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Training Strategies, Theories and Types

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Abstract

This article aims to identify the concept of human resource training and to emphasize strategies, theories and kinds of training. The organizational strategy and training are very essential to show the benefits of using strategic view and perception of training, since by linking this strategy with human resource actively, particularly on training and development, it will contribute to the success and enrichment of the organizations. Training and development are also considered as continuous improving process that should be up to date to face the dynamic changes in workplace and to adopt training as a competitive advantage of the organization. Theories are important in choosing and implementation of training process approach on professional way. In the same time in this article we will focus on training kinds and development of these kinds which including E-learning and learning management system (LMS) as a methods of training delivery.

Keywords: training, organization, training and development, strategy, methods, performance, human capital, LMS, KSA.

I. INTRODUCTION

Training and development refer to the obtaining or transferring knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) process needed to carry out a specific activity or functions; so, the benefits of training and development both for organization and individual are strategic in nature and hence much wider. To meet the current and future challenges of organizations', training and development assume a wide range of learning actions, ranging from training of the individual for their present tasks and moreover, knowledge sharing to improve the organization horizon and customers service. Which focus on their career development and enrichment, thus expanding individual, group and organizational effectiveness (Niazi, 2011).

According to the dynamic developments of all work fields, the organization must develop their HR to strategic HR, because organizations cannot apply a strategic training plan unless they have a strategic human resource management system in place. In the strategic human resource management literature, strategic training is regarded as a vital way of raising employee efficiency (Richard et al., 2009). HRM is a way of connecting the human resource function with the strategic goals of the organization in

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order to raise productivity (Bratton, 2003). Although financial return from training is difficult to determine, it can be measured in some instances. However, the evaluation of training is carried out not only in money terms, but also in terms of people, work, and power. A comprehensive assessment of training outcomes also involves assessing trainee reactions, its impact on the workplace, operating and financial outcomes, and its perceived usefulness in assisting people to carry out changes.

In addition to that, theories help us understand the real world by creating the relationships between the different aspects from the theorist's perspective (Dubin, 1976, p. 26). A theory can also be defined as a fundamental collection of statements, which has been subjected to regular testing on how the world functions. Many innovative, sophisticated, influential theoretical frameworks in the field of training have been developed since 1992. These more meaningful, subtle, comprehensive and focused theories have led considerable empirical study to be carried out in the field of training (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Training is defined as “a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, skill or behavior 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 individuals and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organization” (Manpower Services Commission, 1981, p. 62 in Wilson, 1999, p. 4). Beardwell and Holden (2001) stated that training is a planned process that is used to change attitudes, knowledge, skills and behavior through the learning experience in order to achieve effective performance in a specific activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work context, is to develop the abilities of individuals and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organization. This definition links training and planning process with training as a planned operation aimed at modifying skills through the application of experience and education. Training is an ongoing planned process that replicates many of the stages involved in the task in order to achieve the intended benefit. Bratton and Gold (2007, p. 197) define Human Resource (HR) planning as ‘the process of systematically forecasting the future demand and supply for employees and deployment of their skills within the strategic objectives of the organization’. According to Werner and DeSimone (2006, p. 10), HR planning helps companies predict how changes in their strategy will affect their HR needs.

According to Armstrong (2000), strategic human resource management (SHRM) emphasizes longer-term issues of people and consequently long-term training strategies. SHRM should provide appropriate support mechanisms and address personal attitudes and motivation within organizations to ensure participation and support. However, organizations can also achieve immediate improvements in performance by using short-term management approaches for effective training programs (Thomas, 2000).

As the strategic planning process contributes to the development of specific functional strategies needed to achieve business objectives, strategy formulation is important in the development of HR strategies needed to attract and retain the human capital required for gaining competitive advantage (Poole & Jenkins, 1996). Therefore, it is clear that strengths-weaknesses-opportunities-threats (SWOT) analysis will be an important approach and strategic tool, which enhance all organization activities including HR activities.

2.1. The SWOT Analysis

As defined by David (2007), the (SWOT) matrix is an important matching technique that enables management to develop strategic SO (strengths-opportunities), WO (weaknesses-opportunities), ST (strengths-threats), and WT (weaknesses-threats) solutions. Matching important external and internal factors is the most difficult aspect of creating a SWOT matrix and requires wise judgment. According to Pealow (2011), SWOT provides a systematic way of pinpointing strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

SWOT analysis is considered as a vital tool for successful organizations, which nowadays depend less on analyzing an organization's external market position and more on a precise analysis of its skills, and capabilities, which competitors find it difficult to copy. In terms of a straightforward SWOT analysis, the resource-based approach stresses the strategic importance of exploiting internal strengths and neutralizing weaknesses (Barney, 1991). According to Bratton in 2003, strategic SWOT factors are vital to an organization future.

a. The Four Strategic Solutions Based on SWOT Matrix are:

- 1) The strengths and opportunities (SO) solution. It focuses on internal strengths to take advantage of available opportunities in the organization.
- 2) The strengths and threats (ST) solution. It examines internal strengths to reduce the effect of external threats.
- 3) The weaknesses and opportunities (WO) solution. It focuses on opportunities to help deal with internal weaknesses.
- 4) The weaknesses and threats (WT) solution. It minimizes weaknesses and avoids external threats, which negatively affect the organization progress (David, 2007).

Using these four SWOT solutions will give organizations a more obvious understanding of their situation and enable them to plan effectively. Given the external (threats and opportunities) and the internal environment (weaknesses and strengths), the information garnered from this analysis can be used to create a more effective strategic framework for the organization, department and team (Norton et al., 2008).

Related to that strategic human resource management represents a relatively new transformation in the HRM field. (Çalışkan, 2010). As it is known, organizations cannot apply a strategic training plan unless they have a strategic human resource management (Richard et al., 2009).

Additionally, as there are clear positive relationships between training and development strategies, the organizational performances, job satisfaction, competitive advantage and measured performances are the important levers to attain individuals' good performance. Performance guide was included as an important association in training in a number of studies (Aycan, 2003; House et al., 2004; Javidan, 2004). Training has its strategic positioning and it directly contributes for organizational business goals and objectives (Niazi, 2011).

2.2. Step-by-Step Strategies

Bahlis and Tourville (2005) presented six different strategies that can enhance a training program's overall effectiveness during the front-end planning stage. The first three strategies focus on increasing the benefit and value of training programs, while the other three are concerned with lowering training costs.

a. Strategy 1: Align Training with Mission Goals

To determine the concrete benefits of training, clear connections between training and goals firstly need to be established. To establish these linkages something similar to a training needs analysis is required. It is necessary to identify the mission and objectives related to performance. The tasks required to accomplish these objectives as well as to determine the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSAs) needed to perform these functions effectively. This involves defining and prioritizing the organization's mission and the training unit's mission and performance objectives. Identifying the mission tasks needs to accomplish comprehensive performance objectives, allocating tasks to different groups and jobs, determining the required functions, prioritizing the necessary KSAs, identifying knowledge and skill gaps, identifying execution procedures and problems and finally drawing up an action plan that prioritizes activities (Bahlis & Tourville, 2005). Therefore, a direct linkage between the organization's mission and its learning culture benefits both the organizations and individuals with highlighting the positive associations of learning, development, motivation and organizational performance (Niazi, 2011).

b. Strategy 2: Improve Employee's Performance

Training transferring ultimately aims at employee's performance improvements through learning and taking action on that learning (Weldy, 2009), so when a performance gap occurs, the typical and easiest solution in the majority of organizations is training. However, if the gap is not caused by a lack of skill or knowledge, training is not necessary.

To achieve the desired performance levels and carry out the actions recommended for maximizing return on investment (ROI) on training, it is necessary to gather and analyze information to find out the reason of the problem. It is also necessary to identify realistic solutions to fill the performance gap, to identify implementation problems, to calculate the direct costs and benefits of possible solutions, to prioritize recommendations and draw up an action plan.

c. Strategy 3: Reduce Time to Competency

The final objective of training programs should be to develop KSAs in order to fix a performance problem and to achieve training unit and organizational objectives. The following steps will help to determine the benefit of reducing time to competency, the feasibility of using alternative delivery systems and to choose the delivery option with the greatest impact: 1. Identify future gains and list the possible measurable benefits of reducing time to competency. 2. Calculate the potential benefits by calculating the expected minimum and maximum benefits per employee per day due to cutting time to competency. 3. Gather information, particularly related to used curricula, target audience, and environmental factors in order to determine the most effective delivery options. 4. Identify realistic delivery options by analyzing the collected information to find out how effectively the options meet organizational, learning, and learner requirements. 5. Estimate the time taken to accomplish the competency solution and estimate the required time to draw up, develop and deliver the training program for each possible delivery option. 6. Calculate the possible benefits to demonstrate the advantages of cutting time to competency, which are captured by converting time saved into monetary value in relation to organizational expenditure. 7. Calculate and compare the cost of realistic options, with the net benefit of each delivery option being found by subtracting expected cost from potential benefit. 8. Draw up recommendations and make a comparison of the cost and benefit of realistic delivery options to obtain an

accurate picture of the most effective alternative (Bahlis & Tourville, 2005). To conclude, the acquisition of knowledge, skills, behaviors, and attitudes through training has little value if the learned characteristics are not generalized to the job and not maintained over time (Yamhill & McLean, 2001). As evidence of the importance of this approach, a 1995 study that analyzed the advantage of cross-training Radio Operators and Martine Traffic Regulators in the Canadian Coast Guard demonstrated the generation of over \$20 million in extra benefits by cutting time to competency by one year using a \$100,000 loaded annual salary cost of 200 employees.

d. Strategy 4: Choose the Correct Combination of Delivery Options

The following step-by-step selection process gives an important insight into which specific factors should be given the highest priority and ways of gathering the information required to deal with the final recommended solution. It involves; 1. Identifying delivery options currently used by the training department and organization 2. Gathering information on training content, target audience and environmental factors to select possible delivery options 3. Dividing training programs into modules 4. Identifying potential delivery options 5. Making a comparison of the cost of realistic delivery options 6. Considering a mixed delivery strategy 7. Identifying possible implementation problems and 8. Drawing up recommendations.

A training course proposed for 390 officers for the Canadian Forces College showed that selecting an alternative mixed delivery strategy would generate more than \$22 million in savings in an up-front sunk investment for new school facilities, together with \$6 million in annual recurring costs (Bahlis & Tourville, 2005).

e. Strategy 5: Consider Internal Versus External Options

This strategy is worth considering, as at certain times and under certain conditions, external training consultants can be more (cost) effective than internal training personnel. When considering the advantages and disadvantages of each training option, it is necessary to define requirements, assess the experience and skills of internal training staff, assess available material, calculate possible benefits, determine time to achieve competency, calculate potential benefits, make a comparison of costs and draw up recommendations (Bahlis & Tourville, 2005).

f. Strategy 6: Duplicate Effective Training Programs and Identify Issues

This strategy for selecting effective training programs and determining the cost and the needed resources involves comparing different training programs in order to find out what has worked and why, identifying and resolving problems and reducing duplication to a minimum. To duplicate effective training programs and to detect problem areas, organizations need to roll-up training program information, allocate privileges to show who has official access to which information, grade and evaluate the information, draw up a priority list of recommendations and design an action plan to compare levels of effectiveness (Bahlis & Tourville, 2005).

So if training is to increase organizational effectiveness, it must be of strategic importance to the organization, effectively designed and delivered, and it must be transferred to the job. Transferring of training is thought to be the primary leverage point by which training influences organizational-level outcomes (Kozlowski et al., 2000).

These step-by-step strategies and methodologies provide an opportunity for those in charge of training to follow a training strategy and to increase efficiency and reduce costs as well as provide performance-based measurements. Increased

performance is one of the most important reasons for conducting training programs. These strategies also facilitate the monitoring of progress during the implementation phase of the training process, the achievement of desired outcomes and the avoidance of random training programs and their negative consequences.

III. TRAINING THEORIES

3.1. Scenistic Methods

Much progress has been made in training and development methodologies, some of which has occurred in the area of scenistic methods, a set of approaches or processes focusing on situations, events, case-studies, and narratives that furnish a specific setting for performance issues, needs, deficiencies and scripted actions for particular situations (Paul, 2010).

However, due to the social participation and consolidation practice involved and given factors of cost and effectiveness, the scenistic methodology would be more appropriate for team training rather than for individual instruction.

The theoretical and conceptual foundations of scenistic methodology includes situated learning/cognition, constructivism, experiential learning, transformative learning theory, and action theory.

a. Situated Learning or Cognition

Situated learning is one of the most important features of the scenistic method. Theoretically, the materials we create or use, such as cases, basically situate the trainee in his/her operational context. This material is the starting point of the methodology and is followed by the identification of issues and problems, where the trainee is, to a certain extent, familiar with and involved in a specific context.

According to Anderson et al. (1996), situated learning is based on situations in which trainees are involved on a regular basis. The situational skills that trainees receive are supposed to be used in similar situations. Training activities are shared and are, to some extent, actively created in cooperation with other trainees working together to identify and resolve issues.

b. Constructivism and Experiential Learning Theory

A constructivist learning perspective implies that knowledge and skills can be improved in different ways without necessarily any one ideal solution (Jonassen, 1991). Constructivism is well suited to the situated and scenistic methods as it stresses comprehensible real-world functions in organizational environments. In skills moulding in a specific environment, the various aspects of performance need to be defined, demonstrated, and comprehended (Jonassen, 1994). This will enable people and groups to pinpoint gaps and deficiencies in performance in a specific skill area. This type of dynamic social participation should also accelerate the learning process.

The multidisciplinary theory of experiential learning is, to a great extent, based on constructivism and uses psychology, philosophy, sociology, anthropology, and cognitive sciences to gain a greater insight into the learning process (Carver, 1996).

c. Transformative Learning Theory

Transformative learning in combination with scenistic methods enables and encourages trainees to participate actively in shaping the content and application of learning activities, and many will accept possibility of being empowered and actively involved in decision making. Personal job satisfaction and commitment are also crucial aspects of this type of empowered learning (Devanna, 1986; Bryman et al., 1996). Marcinelli (1997) analyzing employee creativity and discovering the possibility of

making decisions and risks that affect motivation and productivity in a positive way. Transformative and experiential learning is concerned with using discretion, delegation, and participation in decision-making processes.

d. Action Theory

As described by Michael Frese (2007), action theory attempts to explain how learning is regulated and how people can change their behavior to dynamically meet objectives in normal and/or unusual situations. Situated and scenic learning methods involve novel situations and require trainees to be creative to some extent. Contrary to many cognitive and information processing theories, action theory is linked to behavior and specific working contexts and outcomes. It is also concerned with the processes involved in the interaction between environmental inputs and behavior in the one hand and how cognition regulates behavior and performance on the other hand (Paul, 2010).

According to Salisbury (2008), action theory is a systematic tool for understanding how knowledge of cognitive processes in a performance situation is regulated by using the focus, sequence, action structure components (Frese, 2007) and the foundations of the theory which interact dynamically. The action structure is the most important component in relation to scenic processes. Through sensitivity to the complexity of the learning process, instructors can manage learner expectations to reduce information overload. After trainees feel more comfortable with the scenic model, they often try to apply it to other problems in the workplace (Paul, 2010).

3.2. Human Capital Theory

Human capital theories have developed rapidly since Mincer (1958, 1962), Schultz (1960, 1961), Becker (1962) and Ben-Porath (1967), laid their foundations. Since training is regarded as an investment, it involves costs and benefits, which can be assessed by using financial criteria such as present value and the internal rate of return. Initially, Becker (1962) studied the impact on wage levels of two types of human capital operating in a perfectly competitive labor market that had no imperfections or distortions. One type of human capital can be transferred to other organizations, which encourages employees to cover the costs and to obtain all the benefits of training. The second type of human capital is regarded as specific to a company and cannot be transferred to other companies, which incentivizes employers and employees to share the costs and benefits of training (Becker, 1962).

Human capital theory is based on neo-classical theories of labor markets, education and economic growth. It takes for granted that employees are productive resources and attempts to find out whether highly trained staff are more productive than other personnel (Simon, 2008). According to Garcia (2005), as employees do not obtain considerable pay increases due to increased productivity after attending specific training sessions, they will not be motivated to finance their own training requirements. On the other hand, companies will be keen to cover these training costs, as they will obtain almost all the returns from the enhanced productivity produced by the new skills generated (Garcia, 2005, p. 1693-1694).

a. Return on Training Investment for Employer-Empirical Evidence

In the United States, Bishop (1994), after studying information on 2594 companies, found that there was a marginal rate of return on the initial 3 months of training from the 2-year increase in employee productivity. After 100 hours of training, productivity increased between 11% and 38%. Bartel (2000) also found that training courses in 495 companies increased productivity by approximately 18% over 3 years.

Ballot et al. (2006) found that training increased value added per worker in France by 17.3% and in Sweden by 7.3%. In the United Kingdom, based on British industry data for 1983–1996, Dearden et al. (2006) discovered that a 1% rise in work-related training increased added value per hour by roughly 0.6% and hourly wages by approximately 0.3%.

3.3. Summary of Theories

Based on above, training theories, particularly those since 1992 have made a significant contribution to understanding the training process. The scientific method is considered as one of the most important contributors to improving the value and effectiveness of corporate training, and it represents an alternative to team training and has had a major impact on the workplace.

According to training theories, it is necessary to choose the type of training model that is most appropriate to the nature of the work being carried out. Training model has implications for other branches like Situated learning or cognition. It attempts to determine the appropriate training processes according to the nature of the trainee's work and also looks at the training process, the type of skills to be provided, and ensures that team work is encouraged among trainees.

The appropriateness of trainees in relation to the training process is important as well as their contribution to training effectiveness. This depends on their creativity and their ability to enhance their role in decision-making and delegation, which is improved by transformative learning theory. In general, action theory has helped to regulate the behavior of individuals and to achieve training objectives.

Theories and literature relating to human resources and human resource management emphasize the importance of human capital in organizations. According to human capital theory, human capital is the most important form of capital in organizations and can be enhanced through training. Human capital theory is concerned with the return on training investment, and there is much evidence from various countries to show that an increase in training reflects positively on performance.

IV. TYPES OF TRAINING

4.1. On-The-Job and Off-The-Job Training

On-the-job training (OJT) is carried out in the workplace during the working day; off-the-job training (OFJT) is carried out off-site and off-line. OFJT is the most common form of training. It accounts for three to six times more expenditures than that spent on OJT (Rothwell & Kazanas, 2004).

Unplanned OJT often merely helps to shorten the breaking-in period that follows new employee hiring, transfer, or promotion. Unplanned OFJT can involve in-service training where staff “huddle” down with their supervisors or colleagues to deal with common problems. Planned OFJT, like planned OJT, is carefully designed to utilize the time spent away from the job to a maximum. This type of training is suitable when a large number of employees have a similar training requirement (Rothwell, 2005).

a. On-The-Job Training

On-the-job training is planned, structured, and mostly carried out at the trainee's workplace. It is sometimes carried out in a special on-site training area. In on-the-job training, managers, supervisors, trainers and colleagues spend a large amount of time

with trainees to teach previously determined skill sets. It can also involve training that has no significant impact on productivity (Holden, 2001). In on-the-job training (OJT), the work itself becomes an integral part of the training provided (Bas, 1989; Tews & Tracet, 2008). 70% of Chinese managers receive on-the-job training as compared with under 55% in North America, 45% in Great Britain and 21% in France (Cegos Group, 2011, 2012).

According to HR consultants SMR Tech Group, in Asian countries such as Malaysia, 70% of instruction is conducted in the workplace, which indicates a shift to more flexible, inexpensive, and high value training provision methods (Cegos Group, 2011, 2012). Petrescu and Simmons (2004) report that on-the-job training has a considerable impact on job satisfaction, employee motivation and commitment.

b. Off-The-Job Training

Off-the-job training can involve group discussions, one-to-one tutorials, lectures, reading, training courses and workshops (Kempton, 1995). According to Kempton (1995), this type of training enables trainees to learn and apply new skills and knowledge in a safe working context.

Not all performance problems can be solved by training that should not be a substitute for motivation, the right tools or equipment, and the right supervision. Training needs to be provided when employees lack the skills or information to work productively when the right resources exist to draw up, impart, and follow up the training and when training resolves performance problems. It is worthwhile providing off-the-job training when a large number of staff have a similar training requirement and when there are adequate skills and resources for the design and provision of training (Rothwell, 2005). Planned OJT is appropriate when the criteria above are complied with and when it is possible to minimize work distractions, when training at work will not represent a threat to health, safety, or productivity and when there are benefits to be obtained from training in real time.

4.2. Training delivery methods

a. Team Training

Through team training, people are trained to problem-solve more effectively in groups, where observation and feedback are required during the training process (Rasmussen, 1982; Forbush & Morgan, 2004). Team training is often used in the industrial sector, government, and the army (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). Specific team training strategies have been developed such as cross-training, coordination training (Prince & Salas, 1993), leadership training (Tannenbaum et al., 1998), self-correction (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1998), and distributed team training (Dwyer et al., 1999). Evidence shows that team training functions well when it is theoretically driven. It concentrates on the necessary skills, and gives trainees realistic opportunities for feedback (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

b. Mentoring

Training can also be delivered through mentoring. Mentors possess specific knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) in problem solving, conflict resolution, communication, defining objectives and planning (Hartenian, 2003).

c. Simulation

This is a popular way of delivering training and is commonly used by businesses, educational establishments, and military (Jacobs & Dempsey 1993). Many simulators

and virtual environments are able to mimic terrain, equipment breakdowns, and movement, as well as vibratory and visual cues (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

d. Seminars

These bring trainees together in small groups for regular meetings, which focus on a specific topic, with trainees being expected to get actively involved (Webster's dictionary, 1992). Seminars help staff to become more familiar with their job functions and more actively involved in them. They also enable them to handle problems that arise on a regular basis (Holladay & Quinones, 2003).

e. Field Trips and Tours

These give staff the opportunity to experience situations away from the workplace and to obtain practical information about their job functions (Kaushik, 1996). Few organizations use field trips as a component of training due to logistical limitations, shortage of appropriate training materials, and unfamiliarity with the outdoors as a suitable training environment (Mirka, 1970; Fido & Gayford, 1982). However, they can be useful for increasing motivation, performance and skills. They can help employees to get a more obvious understanding of job requirements (Kaushik, 1996).

f. E-Learning

This refers to the use of information technology to enhance and support education and learning processes and provides a variety of learning strategies and applications to exchange information and acquire skills (Candice, Sandra & John, 1998; Sife, Lwonga & Sanga, 2007). Practical e-learning enables people to access to computer and internet to access e-learning programs, course material, academic and non-academic staff and to obtain high quality information and qualifications at an appropriate time and place (Safavi, 2008).

The appearance of e-learning at the beginning of the 21st century has encouraged HR departments to provide very specific learning that effectively and directly benefits learners. Through access to training from their computers, trainees can also adapt training to their daily lives (Cegos Group, 2011, 2012).

E-learning is normally less expensive than other kinds of training. It is self-paced, the content is consistent, it can be used anywhere in any time, it is easy to update, manage and control for large numbers of people, and can assist organizations in enhancing performance (Cantoni, Cellario & Ports, 2004).

In relation to the E-learning there are many academic and corporate training institutions around the world currently employ learning management systems (LMS) to enhance existing training methodologies with the introduction of virtual and mobile learning environments (Gaurav Kumar & Anu Suneja, 2011). LMS involve a complex combination of participant administration, lessons, courses, curriculum and file management, certifications and report builders, recovery solutions, exams, quiz and assignment design, evaluation, communication tools, progress monitoring and reports, authentication and enrollment methodologies, extension modules, payment integration, social network tools, and email notification systems (Gaurav Kumar & Anu Suneja, 2011).

According to the 2009 American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), 91% of those surveyed learning management systems in their companies. There is considerable expansion in e-learning which is expected to continue in the foreseeable future. Studies carried out by Ambient Insight show that e-learning represented spending of \$27.1 billion in 2009, which was expected to double by 2014

(ASTD/i4CP, 2009). Spending on e-learning technology was devoted to packaged content, custom content development, training platforms and tool hosting, authoring software and tools, and installation of training platforms (The Worldwide Market, 2010).

Although the range of technologies available has widened, the majority of training continues to be instructor-led and based in the classroom. However, organizations plan to increase the amount of training delivered via virtual classrooms, self-paced e-learning, simulations and new collaborative training systems. ASTD and i4CP have reported that 38% of companies have expanded their use of e-learning and virtual provision and almost 60% expect to increase the proportion of e-learning in their training provision (ASTD/i4CP, 2009).

V. CONCLUSION

According to the review of literature related to the training and strategy, it is clear that the importance of developing training program in parallel with organization strategy to achieve the desired objective of training program, in addition to that training theories may help professional to adopt the right approach of training. In the same time, it is important to choose the right way of training delivery method related to the nature of work and organization objectives, in concluding it is important to note that successful organizations usually invest more in training than other organizations (Kraiger, 2003). On average, business organizations increased the number of training hours delivered by 13.5% from 4,000hours in 2009 to 4,538 in 2010. The 750 U.S. organizations studied devoted \$48.9 billion to training 2010, an increase of 1.4 % from the \$48.2 billion spent in 2009. Salaries for training personnel totaled \$27.4 billion of the total \$49 billion training budget, about the same as in 2009 but 18% lower than 2008 levels (Workforce Management, 2011). One third of organizations recorded an increase in their training expenditure, one third recorded a decrease, and one-third maintained training budgets as before. Large organizations, employing over 10,000 people, cut staff numbers, There is sufficient evidence that training leads to both individual and organizational outcomes (Tharenou et al., 2007). Therefore, the attention of training field must give more focus not only because the training activities are so expensive but also because the effects of training are very important to organization and to the employee in the same time.

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