of resources trying to build their own infrastructure instead of assisting the communities to be self reliant. The heart of capacity building is through supporting grassroots organizations to enable them grow efficiently and democratically. As intermediate organization, NGO provide training and technical assistance to enable community's tackle their problems themselves and to build the internal capacity to plan and implement projects. This brings out the idea that NGOs also to some extent tend to concentrate on capacity building and neglect staff training in various areas so as to deliver the right services to the organization and the community in general. Therefore the researcher seeks to find out which practices do they carry out in the areas of training and development of the employees who are most of the time volunteers.

NGOs do work with volunteers but their programmers and projects will require a structure that goes beyond what spontaneous volunteers may provide. Permanent NGO staff is not merely active on the weekend; it is a full time job. NGO administrative and project staff may range from two, five or ten (the smallest ones) to 5,000 for the big ones. (Gomuti 1993) The comparative advantage of NGOs over professional associations (nurses, doctors, lawyers or any other) lies in the multidisplinary approach adapted and also on full time dedication. The other professionals have limited activities while NGOs can tackle many different kinds of problems at the same time and even better, they have a conceptual approach which acknowledges that each problem may be linked with various causes. For example high child mortality may be linked with nutritional status, immunization, provision of safe water and basic education. This means that the kind of training offered to staff of the NGOs has to be multiskilled, meaning the employees should be able to tackle all these activities at ago. (Gomuti 1993)

Most NGOs have gained efficiency through the fact that every individual working there has well defined tasks and responsibilities. Administrative budgets are kept low and funds allocated against project proposals are handled in a clear and consistent way, so expenditure is transparently honest and bureaucracy is kept at a minimum. This is a clear indication that some training of personnel is practiced even though it is hard to judge exactly which ones and the results monitored. The NGOs tend to operate on project basis such that hiring of staff is based on the skills required for a particular project to run through for a certain period of time. In this context therefore they seem not to train staff per se but to hire already existing skills so as to serve within the time limits (Gomuti 1993).

NGOs respect the cultural identity and positive tradition of the people with whom they are working, they support democratic forms of organization at the community level and use the bottom-to approach to planning. This makes them distinct in their orientation from most government structures (Gumucio 1993). They also are capable of imparting or reinforcing a spirit of solidarity at community level, in which shows how detailed staff training is in this sector through the incorporation of culture and attitude.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Several studies have been done on NGOs in Kenya but most of them are in the area of strategic management (Shumbusho, 1983; Ngungiri, 1987; Okutoyi, 1988; Mwanzi, 1991; Aosa, 1992; Shimba, 1993; Njuguna, 19910ther studies on NGOs tend to concentrate on other issues like human rights rather than training of staff. Like all organizations, NGOs are dependent on the environment in which they operate (Oster 1995) through the environment is the same, both profit making organizations and NGOs proact and /or react differently because of the difference in their characteristics (Dees 1998).

NGOs are constantly struggling to maintain their autonomy and control over their own objectives and programmes while at the same time balancing pressure from their constituencies, donors, governments and other partners (Dees, 1998). Oster, (1995) observed that NGOs are donor driven and each donor is likely to come up with their terms and conditions which influence their activities such as allocating of funds for carrying out training. By virtue of vital resources, donors are strategically placed to exercise enormous influence on policies and practices in such areas like training and development of employees in NGOs (Oster 1995). A lot of knowledge is lost by organizations which rely on short-term contracts for relief personnel, as each departing staff member takes their knowledge with them. Some agencies have provided training in various subjects, while omitting to train their staff for the jobs they are actually doing in the field.

The environment of NGOs' sector has become increasingly uncertain due to the factors discussed above making it imperative for them to think strategically than ever before. Training and development of employees, therefore, is necessary to prepare them on how to manage these changes (Bryson 1995). Most of the NGOs provide training which last less than a month and which most frequently deal with management and leadership rather than with specific operational technical skills (VOICE 1987). Majority of the NGOs tend to be project-based, leading to employment based largely on contract. This has in turn made training less appealing to NGOs since in many cases the employment of many employees terminate at the end of the life of the project (VOICE 1987). NGOs are not like profit organizations whereby training is seen as an investment for the future. Needless to say, a lot of knowledge is lost by organizations which rely on short-term contracts largely involving relief personnel as each departing staff member takes their knowledge with them (VOICE 1987). It appears from the foregoing that constraints pitted against NGOs militate against conventional forms of training and development practices. A question that arises from this situation is not possible to answer due to lack of information. In other words, this research has been done to address the question.

What practices characterizes the NGO sector in Kenya in the areas of training and development policy, training needs analysis, development and implementation of training and development programmes? This creates a gap in knowledge that the proposed study is intended to fill.

1.3 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

To determine training and development practices of the International NGOs in Kenya.

1.4 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The study will be of relevance to the following:

- Training managers — by knowing how to develop human resources training programmes with its purposes clearly stated in the objectives.
- Academicians — could use these findings as foundation or basis for further research on training and development effectiveness within the NGO sector,
- The public—the results of this study makes them understand clearly as stake holders of these institutions What benefits are deceived from the HRM Practices.

1.5 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study looks at variations of the training and development methods in the NGO sector and will be confined to International NGOs operating within Nairobi District since most of them have the headquarters in Nairobi and several branches all over the country and also the targeted respondents are the Human Resource managers.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In reviewing the plethora of literature that exists on the topics of employee loyalty, retention, training and development, one might wonder why the training problem still exists. Yet, companies large and small struggle with this challenge. While many books and articles seem to emphasize similar themes, others have suggested more radical views about the nature of training problems (Gilley 1989). Case studies validate strategies that have worked successfully for some organizations, yet most experts agree this training and development practices needs to be approached differently in different companies. Most of the published work on training and development topics focus on three key areas: the causes, the costs, and the strategies for eliminating the problem (Gilley 1989).

The purpose of the training must clearly express the overall reason why the organization is interested in training activities. It sets the scene for the plan, which can then be drawn up. The policy must clarify the allocation of overall responsibilities for training. The training plan on the other hand must explain in detail what will be done in order to realize the training purpose and policy in a practical way (McLagan 1989).

A study conducted by Princewaterhouse (Cranfield report 1990) argues that managers and professionals generally receive more financial support for training than do clerical and manual workers. This is due to the less awareness of the need for training and more importantly less ability to do something about it. Professions are improved with the value of education and self-development, which is often acquired in the routes to, and in a higher education. This process helps them to cope with change and hence attention to the organization. Where as those without this capability to adapt to change due to lack of training may fail to cope.

To be successful in the current rapidly changing world, we need to maximize the productivity of all of our resources — physical, financial, information, and human. To start with, Physical resources can be improved by making major investments in updating our physical equipment, so we can compete with state-of-the-art production tools and facilities. Organizations need to be as good as they are in accessing the new world of information. Human resources is the leverage point. Here's where organizations can make significant differences in their lives, their careers, and their organizations.

2.2 Training and Development

2.2.1 Overview

A definition of HRD is "organized learning activities arranged within an organization in order to improve performance and/or personal growth for the purpose of improving the job, the individual, and/or the organization" (Gilley 1989). HRD includes the areas of training and development, career development, and organization development. This is related to Human Resource Management, that is, a field which includes HR research and information systems, union/labor relations, employee assistance, compensation/benefits, selection and staffing, performance management systems, HR planning, and organization/job design (McLagan 1989).

Organization and jobs will never be the same. Changes are based on the global economy, on changing technology, on changing work force on cultural and demographic trends and on the changing nature of work itself. Employees need to learn new skills and develop new abilities to respond to these changes in their careers and their organizations (Rouda and Kusy 1995). These can be dealt with constructively using change for competitive advantage and as opportunities for personal and organizational growth. Accountability being Change affects all organizations including NGOs. With all the downsizing, outsourcing and team building responsibility and downloaded to individuals. So everyone is now a manager and needs to acquire and /or increase their skills, knowledge and liabilities to perform their jobs (Mclagan 1989). The goal of Human Resource Training and Development is to improve the performance of organizations by maximizing the efficiency and performance of employees (Rouda & Kusy 1995). Organizations exhibit varying training and development practices. The differences occur at different stages in the training and development process. These practices are reviewed below.

2.2.2 Training Needs Identification Practices

A Needs Assessment is a systematic exploration of the way things are and the way they should be. These "things" are usually associated with organizational and/or individual performance (Stout 1995). Training needs assessment is the first step in systematic development of a training program. Training needs analysis consists of 2 interrelated components: organizational analysis, operational analysis. Organization analysis involves examining the entire organization to determine where training is needed. This system wide analysis typically examines whether the existing goals of the organization might be better met by increasing employee knowledge and skills or by changing attitudes (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

Any needs assessment should be done with the following questions in mind: What learning will be accomplished?; What changes in behavior and performance are expected?; Will we get them?; What are the expected economic costs and benefits of any projected solutions?

Distinguishing between can't do and won't do problems is the heart of performance analysis. This helps in ensuring training is not developed for problems that training just won't fix (Dessler 2003). Once it is determined where training is needed, an operations analysis is conducted to determine the tasks performed on the job, the knowledge, skills and abilities needed to perform those tasks and the performance standards or competencies required to perform each task. The identification of task underlying knowledge and skills and performance standards provide a comprehensive analysis of the job. Personal analysis assesses whether individuals are performing at expected levels. If not, the next step is to determine whether any performance gaps found might be a result of inadequate knowledge, skills or attitudes that are alterable through training and development activities (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

Task analysis and performance analysis are two main ways to identify training needs. Task analysis is especially suitable for determining the needs of employees who are new to their jobs. Performance analysis appraises the performance of current employees to determine whether training could reduce problems. Supplementary methods used to identify training include supervisors' reports, personnel records, management requests, observation, tests of jobs knowledge, and questionnaire surveys (Dessler 2003). Strategy sets the agenda for training. If strategy is not fully considered in need analysis, certain training programs may be left out Sins of omission thus become a problem. A Skills training effort can be a source of difficulty when activities undertaken fail to undertake necessary training (Miner and Crane 1995). Needs assessment provides information on what, where when and who needs to be trained. It should also include assessing needs on communication and linkages between different jobs. Team task analysis for example helps analyze deficiencies in team level interactions (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

Training analysis could be targeted at attitudes. An attitude is an individual's characteristic way of responding to an object or situation. It is based on experience and leads to certain behavior or the expression of certain opinions. Attitudes determine the general approach of an employee to work. The importance of attitudes obviously varies according to the type of job. They are not particularly important when the work is highly structured because so long as the employee is at a workstation he or she has little choice about the way the work is under -taken. On the other hand, unstructured work, with its freedom of choice and its opportunity for self -regulations, cannot be carried out successfully unless the employee's attitudes are consistent with the purpose of the job. Changing attitudes through training is difficult because many attitudes are deep-rooted and cannot easily be changed in a short time (Graham & Bennet 1995)

Techniques used to identify Training needs

Steadham (1980) says that Multiple methods of Needs Assessment should be used. To get a true picture, one should not rely on one method. It is important to get a complete picture from many sources and viewpoints. The manager's word should not be taken to be what is needed.

There are several basic Needs Assessment techniques. A combination of some of these are appropriate: direct observation, questionnaires consultation with persons in key positions, and/or with specific knowledge, review of relevant literature, interviews, focus groups, tests, records and report studies.

One should remember that actual needs are not always the same as perceived needs, or "wants". Look for what the organization and people really need since they may not know what they need, but may have strong opinions about what they want. The Human Resource Development data should be used to make decisions. This avoids confronting management since the conclusions will follow from the Needs Assessment activities (Steadham 1980).

Since NGOs might be dependent on funds which come not from users, but from donors, there is a danger that they may become concerned more with resource efficiency than with service effectiveness. It has no real measure of efficiency other than its ability to carry out its mission and achieve its objectives within the dollar contributions it receives from its donors (Wheelen and Hunger, 1995; Johnson and Scholes, 1999). This study however, seek to reveal the training needs practiced by the NGOs.

2.2.3 Training Program Design and Development Practices

Program design is the process of developing a plan of instructions for each training program to be offered. The common widely acknowledged practice in training programme design follows the following steps:

It starts with the specification of instructional objectives, which provide statements of the desired end states for trainees (Kossek and Lobel 1996). Ivancevich (2001) argues that it is necessary to establish specific measurable training objectives, expressed in behavioural terms, if at all possible. By using behavioural -based objectives, the intent of the training program is identified. In some cases it is difficult to specify behavioural objectives because the manager is still attempting to clarify what behaviours are required. However if behaviours can't be identified, one might be inclined to ask what the reason for the training is. A vague, ambiguous answer might suggest that the training purpose is not particularly important (Ivancevich 2001). The creation of objectives leads to then sequence of training events and the incorporation of learning principles to maximize learning (Dessler 2003).

The second primary step in the training design phase is to create a learning environment that enhances trainee motivation and optimizes learning (Kossek and Lobel 1996). This includes choosing the right trainees and the right trainer. Traditionally, training design has focused on the trainer being in control of the learning content, sequencing, design and delivery of training. Often the training program is delivered in-group settings where the trainee is often a passive recipient of training material (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

As training has moved from satisfying trainees to improving organizational performance, the right employees must be trained for training to impact on performance. Mass training has been a popular approach in the past. Never the less, the increasing diversity of the work force has led trainers to question more carefully the cost involved in the massed training approach (Kossek and Lobel 1996). Individuals are not interchangeable but have different goals, expectations, needs, skills and their own criteria of success. While business necessity dictates a certain level of job performance, the changing workforce questions whether there is one best way to reach those outcome goals. Instead, the growing diversity of people requires a greater diversity in the methods used to train and develop individuals in the organization. This customization approach in which training is tailored to meet individual needs is consistent with a more holistic perspective to people and their work (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

Great care must be exercised in choosing effective instructors or trainers. Some organisations use supervisors to serve as tutors while others outsource these services. To some extent, the success of training programmes depends on proper selection of the person who performs the training task. Personal characteristics such as the ability to speak well, to write convincingly, to organize the work of others, to be inventive, and to inspire others to great achievements are important factors in the selection of trainers (Ivancevich 2001). Although much training is performed by professional trainers, often operating supervisors may be the best trainers technically, especially if the training manager helps them prepare the material. Using operating manager as trainers overcome the frequent criticisms that training, is okay in the classroom, but it wont work on the shop floor or back on the job. The presence of trained trainers is a major factor in whether the training program is successful (Ivancevich 2001).

The nature of training itself is undergoing a transformation. Trainers no longer hold the privileged position of "all knowing" content expert. Groups being trained often contain individuals with more depth of knowledge about, more experience applying, or more time to access current knowledge on the subject of training. The training professionals thus become facilitators of learning and guides to available knowledge instead of content experts who bring "the info" into the training room with them. Trainers no longer "own" the knowledge. Instead, they synthesize and provide resources to clients who also have access to the knowledge (Keller and Schaffer, www. edci. purdue. edu).

The third step is to select and develop an appropriate instructional method. It is critical that the training method selected is appropriate for meeting the instructional objectives and the training context (Kossek and Lobel 1996). The method chosen could either be on the job or off the job and should be driven by the training need as per the training needs analysis. It thus could be targeted at improving attitudes, behavior, skills or even the decision-making ability of managers (Graham and Bennet 1995).

On the job training is given the normal work situation, the trainee using the actual tools, equipment; documents or material that he or she will use when fully trained. The trainee is regarded as partly productive worker from the time training begins. The advantages of on the job training are that, it is less cosdy than off the job training because it uses normal equipment in normal surroundings. Learning will take place on the equipment, which will be actually used when the trainee is proficient; there is no transfer of learning problems and finally, the trainee is in the production environment from the beginning; he or she does not have to adjust to it after the rather sheltered conditions of off the job training (Graham and Bennet 1995).

The disadvantages of on the job training include: the instructor (usually a supervisor or a nearby worker) may be a poor teacher and may not have enough time to give proper training, payment-by-results scheme discourages the instructor from training and the trainee from learning properly, the trainee may be exposed to bad methods and leam these instead of more efficient methods, a large amount of spoiled work and scrap material may be produced, valuable equipment may be damaged, training takes place under production conditions, which are stressful, that is noisy, busy, confusing and exposing the trainee to comments by other workers and stress usually inhibits learning. Techniques of on the job training include: job rotation, internship, supervisory assistance, coaching, team training and multiple management programs (Dessler 2003).

Off the job training on the other hand takes place away from the normal work situation usually employing specially simplified tools and equipment. The trainee is not regarded as a productive worker from the beginning, the initial work often consisting of exercises. Off the job training may take place on the employer's premises, at a training center attended by trainees from several employers, or at a college (Graham and Bennet 1995).

The various advantages that go with off the job training include: higher quality as a special instructor gives the training, special equipment that is simplified if necessary can be used, the trainee can learn the job in planned stages, using special exercises to enable him/her to master particularly difficult aspects, in the long-term, off-job training may be less costly because it enables workers to reach higher standards of speed and quality, it is free from the pressures of payment-by-results schemes, noise, danger or publicity, the trainee can leam correct methods from the onset, the trainee does not damage valuable equipment or produce spoiled work or scrap and it is easier to calculate the cost of off-job training because it is more self-contained than on-job (Graham and Bennet 1995).

Disadvantages of off the job training include: the higher costs of separate premises, equipment and instructors can only be justified if there is a regular, fairly large intake of trainees (though this may be overcome by participation in group training schemes in which several employers cooperate), sometimes there is transfer of learning difficulties when a trainee changes from training equipment to production equipment and from a training school environment to a production environment, no training can be entirely off-job; some aspects of the job can only be learned by doing them in the normal production setting, with its own customs and network of personal relationships. To illustrate this point, training in driving might be given to a very high standard on a private track, but the driver will not be truly expert until he or she has experienced driving on public roads; only then can a learner driver learn to react to the behavior of other drivers, some methods of training which have become important in recent years can only be off-job, for example programmed learning; skill analysis and discovery learning; even here the final stages of training must be on-job (Graham and Bennet 1995). Techniques of off the job training: vestibule training or simulated training, interactive videos, conferences, seminars, workshops and computer based training. When training is targeted at attitudes the following techniques could be used: on-job experience within a group of employees who attitudes are thought to be appropriate, on-job training by attaching the trainee to a senior employee who has appropriate attitudes and the personal qualities likely to influence their acceptance, off-job training in which a group of employees discuss case studies designed to emphasize the relevant attitudes. The case studies can be written with the particular background and needs of the trainees in mind, off-job role-playing exercise in which a situation is described up to a certain point of crisis. Participants in the exercise are then asked to act out the parts of the people involved in the situation, extemporizing the dialogue and behaving in the way they think is characteristic not of themselves but of the individuals whose roles they are playing, T-groups (the T stands for training) are an off-job training method in which groups of trainees not more than twelve in number are told to examine and discuss their own behavior. It's aim it to bring about a change in attitudes by showing individuals what others think of them, partly to demonstrate the importance of personal behavior in group processes and partly to improve the social skills of the trainees.

The training design could also be targeted at improving skills may be described as perceptual, motor, manual, intellectual, social, etc. according to the context or the most important aspect of the skill pattern (Graham & Bennet 1995). Skilled workers do the job faster, make fewer mistakes, and contribute to the company's bottom line. An advantage of skill-based training is that its results are measurable in increased productivity. This justifies to training expenditure. If a company is unable to hire skilled workers, it makes bottom line sense for them to make an effort to get the good workers they can properly train (Ron Kuttus, www.school-for-champions.com May 2001). Techniques for skills training include: sitting next to Nellie, discovery method and apprenticeship among others.

Interpersonal skills can be promoted through role-playing, modeling, sensitivity training, transactional analysis and structured insight Job knowledge can be acquired thought experience, coaching and understanding systems organizational knowledge can be developed through position rotation and multiple management In addition, ones general educational background can be developed through special courses, meetings and a reading program, while specific individual deficiencies can be addressed through special projects and committee assignment. Training targeted at improving decision making skills uses techniques such as: in-basket, business games and case studies (Flippo 1984).

Training is sometimes offered with an aim of socializing new employees into the company culture and to reduce ambiguity and uncertainty by providing needed information. These may include: company information, history of the organization, names of key executives, industry characteristics strategic emphasis, important locations, pay and benefit practices, policies and procedure, and safety rules among the topics often covered. This is often done through classroom sessions, films, handbooks, and tours of facilities are usually part of the process (Ron Kurtus, www. school-for-champions. com May 2001).

The training design and delivery must not ignore the fact that a training event is not an isolated activity. Newly developed training programs may complement or hinder previous training and development activities. A key issue thus is whether the training design helps individuals link previous knowledge and skills requirements. Without such a linkage, the trainee is likely to be viewed with suspicion and fear thus leading to a low level of learning and transfer (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

2.2.4 Measuring the Effects of Training

According to Richard Chang (1994) once training sessions are over, the vehicle has come to a halt; the journey is not necessarily complete unless you can prove the value of training effort. Training evaluation information is critical for determining the success of the program in meeting its stated objectives, and what refinements in the training are needed to improve its quality. A Key focus efforts should be on the transfer learning or the extent to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in training context (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

There is no "approach to evaluation of training. To properly evaluate training requires one to think through the purpose of the training, the purposes of the evaluation, the audience for the results of the evaluation, the points or spans of points at which measurements will be taken, the time perspective to be employed, and the overall framework to be utilized (Nickels 2005, www. map. org). Training evaluation has a two primary purpose: to improve the effectiveness of training and to demonstrate its results (Ford 2000). Evaluation includes measuring: Participant response to the program, on-the job training, business focused results and organizational impact.

These measures ensure that training is value adding and aligned with organizational goals. Business related results could be divided into hard and soft results. Hard results are easier to analyze. They are more concrete, objectively observable and you can usually assign numbers to them easily (Chang 1994). They could include aspects such as: time, usually measured by percentage of timely deliveries, number of appointments met on time, out put-measured by number and amount of work redone, number of product problems, number of tasks completed successfully, and Cost.

Soft results on the other hand are much more complicated to analyze because these outcomes are often based on people's behavior and attitudes. However, they can be measured, and will lend more credence to the success of your training. They coul include aspects such as: Work practices-productivity, attendance ratio, number c safety practices violated among others, Management team skills-modeling good team ability to make decisions, listening skills, promotability initiative-numbers of new ide; researched and implemented, number of conferences, training sessions attended, an climate or culture which includes the number of complaints, number of employi grievances.

According to Chang (1994), evaluation can be either formative or summativ Formative evaluation focuses on improving the training process and the effectivene of training. It is primarily an internal evaluation process initiated and used by traine to assess their own work and discover ways to make continuous improvement to t] training process. It is also used to help monitor the quality of ongoing instruction designed projects and ensure that they achieve their stated objectives. Summati evaluation on the other hand focuses on assessing the impact of completed trainii programs to determine if they have met their goals and if the programs should 1 continued or curtailed. Scholars have proposed models for evaluating traini activities. Some of the recent models are reviewed below:

Evaluating Training - Recent Models

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Business changes have resulted in increased pressure on training professional demonstrate their worth. Donald Kirkpatrick has provided a frame work of fc levels of evaluation (Kirkpatrick 1994):

Level 1 — the effectiveness as perceived by the trainee. This level measures leame reactions toward or satisfaction with a learning or performance improvemt intervention. Reaction is typically measured at the end of training. They can measured during the training, even if only informally in terms of the instructor's perceptions.

Level 2 - measures evaluations of training. This includes measures of knowledge or skills that occur from the intervention as assessed during or at the end of training (learning). What the trainees know or do can be measured during and at the end of training but, in order to say that this knowledge or skill resulted from the training, the trainee's entering knowledge or skills levels must also be known or measured. Thus evaluating learning requires measurements before, during and after the training.

Level 3 - measures observed performance. This encompasses transfer of learning as measured by improvements in performance attributable to the intervention (Behavior).

Evaluation of change in on-the-job behavior must occur in the workplace itself. It should be kept in mind that behavior changes are acquired in training and they then transfer (or don't transfer) to work place. It is deemed useful therefore, to assess behavior changes at the end of training and in the workplace.

Level 4 - business impact. Evaluation at this level estimates the organization benefits of an intervention based on perceptual data measurable performance improvements, or costs, reduction of turnover and absenteeism, reduction of grievances, increase in quality and quantity of production and improved morale among others (Ivancevich 2001).

Kaufman and Keller (1994) proposed a fifth level that is a logical extension of the traditional classifications. They proposed societal outcomes as fifth level, and it focuses on issues and consequences of an intervention on the society within which the organization is situated. Given the degree, to which companies are being held accountable for the societal out comes of their products and processes, this level of evaluation adds a relevant new dimension to the traditional models (Keller and Schaffer, www.edci.purdue.edu).

2.3 Conclusion

Evidence of the training gap is provided by the fact that organizations find that they increasingly need employees with analytical skills, independent judgment, and the ability to work closely with others in complex operations (Szabo, 1993). Following periods of downsizing, surviving employees have poor morale and fear loss of their own jobs. They must understand that they are valued by the organization, but that performance is key to personal and corporate success.
In conclusion it can be said that NGOs have a rough time trying to implement these training and development practices discussed above. They could apply them (training practices) partly or not at all due to the vulnerability of their work environment. For example measuring of training effectiveness could not be easy due to the fact that employees are not permanent. They are employed on contract meaning time to monitor them after training might not be enough.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the research methodology that was used to meet the objectives of this study. It is organized into five subsections namely: the research design, target population, sampling design, data collection instruments and procedures, data analysis and operationalization of variables.

3.2 Research Design

The study was carried out using a survey design. This design was preferred because the study utilized cross-sectional data.

3.3 Target Population

The target population consisted of all the employees of the International NGOs operating in Nairobi, Kenya. International NGOs are considered appropriate for this study because, given their relative sizes and stability, they are more likely to have training and development policies and programmes in place According to the NGO Coordinating Directory (April 2006), there were 3362 NGOs in Kenya. Out of these 112 were international NGOs of which 47 operate in Nairobi.

3.4 Sampling Design

Daniel and Terrell (1975) state that as a rule of thumb the sample size widely used is 30 or more. Simple random sampling method was used in two steps involving listing and picking. All the International NGOs were listed and then given numbers which were then written on pieces of papers and picked out randomly. Sample size of 40 NGOs was used.

The number of employees selected from each organization was two from the human resource department. These consisted of the Human Resource managers and any other officer in the department or, for big organizations the person in charge of training. This gave a sample of 80 employees from whom data was collected.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

The main instrument used to collect primary data was the questionnaire (see appendix ii). It consisted of open-ended and close-ended questions. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, 1 and 2. Part 1 was aimed at the biographical data while part 2 targeted, data for the research objective. The researcher used the drop and pick method to enable employees fill the questionnaires freely. Secondary data on issues such as training policies and training programmes was used to supplement the primary data. Secondary data was obtained from annual reports, newsletters, training reports, among others.

3.6 Data analysis techniques

The study was modeled on a descriptive framework and therefore descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. This included Frequency distribution, Mean scores, percentages, and standard deviations.

3.7 Operationalization of Variables

The key variable, that is training and development practice, was operationalized as presented in table 1 below:

Table 1. Operationalization of Variables

Variables	**Measures (Indicators)**
TRAINING PRACTICES • Formalization of the training and development function	- Availability of a policy document -Techniques used
• Identification of training needs	-Level of analysis (Organizational, occupational and individual) -Critical questions that are considered
• Training Program Design and Development practices	- Specification of training objectives -Instructional Methods used -Participants response to the programme -On-the-job training

• Measuring/ evaluating training results/outcomes	- Cost benefit analysis - Company reports - Observation techniques - Questionnaires - Testing - Formal individual appraisal

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Research Findings

Out of the forty (40) NGOs that constituted the sample, only seventeen (42.5%)of them responded. Fifteen were not filled without a reason from the respondents. Ten participants were not available within the time limit of the exercise and therefore the questionnaires were returned unfilled. Fifteen questionnaires were filled incorrecdy and therefore were irrelevant to the study. Six questionnaires were misplaced by the respondents and so were not used.

4.2 Demographic information

This section covers areas such as gender, age, level of education and the number of years the employee has served the organization. The respondents were officers in charge of training, whereby 12.5% had employees with less than 30 years of age, 44.65% of the organizations had their ages ranging between 31-40 years, 30.1% had 41-49 years, and 12.75% had 50 and above years.

4.2.1 Level of education

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90% of the organizations indicated the staff is composed of 65% women staff and 35% male employees; the other 10% had 50% male employees and 50% female employees. University graduates were 42.7%, 1.6% were "A" level graduates with 50% being Diploma and 5.7% from other educational levels.

4.2.2 Years served

35% of the employees had served for 5-10 years while another 30.8% had served from 11-15 years and the remaining 34.2% had served for less than 5 years. From the data collected it was clear that employees do not serve for many years in the NGO sector. Less than 50% of the employees serve for more than 10 years. The other 50% serves for between 4-6 years in the NGO sector. The table below gives a summary of the demographic information collected.

Table 4.1: Demographics of the respondents

Gender	**Composition**
Male	35%
Female	65%
Age	**Composition %**
Less than 30	12.5%
31-40	44.4%
41-49	30.1%
50 and above	12.75%
Level of Education	**Composition %**
University graduate	42.7%
Diploma	50%
"A" Level	1.6%

Other Education Levels	5.7%
Years of Service	**Composition**
Less than 5 years	34.2%
5-10 years	35%
11-15 years	30.8%

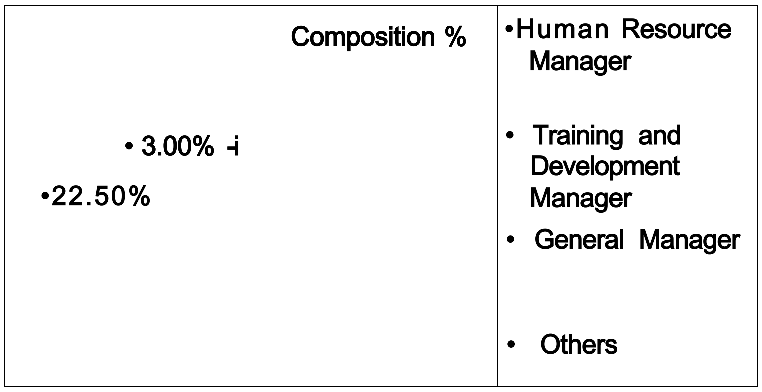
The table above clearly indicates that in the NGO sector, the employees consist of more women than men. The age is mostly made up of those between 31 and forty years of who mostly are diploma holders in terms of education. It is also noted that a good number of the respondents serve a minimum of 5 years in the same organization.

4.3 Training and Development Practices

4.3.1 Training and development policy

All the respondents have a staff training and development policy in place. All those involved in the study that is, the staff in charge of training from these organizations were familiar with their organizations' staff training and development policy. 60% of the organizations had the Humari Resource manager in charge of training, 14.5% had the training and Development officer in charge, 22.5% had the general manager while 3.0% had other people in charge of training and development. Figure 1 below shows comparably in terms of categories of staff in most organizations that training and development managers are in charge of this function.

Figure 4.1: Categories of Staff in Charge of Training and Development



Donor funding of the training and development programmes among the respondents was realized at 79.98% for more than a half of the respondents as being on a very large extent, 15% was to a small extent while the other 5.02% was to a very small extent.

In 25.95% of the organizations job descriptions were used to a large extent, 20.25% they were used to a fairly large extent, 28.06% used them to a small extent while 25.74% used them to a very small extent. The research indicated that where job descriptions were used the employees also tended to be multi-skilled as indicated in the Table below.

Table 4.2: Extent to which Training Policies Target Multi-skilling

Extent to which multi-skilling is targeted	**Frequency**	
	No.	**%**
From very to large extent	7	41.2%
Moderate extent	5	29.4%
Less extent	5	29.4%

The table shows that Training and Development Policies targeted multi-skilling of employees with the biggest percentage (41.2%) of the organizations using it from very to large extent. This may be due to the fact that NGO projects are varied and could change within a short-term leading to a demand in a different kind of skills.

4.3.2 Training needs analysis

20.22% of the organizations carried out training needs analysis to a large extent, 25.74% did it to a fairly large extent, 28.06% did it to a small extent, while 25.98%did so to a very small extent. The level of training needs analysis used in training needs have been analyzed in table 3.

4.3.3 Execution of Training and Development programs

5.75% of the organizations, this practice is done to a very large extent, 30.29% of the organizations carried out execution of training and development programmes to a large extent, 30.20% did it to a fairly large extent, 18.01% did it to a small extent while 15.75% did so to a very small extent. It can be said that this training activity is actually carried out from large to a fairly large extent among the participating organizations.

4.3.4 Training program Design and Development practices

18.78% of the organizations carried out training program design and development to a large extent, 10.25% did it to a fairly large extent, 20.06% did so to a small extent while 50.91% did it to a very small extent. This is seen as a practice that is not very popular among the respondents as we can read from the findings. The majority (50.91%) did it to a very small extent yet as a training and development activity it is very important in the process of coming up with specific measurable training practices needed by employees at a particular point in time (Ivancevich 2001).

4.3.5 Measuring/ evaluating Training results /outcomes

In 23.04% of the organizations carried evaluation of training results to a large extent, 19.02% did it to a fairly large extent, 30.01% did it to a small extent while 27.93% did so to a very small extent. Measuring of training results is done to a small and very small extent by the respondents which may be indicating that this activity is not taken into account by most trainers. Chang (1994) argues that Training evaluation information is critical for determining for the success of the program in meeting its stated objectives, and what refinements in training are needed to improve its quality.

The Table below is a summary of the training practices applied by the organizations and to what extent is each practiced.

Table 4.3: The training practices carried out by the NGOs

Training practices	**Very large extent**	**Large extent**	**Fairly large extent**	**Small extent**	**Very small extent**
Training needs analysis	0	20.22%	25.74%	28.06%	25.98%
Clearly defined training programme	100%	0	0	0	0
Designing of Training and Dev. Programmes	0	18.78%	10.25%	20.06%	50.91%
Execution of training and Dev. Programmes	5.75%	30.29%	30.20%	18.01%	15.75%
Evaluation of Training effectiveness	0	23.04%	19.02%	30.01%	27.93%
Mean scores	**21.15**	**18.47**	**17.04**	**19.23**	**24.11**

Taking into consideration the results from the respondents, the table above was constructed and the mean scores calculated. From the results it was found that 43.34% of the organizations practiced Training and development activities listed above to a very small and small extent, while about 40% of the organizations did so to a very large and large extent. It therefore appears that the training and development practices as represented by the activities listed above were either used by fewer organizations or less frequentiy by most organizations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Overall Discussion of Results

This study was conducted with the following objective:

"To determine training and development practices of the International NGOs in Kenya."

In summary, it was found that 24.11% of the organizations that participated in the survey had training and development practices to a very small extent. This may be partly due to the fact that the NGOs operate based on short-term projects and also due to their small numbers of staff who do not serve the organization for long periods. This is may be because certain professions could be required for a limited time after which the NGO could cease to exist or change to a different project altogether. According to Cranfield report (1990), professions are improved with the value of training and development which helps employees to cope with change and hence attention to the organization. Where as those without this capability to adapt to change due to lack of training may fail to cope.

90%of the organizations indicated that 65% of the employees are female this may be evidence that gender sensitivity is also practiced in the NGO world to a large extent as compared to other organizations such as profit making institutions.

From the study, years of service in the NGO sector is seen as 30.8% of organizations having employees who serve between 11 to 15 years while 35% serve for 5-10 years. Most of the time employees are hired on temporary basis and only renew their contracts if funds are available (VOICE 1987). This could be a reason why most employees don't serve one organization for a long period before switching to another.

Training and development needs analysis was practiced by 45.96% from large to fairly large extent by the respondents meaning this practice is highly considered by the organizations. According to Kossek and Lobel (1996) this is the first step in systematic development of a training program and hence very important. NGOs might be dependent on funds from donors causing concern on the efficiency rather than service effectiveness. This may interfere with its ability to achieve the needed objectives (Wheelen and Hunger 1995). This study however, revealed the training needs are actually practiced by the NGOs.

29.03% did training program design and practices from large to fairly large extent while 70.97% did so from a small to a very small extent. Graham & Bennet (1995) argues that training design could be targeted at improving skills making the results of training measurable. In the case of the respondents this activity seems to be practiced less often. From the results therefore it may be recommended that the designing of training programmes could make it easier for the NGOs to come up with relevant training programmes that fit their nature of operation. The training design and delivery must not ignore the fact that a training event is not an isolated activity (Kossek and Lobel 1996).

According to Richard Chang (1994) training evaluation information is critical for determining the success of the program in meeting its stated objectives, and what refinements in the training are needed to improve its quality. 42.06 % carried out this practice from a large to a fairly large extent while 57.94% did it from a small to a very small extent. Evaluation includes measuring participant response to the program, on-the job training, business focused results and organizational impact (Ford 2000). The

NGOs may carry out formative evaluation which focuses on improving the training process and the effectiveness of training.

5.2 Conclusions

In conclusion, this project found that 56.66% of the NGOs practice training and development from a very large to a fairly large extent while 43.34% did it from a small to a very small extent. The practices do not conquer with the ones of other sectors but done to a small extent. Other profit making organizations carry out training and development of employees as an investment in human resources but this is the opposite of the non-profit making organizations. A major determining factor being the donors who give the mandate on expenditures and guiding policies including those of Training and development. This is evident from the fact that 40.02% of the respondents indicated that the training programmes were donor funded to a very large extent, 19.51% to a large extent, 17.60% to a fairly large extent, 11.70% to a small extent, while 11.17% were donor funded to a very small extent.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

The NGO sector was chosen for this study due to the fact that it is a fast growing sector which has led to a lot of community development projects. These projects employ a big number of employees who need to undergo training and development hence they are required to continuously hire and train personnel and therefore need to come up with systematic training and development practices directly applicable to this sector.

The findings of this research indicate that further research needs to be carried out in the following areas:

- The effect of training and development on Performance in the NGO sector
- To establish if the existing Training and development policies meet the training objectives in the NGO sector.
- The relationship between Strategy and Training and Development Practices in the NGO sector

Apart from these areas, it is still evident from the study that there is still a great need for research to be carried out in the broad area of training and development in the NGO sector as there seems to be limited data in the areas.

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