



**Training and Development as a Strategic Tool in Human
Capacity Development: A Case of Mbombela Government
Employees, South Africa**

By

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DECLARATION

I, Rucrezia Ngiwete Venacio, declare that the contents of this dissertation represent my own unaided work, and the dissertation has not been previously submitted for examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the University of Mpumalanga.



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ABSTRACT

Training and development programmes became an essential part of employment activities in South Africa as a result of the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 and Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999 that enforced all employers with wage bills beyond the acknowledged threshold to contribute 1% of the monthly wage bill towards the training of their workforce. In response to the national demand to make the workplace an active learning environment, various government departments have training activities scheduled to provide avenues for their workforce to relearn, upskill, and develop themselves considering ever-changing work demands. This study examines different approaches and resources required to conduct training and developmental programmes used by public services in South Africa and evaluated the role of the programmes in human capacity development.

A self-developed Likert-scale quantitative research instrument was designed for data collection from the employees of the Mpumalanga government complex by using non-probability sampling, based on the convenience and availability of respondents. The complex has approximately 1 278 government employees working in skilled, semi-skilled, and managerial positions who were eligible to participate in this study. However, based on the 5% precision level, a sample size of 286–333 respondents were deemed appropriate for the study. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed, 286 useful responses were retrieved. Structural equation modelling, Mann Whitney U, and Kruskal Wallis were used to analyse the three study objectives.

The reliability of the self-developed research instrument was confirmed by using Cronbach's alpha, which yielded a coefficient of **0.853**, showing that the instrument was highly reliable. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to validate the study. The findings revealed that there is a positive relationship between training and development and human capacity development. Further analysis indicated a statistically significant impact of training dimensions and development dimensions on HCD dimensions. The findings for the third study objective revealed differences in employee attitudes towards T&D programmes based on job title and gender.

The study recommends that employers, especially the public sector, consider introducing customised T&D programmes for individual employees and training materials should be designed to address the specific needs of individuals or groups of employees with similar needs.

Keywords: attitudes, training and development, human capacity development, skills, knowledge, capabilities, public sector

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late father, Mr Tulinanye Venacio, whose unwavering belief in my abilities and constant encouragement inspired me to pursue my academic goals. His passion for learning and his steadfast support continue to guide me, even in his absence.

I also dedicate this work to my mother, Mrs Patience Venacio, whose love, patience, and support have been the foundation of my success. Her strength and resilience have taught me to overcome challenges and persevere in the face of adversity.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CD	Career development
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
ETP	Ease of training programme
FTP	Facilitation of training programme
HEQSF	Higher Education Qualification Sub Framework
HCD	Human capacity development
HCT	Human capital theory
HRD	Human resource development
HRM	Human resource management
GFETQSF	General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub Framework
IT	Information technology
KSAs	Knowledge, skills, and abilities
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSA	National Skills Authority
NSF	National Skills Fund
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OJT	On-the-job training
OffJT	Off-the-job training
PD	Personal development
PSETA	Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority
QCTO	Quality Council for Trades and Occupations
QTP	Quality of training programme
ROI	Return on investment
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SDA	Skills Development Act
SDLA	Skills Development Levies Act
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
T&D	Training and development
TNA	Training needs analysis
WPHRMPS	White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service

CHAPTER ONE: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and Background of the Study

At the heart of any country is the vision of providing sufficient education, training, and development to all citizens. This is vital because good training programmes should go beyond achieving economic growth, to satisfy individual needs and improve society (Kumar & Raghavendran, 2013; Kumari & Balanagalakshmi, 2019). Education, training and development (T&D) are key factors that can improve human capacity because a country's growth and development depend on its human capacity development (HCD) efforts. According to Masadeh (2012), training is a process that entails learning the skills and abilities required to accomplish a specific task. This basic understanding of training is important for recognising its critical role in organisations.

The Human Resources Management literature recognises training as a vital enabler for organisations to add value and maintain a competitive edge in an increasingly multifaceted and rapidly changing environment (Frazis & Loewenstein, 2005). Organisations that provide more training tend to be more successful in responding to changing environments and developing new capabilities that enable them to gain better knowledge at all levels of the organisation. It is worth noting that without continuous T&D, employees' skills and knowledge lose value with the passage of time and the evolution of technology. So, in order to keep up with the changing nature of work and global advancements, employees must undergo effective training programmes to enhance work performance (Najeeb, 2013). One of the key factors that most employers and organisations tend to overlook is the positive effect that training programmes have on an employee's personal growth and an organisation's return on human capital.

Many international organisations' principles include HCD as a critical component. Much of the work focuses on enhancing national capacities through T&D, expertise exchange, research, and policy advice (European Training Foundation, 2010; USAID, 2010; Ismail & Abiddin, 2014; Krewer & Uhlmann, 2015). However, even though many interventions have helped people become more skilled, the international community is generally disappointed with its effectiveness because the interventions have not continually improved the efficiency of the departments or organisations where those individuals work (Ortiz & Taylor, 2009). Human capacity development is a vital aspect of a country's developmental process, as it ensures the

availability of a sufficient pool of skilled and qualified individuals ready to work at any given time (Olarere & Adesoji, 2013). In a similar stance, Krewer and Uhlmann (2015) posited that the notion that sustainable development starts with people as individuals is central to an understanding of HCD. Individual learning is a necessary precondition for starting and implementing change processes within organisations and societies. The importance of HCD cannot be overstated, especially in South Africa. Over time, the South African government has made major investments in programmes for development and training. The government allocates approximately 20% of public spending on education and skill development (PSETA, 2018). According to the National Skills Fund (NSF) 2023/24 Annual Performance Plan, the NSF has set aside R3,901 billion for the fiscal year 2023/24 to cover ongoing contractual obligations and new skill development programmes in education and training activities. Despite efforts made by the South African government and private sector to address skills gaps (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2023; National Skills Development Strategy III, 2014), major challenges remain due to factors such as mismatched education and labour market needs, inequality, inadequate funding, employer disengagement, and rapid technological change (OECD, 2017; Mkhonza & Letsoalo, 2017; PSETA, 2024).

Despite these investments, the country is still grappling with the legacy of apartheid, which created huge disparities in access to education and training, leaving a significant portion of the population lacking the skills needed to fulfil job needs (Akoojee et al., 2005). In response to this difficulty, the government passed two major pieces of legislation, namely the Skills Development Act (SDA) (Act No. 8 of 1998) and the Skills Development Levies Act (Act No. 9 of 1999) (SDLA). These Acts provided a framework for a national skills development strategy to provide employees with the skills necessary to thrive in a growing economy (DHET, n.d; Gcezengana et al., 2022). The SDA supports Section 29(1) of the Bill of Rights as contained in the Constitution, which states that all individuals have the right to further education, which the state shall make increasingly available and accessible through appropriate measures (McConnachie et al., 2017).

Despite these legislative efforts, uncertainties remain about the efficiency of training initiatives in establishing a fair and equitable public service. Employees with varying demographic characteristics may have diverse attitudes towards training programmes. These attitudes can range from positive, where employees view training results in positive outcomes such as wage increment, recognition, and an opportunity for career growth and skill development (Willis & Dubin, 1990; Farr & Middlebrooks, 1990; Truitt, 2011; Mathew & Zacharias, 2016), to

negative, where employees consider training as meaningless, poorly designed, or an added burden on their workload. Job title is one demographic factor that influences employee attitudes. McLean et al. (2017) found that higher-level employees (middle and senior managers) often prioritise programmes focused on leadership development and strategic skills that could aid them in advancing their careers. In contrast, employees in general and junior positions may be more interested in learning specific skills that are directly relevant to their current duties (Burke & Nouns, 2006). Gender may also play a role, as research by Truitt (2011) suggests that women, on average, hold more positive views of training than men. Furthermore, Bausch et al. (2014) found that older women exhibited a greater openness to development opportunities than older men.

Additionally, Ngcaweni and Munyati (2022), argue that HCD remains a top priority for governments in developed and developing worlds as they face complex, interconnected difficulties that necessitate constant adaptation, learning, and response. These difficulties are also apparent in the Mbombela provincial government (public sector). According to the report by the Mpumalanga provincial government (2015), issues in the Mpumalanga public sector include a lack of adequate education, training, and experience, as well as job applicants and employees lacking the necessary hard skills and knowledge needed to carry out their work. Several studies found that employee performance, job satisfaction, and organisational commitments are positively correlated with well-designed T&D programmes (Brown & Sitzmann, 2011; Karim et al., 2019). Thus, understanding employee attitudes towards T&D programmes enables organisations to design and implement programmes that meet employee demands while maximising their impact (Truitt, 2011). Therefore, the provincial government should identify specific training programmes or courses to accomplish departmental training goals and yield increase job performance and overall delivery of services (Provincial Human Resource Development Strategy, 2022).

Notably, the study aimed to explore the role T&D played in improving human capacity, as well as to understand employees' perceptions, particularly their attitudes and views towards the T&D programmes offered by their departments, and whether the training had been effective in improving their ability to function in their respective roles. The study also aimed to provide insight into the factors that influenced employee attitudes regarding T&D programmes in the South African public sector and to contribute to the broader literature on HCD in the context of South Africa.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

It is generally acknowledged that investing in employee T&D is essential for boosting workplace productivity, organisational efficiency, and the growth of society (Nassazi, 2013). According to World Economic Forum (WEF, 2018) data, less than one-third of employees receive skills training globally and more than 60% believe they need more training to advance their careers. Global training programmes are often inadequate in meeting the demands of jobs and organisations, resulting in a skills gap that weakens economic growth and development (WEF, 2021). A significant number of employees receive training that is not directly related to their jobs and has limited potential for career progression.

This issue is particularly evident in South Africa, where significant investments in T&D have not fully addressed the shortage of skilled employees to carry out the many key tasks required to develop a successful economy (Stats SA, 2016). South Africa's public sector provides basic services to all citizens (Akinboade et al., 2012). A productive and well-trained workforce is critical to attaining efficient service delivery. A study conducted by the National Skills Authority (NSA) posited that the government's investment in skills development grew from R12.6 billion in 2014–2015 to R20.6 billion in 2018–2019 (NSA, 2019). Regardless of these investments, the nation still faces a shortage of skilled workers (Stats SA, 2020).

Government training initiatives in South Africa have yielded mixed results. While some programmes have effectively enhanced employee skills and addressed skill gaps within specific industries, others have been criticised for being overly theoretical and disconnected from labour market requirements (DHET, 2023). This inconsistency emphasises the potential limitations of these programmes in achieving widespread positive results. Furthermore, these initiatives are potentially hampered by systemic challenges beyond the training programmes. Factors such as poverty, discrimination and limited access to education and training opportunities, particularly in remote areas, can hinder the effectiveness of training programmes and restrict their reach (National Planning Commission, 2012).

The Mpumalanga public sector faces a similar challenge. Despite government initiatives and training programmes, public servants struggle to meet their work demands (Mpumalanga Community Survey, 2016). This challenge is an indication of the incongruity between the training provided and the skills required for effective job performance. In addition to the existing problem, the government does not undertake proper skills audits before beginning training programmes; the province's last audit report on the Mpumalanga Provincial Treasury

was in 2014 (Mpumalanga Treasury, n.d.). Training programmes may fail to effectively meet the province's or individual employees' current needs without a clear understanding of the exact skill gaps in the workforce. In this stance, the lack of a system for delivering accurate data and analysis on the present and future supply and demand for skills is one of the provincial government's most significant issues, as the province lacks a well-defined plan for acquiring the knowledge necessary to boost innovation and productivity in the economy (Provincial Human Resource Development Strategy, 2022).

While earlier research has acknowledged human resource development (HRD) difficulties within the Mpumalanga provincial government (Provincial Human Resource Development Strategy, 2022), there is a lack of research about how employee demographics impact their perceptions and attitudes towards T&D programmes. This study intends to fill this knowledge gap by examining the relationship between employee demographics characteristics and attitudes towards T&D programmes in the Mpumalanga provincial government. Understanding how these factors influence employee attitudes towards T&D can help inform the design of more targeted and effective T&D initiatives in the South African public sector. Furthermore, this study emphasises the need to conduct extensive skills audits before beginning training programmes to ensure they are linked with the workforce's specific needs and contribute to a more skilled and effective public service.

A significant limitation in the understanding of HCD is that much of the research focuses on Western societies (Akoojee et al., 2005). These findings may not directly apply to the South African public sector, which deals with a unique socioeconomic and historical context. The effect of apartheid's legacy on education and training opportunities, combined with South Africa's unique developmental goals, requires a greater awareness of how T&D programmes work in this context. Based on the work skills plan submissions in 2020, municipalities (and other entities) identified 3,360 occupational shortages (LGSETA, 2021). The recruitment process represents the interface between the supply and demand for skills. Therefore, when a vacancy proves challenging to fill, it is associated with scarcity in the local government sector (LGSETA, 2021).

Considering the negative consequences of the skills gap on economic growth and development, the government must identify viable processes to enhance individual work performance through appropriate training initiatives that benefit the individual, organisation, and society at large. Notwithstanding the substantial volume of research on T&D, the exact nature of its relationship with HCD, however, is unclear and not widely studied. Therefore, the study builds

on existing knowledge and provides valuable insights on T&D that focus on the role of employee demographics in shaping their attitudes towards these programmes. Ultimately, the study emphasises that training plays a role in fostering the development of employees' human capacity, and understanding employees' attitudes towards these programmes can play a huge role in balancing individual training needs with skills needed in public service.

1.3 Aim of the Study

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), a research aim expresses the overall goal or purpose of the study. As a result, it serves as the research focus and provides information about the study's purpose. A research aim describes what a study will answer, whereas a research objective specifies how the study will answer it. These concepts break down the research goal into fewer components, each symbolising an important aspect of the study.

This study aimed to evaluate the role and effectiveness of T&D programmes in impacting HCD. The research determines the factors that shaped employees' attitudes towards T&D programmes, guiding areas that need improvement to develop human capacity more efficiently among the Mbombela government employees.

1.4 Research Questions

Creswell (2021) described the research question as a clear, inquisitive statement that guides the study and establishes the nature of the study. The research question is an essential component of a study because it guides all aspects of the research process and ensures that it remains concise and relevant to the research topic.

The following research questions have been derived from the preceding problem formulation:

1.4.1 Primary Research Question

What is the relationship between dimensions of training and development and human capacity development among Mbombela government employees?

1.4.2 Secondary Research Questions

- What is the impact of training and development programmes attended on human capacity development among Mbombela public service employees?
- Are there statistically significant differences in employee attitudes towards public service training and development programme dimensions based on selected demographic variables?

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The following objectives have been derived from the study's aim and research questions:

1.5.1 Main Research Objective:

1. To explore the relationship between dimensions of training and development and human capacity development among Mbombela government employees.

1.5.2 Sub-Research Objectives:

2. To determine the impact of training and development programmes attended on human capacity development amongst public service employees.
3. To evaluate differences in employee's attitudes towards the dimensions of training and development programmes offered by the public service based on selected demographic variables.

1.6 Hypotheses

According to Coy (2019), a hypothesis is a statement of a connection between multiple variables that can be tested empirically. In research, hypotheses provide a precise explanation for the link between variables, guide the research design and methodology, and assess the validity of the research results.

The following hypotheses have been generated based on the aforementioned objectives:

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between the dimensions of training and development and human capacity development.

Hypothesis 2: Training and development programmes attended have no significant impact on human capacity development.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the attitude of employees towards training and development programmes offered by the public service based on the selected demographic information.

1.7 Definition of Concepts

The following definitions are relevant to this study and are defined within the context of the study.

1.7.1 The Public Sector

The public sector includes government-owned and controlled entities whose primary mission is to provide necessary services to the public rather than to generate profit (Guidance, 2011). Public sectors are often supported and financed by taxes under government regulations. The key qualities are public ownership, a service focus, and a non-profit purpose. While the boundary between the public and private sectors can often be blurred, especially in cases of public-private partnerships, the fundamental attribute of the public sector is its dedication to benefiting the public (Hood, 1991; Guidance, 2011; De Vries et al., 2016). Considering the purpose of this study, evaluating capacity-building and the T&D of human resources in this sector is critical to ensuring effective governance and high-quality public services.

1.7.2 Capacity

Capacity refers to the attributes required to take responsibility for the betterment of one's professional and personal life. This encompasses job-specific abilities, such as handling machinery, technological expertise, physical skills, and general skills, such as logic, diagnostics, problem-solving, decision-making, and communication (Kühl, 2009). Similarly, Lafond and Brown (2003) referred to capacity as the ability of individuals, organisations, and society to govern their activities successfully. Capacity development is required at all levels, from the individual to organisational to societal, because it is a critical vehicle for enhancing performance (Horton, 2002). Furthermore, the ability of people, organisations, and society to successfully manage and accomplish their goals forms the basis of good governance. This further emphasises that effective capacity is necessary for effective service delivery, policy implementation, and overall development within the public sector.

1.7.3 Human Capacity Development

Human capacity development is the method of increasing human capabilities through education, training, and the development of skills, knowledge, and perceptions to foster better earning capacity and well-being, as well as attaining sustainable development goals (Kusek, 2010; Cammark, 2017). In layman's terms, it is a process of methodically upskilling people in order to benefit society as a whole. This is achieved by people moving into their respective societies after training and education and adding economic and social value. Given the historical social and economic inequities that contributed to systematically excluding a great number of people from participating in and being part of society in South Africa, the

development of human capabilities is of critical importance, especially in the public sector where a skilled and capable workforce is needed to drive growth in the country.

1.7.4 Attitudes

Attitudes refer to “a psychological tendency that is expressed through assessing a particular entity with a certain degree of favour or disfavour” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Similarly, Srivastav and Das (2013) defined employee attitudes as the positive and negative feelings, observations and views that employees attach to their work. Recognising and understanding these feelings is critical for optimising productivity and engagement in the public sector.

1.7.5 Employee Training

Employee training is a systematic procedure that improves work performance and organisational success by increasing employees’ knowledge, skills, and capacities (Gibb, 2002; Noe et al., 2017). It is an organised process of learning that imparts specific competencies needed for present and future jobs in an organisation. Training mostly focuses on acquiring the skills required to perform specified duties and responsibilities efficiently (Noe et al., 2017). Similarly, Noe and Kodwani (2018) defined employee training as any activity organised and targeted in multiple formats based on the actual job needs of the organisation. Incorporating training as a strategic tool can directly impact public-sector HCD efforts. A well-designed training programme that matches organisational needs is critical for improving and sharpening employee capabilities and efficiency.

1.7.6 Employee Development

According to Sadler-Smith (2009), development is a protracted process that aims to maximise the capacity of skilled employees in order to be more productive in their professions, emphasising the knowledge and skills already acquired. Similarly, according to Dachner et al. (2021), employee development is the process aimed at providing employees with the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) needed to succeed in their present and future roles. This is consistent with professional growth, which is to improve competencies relating to one’s job.

1.7.7 Demographics

According to Greenberg (2004), demographics are the differences among the people who make up an organisation. This includes personality, cognitive style, tenure, job title, and even racial or cultural backgrounds. Demographics are defined by Bell (2008) and Hassan and Ogunkoya (2014) using fundamental characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and educational

level. These characteristics might influence job experience and career objectives (Fletcher, 2010; George, 2010). Effective human resource management (HRM) requires an analysis of the interactions between these different demographic variables and how they affect employees' attitudes, behaviours, and performance.

The definitions mentioned shaped and guided the study by serving as the foundation for the study. Furthermore, the definitions ensure a shared understanding of the terms and direct the study's conceptual framework and literature review.

1.8 Conceptual Framework of the Study

According to Ngulube et al. (2015), a conceptual framework serves as a researcher's road map and directs the research approach. The major concepts, hypotheses, and objectives pertinent to the study are outlined in a conceptual framework when conducting research. Furthermore, it is a crucial step in the research process since it establishes the study's theoretical framework. Figure 1.1 shows the proposed strategic plan guiding the study.

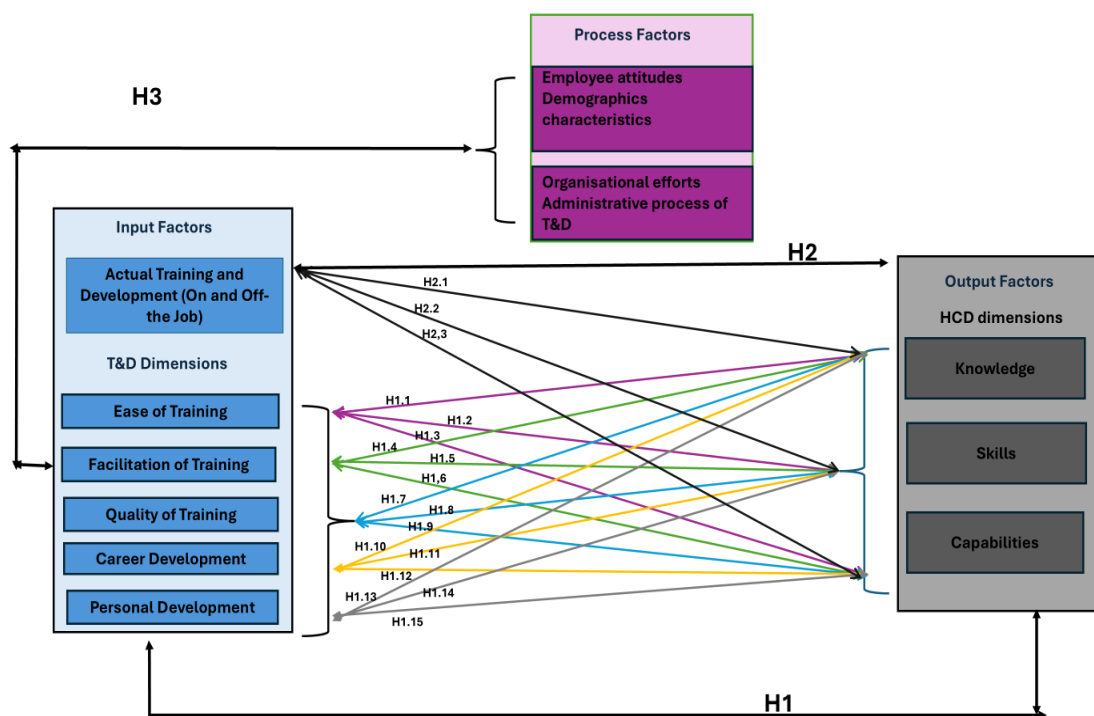


Figure 1.1: Proposed Conceptual framework of the study

Source: The author's compilation

This conceptual framework explores the relationship between T&D programmes and HCD within the South African public sector. The framework incorporates moderating factors such

as employee demographics and attitudes towards T&D programmes. A critical discussion of the proposed framework of the study follows, which draws on existing literature.

1.8.1 Input Variables: Training and Development

In this conceptual framework, T&D is a crucial input factor. The purpose of T&D programmes is to improve employees' competencies so they can effectively contribute to organisational objectives and adjust to the demands of a changing workplace. Usually, these programmes are conducted both inside and outside of the workplace. For this study, T&D has been broken down into the following dimensions:

The *ease of training programme* (ETP) refers to the clarity of training materials used in T&D programmes. This dimension emphasises the accessibility and user-friendliness of training programmes. This includes factors such as the clarity of training materials, the relevance of the content to employees' roles, and the ease of navigation through the training modules. The emphasis is on ensuring employees understand concepts quickly and maximise their learning results without encountering comprehension challenges. In support, Saputra and Ali (2023), posited that a training programme that is easy to access and understand is more likely to engage employees and facilitate learning. This dimension is especially crucial as the South African public sector workforce is comprised of employees with various educational backgrounds and literacy levels. Training materials designed in complex language or jargon-heavy approaches might put off some employees and limit their ability to learn effectively. This may worsen existing workforce disparities and hinder overall HCD efforts. Similarly, van Helsdingen et al. (2010) argued that employees become frustrated, which reduces their willingness to learn due to complex or poorly designed training materials that overwhelm their cognitive capacities. Simple-to-read materials lessen cognitive burdens so employees can concentrate on absorbing and using the skills and knowledge taught.

Facilitation of training programmes (FTP) plays an important role in transforming well-designed training materials into actual learning and skill development for employees. This dimension extends beyond simply presenting knowledge and focuses on the trainer's ability to foster an engaging and effective learning environment. Effective facilitators can create a supportive and engaging learning environment, foster active participation, and provide timely feedback (Ahmed et al., 2019). A well-facilitated training programme can enhance employee motivation, confidence, and overall learning outcomes. Trainers are expected to have an extensive understanding of the topic of training and the specific skills or knowledge they hope

to share. This enables them to effectively answer participant queries and customise lessons to different levels of understanding within the group. The fact that adults learn in a different way than younger employees should not be overlooked. Adult learning concepts, including active involvement, experiential learning, and the significance of relevance to job duties, should be understood by trainers (Knowles et al., 2015). Creating training activities that consider these factors encourages more in-depth learning and memory retention.

Quality of training programme (QTP) refers to the total effectiveness of the training programme in providing employees with the knowledge and skills they need to execute their jobs effectively. Effective T&D programmes are designed on a thorough understanding of the unique KSAs essential for job performance. These key KSAs can be identified through needs assessments such as surveys, job analyses, and supervisor consultations (Yozi, 2018). Training content that properly addresses those needs promotes relevance and maximises knowledge transfer in the workplace. This dimension encompasses a broader range of factors, including the alignment of training content with work tasks, feedback by facilitators, and the overall structure of training. High-quality training programmes are designed to meet specific learning objectives, provide opportunities for practice and application, and equip employees with the skills and knowledge they need to succeed in their roles (Feldstead et al., 2010). Likewise, the training materials should be factually correct and reflect current industry knowledge, best practices, and applicable regulations. Outdated or incorrect information may hinder learning and cause employees to develop incorrect skills or practices. Staying current entails regularly updating training materials and incorporating input from trainers and respondents.

Career development (CD) equips employees with the knowledge, skills, and experiences to advance their chosen professional paths. A T&D programme focusing on career development can improve employee motivation, engagement, and retention within the organisation (Mulvie, 2021). Programmes emphasising leadership skills, strategic thinking, and effective communication help prepare employees for supervisory or managerial positions (Conger, 1999). Similarly, training programmes focusing on specific job functions or emerging technologies can provide employees with the skills they need to advance in their current careers or transition into new roles with more responsibilities (Semwal & Dhyani, 2017).

Personal development (PD) focuses on improving employees' general KSAs outside their immediate professional responsibilities. Examples of these are communication skills, time management, problem-solving, and stress management. These broader skills can help employees professionally and personally (Society for Human Resource Management, 2023).

Fisher et al. (2011) pointed out that training programmes that focus on communication, teamwork, social skills, or conflict resolution can improve employee effectiveness in various work contexts. Furthermore, programmes promoting healthy work-life balance, stress management strategies, or time management skills can benefit employee well-being and increase employee efficiency and job satisfaction (World Health Organization, 2023).

1.8.2 Outcome Variables: Human Capacity Development

Knowledge is one core component of HCD, as it entails employees' theoretical understanding and factual information directly related to their job functions and the organisation's broader objectives. Effective T&D programmes are critical to expanding and solidifying this knowledge base. According to Corral et al. (2021), human capital development is more than just possessing knowledge; it is also about applying it effectively. Well-designed training programmes go beyond simple recall, emphasising relevant knowledge acquisition and applicable to real-world work scenarios. This could include using case studies, simulations, or problem-solving exercises to help employees test their comprehension and improve their critical thinking abilities and knowledge base (Mathee & Turpin, 2019). Several approaches for measuring knowledge acquisition within HCD, such as pre-and post-training assessments, can help measure the progress in factual knowledge gained from T&D programmes. Furthermore, assessing individuals' capacity to use their knowledge to solve job-related challenges presents a more complete overview of their CD.

Skills are a critical component of HCD in the South African public sector. Scholars such as Joyce and Showers (2002) have highlighted skills as the specific knowledge, abilities, and practical aptitudes that allow employees to perform their tasks efficiently. A skilled public workforce is critical for providing essential services, developing sound policies, and ultimately improving the well-being of citizens. The skill sets required for effective HCD in the public sector fall into hard and soft skills. According to Laker and Powell (2011), hard skills include technical knowledge and job-specific competencies.

In contrast, soft skills comprise a broader range of interpersonal and communication skills. Smith (2023) emphasised the need for soft skills such as effective communication, teamwork, problem-solving, and critical thinking for public servants. DHET (2023) emphasised that effective skills development initiatives for the public sector must consider the workforce's specific needs and address current skill shortages. This could include upskilling current employees with cutting-edge technical skills or reskilling them to adapt to changing job

demands (Chinn et al., 2020). Furthermore, incorporating soft skills development into T&D programmes ensures that public servants have the interpersonal and communication skills required to navigate challenging situations, collaborate effectively, and ultimately deliver services that meet the needs of citizens (SHRM, 2023).

Capabilities are defined as the ability to use one's knowledge and skills effectively to complete challenging work tasks and address real-world challenges (World Bank, 2020). Capabilities are more than just knowing how to do something; they include analytical thinking, problem-solving skills, and adapting to changing circumstances. These capabilities are essential for public servants to make sound decisions, manage projects efficiently, and deliver services that meet citizens' demands. Investing in developing capacities in the public sector necessitates focusing on core analytical skills. This is consistent with Charan et al. (2011), who emphasised the significance of developing these skills for effective leadership and managing employees in organisations.

1.8.3 Process Factors

Employee demographic information is integral when planning training and developmental activities. These include measurable aspects of the workforce, such as age, race, gender, education level, and years of work experience (Amegayibor, 2021). Understanding these demographics is critical since a varied workforce with differing educational backgrounds, ages, and technical proficiency may require training programmes in various formats (SHRM, 2023). Schmidt (2009) contended that organisations must consider the various job titles, work experiences, skills, capacities, and learning styles of each learner to allocate the organisation's training resources fairly and effectively to satisfy the needs of all learners in the workplace. For example, younger employees may prefer online learning modules, whereas senior employees may benefit from instructor-led workshops that include hands-on practice. Thus, analysing demographics can help uncover potential skill gaps within specific demographic groups. Consideration of demographics ensures that training programmes are inclusive and adapt to the workforce's different requirements and learning styles. This could include providing training materials in several languages or accessible features for employees with disabilities (Public Service Commission, South Africa, 2017).

Employee attitudes include feelings, beliefs, and perceptions about their work, training opportunities, and the organisation (Spector, 2021). Understanding employee attitudes is critical for maximising the impact of T&D programmes since positive attitudes towards T&D

opportunities are associated with higher motivation, engagement, and readiness to learn new skills (Joo et al., 2017). In contrast, negative attitudes can contribute to resistance during training and hinder learning outcomes. Additionally, employee attitudes about the relevance and value of training programmes substantially impact their readiness to apply newly learned knowledge and skills to their work tasks (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010). Programmes that address employee concerns and illustrate the practical application of taught skills are more likely to result in the successful transfer of learning.

Positive employee attitudes are associated with enhanced job performance, higher retention rates, and a more productive workforce (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). A T&D programme can help to build a more satisfied and efficient public servant by addressing employee problems while fostering an optimal environment for learning. Demographics and employee attitudes are very relevant in the South African public sector. The public sector workforce is changing demographically, with a growing youth population joining the workforce and experienced professionals approaching retirement (National Planning Commission, 2017). Furthermore, historical inequities may result in unequal levels of educational achievement and technological proficiency in the workforce. Addressing demographic concerns through targeted training programmes is critical to developing a trained and capable public service.

Organisational efforts play an important role in the multifaceted relationship of T&D and HCD. These efforts include a variety of strategic initiatives, processes, and cultural practices that influence the environment in which T&D takes place and the resulting impact on employee capacities. Such efforts act as moderators, shaping the strength and direction of the relationship between T&D and HCD. Alignment with the overall organisational plan is critical. According to Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), human resource functions, including T&D, should work together strategically to achieve organisational goals when T&D activities are easily integrated into the overall organisational plan, their impact on HCD increases. Furthermore, Schein (1992) argued that organisational culture substantially impacts employee behaviour and attitudes towards learning and development. A culture emphasising growth, innovation, and continual development creates an ideal environment for T&D to thrive.

Leadership commitment is another critical organisational effort. Bass and Avolio (1994) stated that transformational leadership motivates employees to go above and beyond, fostering a learning and development culture (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). Leaders prioritising employee growth and development are more likely to invest in effective T&D activities and allow employees to utilise their newly gained abilities. Furthermore, robust knowledge management

systems are required to maximise the return on investment in T&D. Organisations may foster a learning culture by promoting knowledge exchange and retention, allowing individuals to continually upgrade their skills (Gaviria-Marin et al., 2019). In essence, organisational efforts act as catalysts for translating T&D investments into tangible HCD outcomes.

Administrative processes underpinning T&D have a substantial impact on HCD. These processes cover various activities, from requirements assessment and programme design to implementation, evaluation, and record-keeping (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Bartolomé et al., 2022). Effective administration ensures that T&D activities are aligned with organisational goals, delivered efficiently, and thoroughly reviewed. Administrative processes are especially important in the public sector due to its complicated structure and limited resources (Dike & Onyekwelu, 2020). Efficient administration is critical for maximising the return on investment in T&D, guaranteeing fair access to opportunities, and communicating the importance of human capital development to stakeholders (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Bartolomé et al., 2022).

The administrative process moderates the relationship between T&D and HCD. Solid administrative systems help training programmes function better by making it easier to accurately identify needs, deliver programmes, and conduct timely evaluations (Dike & Onyekwelu, 2020). In contrast, administrative inefficiencies can impede the effect of T&D on HCD by restricting access to training opportunities, lowering participant satisfaction, and delaying programme implementation.

Ultimately, this conceptual framework provides a concise and thorough guideline for analysing the relationship between T&D and HCD, which guides this research. Using this framework, one can identify the elements that contribute to or hinder the success of public-sector T&D programmes and make suggestions for improvement. Furthermore, by analysing employee attitudes towards T&D, methods for enhancing employee motivation and engagement, organisational culture and values can be determined. The performance of the provincial government in achieving national objectives through the T&D organised at the provincial level can be evaluated. Subsequently, this can result in more trained and motivated public servants with enhanced human capacity for effective service delivery.

1.9 Significance of the Study

This study holds significant value in broadening the understanding and improving practices related to HCD within the South African public sector. This study proposes a comprehensive

framework for HCD in the public sector. This framework moves beyond traditional approaches by incorporating various dimensions that influence learning and development effectiveness. This study specifically addresses the unique challenges and opportunities faced by the South African public sector by considering the historical inequalities that resulted from the apartheid era. This study acknowledges these contextual realities and offers practical and relevant insights for policymakers and practitioners designing T&D programmes that effectively improve individual skills, knowledge, and capabilities within the South African context.

This study adds to existing knowledge by investigating the intricate relationship between T&D and HCD in the context of the Mbombela government. By empirically analysing this relationship, the study seeks to understand better how various dimensions of T&D influence individual attitude and performance, thereby contributing to overall public service efficiency. Furthermore, investigating the relationship between multiple dimensions of T&D and HCD leads to an improved understanding of the elements that influence capacity building. The study contributes to existing knowledge of the varied effects of training programmes on different employee groups by analysing employee attitudes towards T&D based on demographic characteristics. Ultimately, this study aims to provide evidence-based insights on optimising T&D programmes to strengthen public sector human capacity.

1.10 Study Outline

The study consists of five chapters, and the chapters are outlined thus:

Chapter One: Overview of the Study

This chapter established the foundation for the study. It delved into the critical role of T&D in HCD (HCD) within the public sector. The chapter further identified the challenges of the South African public sector in relation to HCD. The chapter then outlined the central problem statement that this research aims to address. Furthermore, the overall aim of the study is clearly defined. Following this, the chapter presented specific research objectives, the key research questions that guided the investigation, and the conceptual framework.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter establishes a strong theoretical foundation for the study by delving into existing research on T&D and HCD within the public sector. It begins by exploring the human capital theory (HCT) and its connection to HCD initiatives. Following the historical context of T&D practices in South Africa, the chapter deepens the discussion by examining the core concepts of both T&D and HCD. Critically analysing their roles in public sector effectiveness, the

chapter considers the potential benefits and challenges of implementing these strategies. Furthermore, by drawing upon research on employee attitudes and demographics, the chapter explores how these factors might influence the impact of T&D and HCD initiatives. This comprehensive review of literature on T&D, HCD, and the HCT, as applied to the public sector, provides a strong foundation for the subsequent study chapters.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodological approach adopted for this study. It details the research design, including the specific sampling methods and data collection techniques. The chapter also addresses the crucial aspects of data quality by discussing the measures taken to ensure the findings' validity and reliability. Furthermore, the chapter explores the various statistical measures that were utilised to analyse the collected data. This section clarifies how the data was interpreted and transformed into meaningful insights. Finally, the chapter emphasises the paramount ethical considerations throughout the research process. It details the specific protocols followed for data collection and safekeeping to ensure the privacy and confidentiality of respondents.

Chapter Four: Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter unveils the key findings of the study. The data are presented clearly and concisely, using tables and graphs to visualise the results effectively. The chapter begins by presenting the self-developed research instrument's confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results and reliability. Following this, the chapter delves into analysing data collected from participating employees. This data is meticulously categorised and presented according to the corresponding sections within the research questionnaire.

Chapter Five: Discussion, Recommendations and Conclusions

This chapter discusses and synthesises the study's findings in relation to those of other researchers. The discussion aims to illustrate the significance of the results obtained in Chapter Four with respect to the objectives of the study. As such, the findings are compared and contrasted with those of other researchers in the field. The discussions use the studied literature to interpret the findings. Furthermore, recommendations and conclusions based on the findings are provided.

1.11 Chapter Summary

A general introduction and a statement of the research problem were provided in the chapter. Specific focus was placed on employee attitudes towards T&D programmes offered by the government as a moderating factor for HCD, as well as the impact of such training on HCD in the Mbombela public sector. Furthermore, the research questions, objectives, hypotheses, conceptual framework, and research methodology were provided. The next chapter will delve into a critical examination of previous research on T&D and HCD.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter emphasised the study's intent by providing its aims, objectives, and significance. This chapter provides an in-depth review of existing and relevant literature on the role of training and development (T&D) towards human capacity development (HCD), specifically focusing on the Mbombela provincial government. Through a literature review, this chapter critically assesses and integrates existing literature to determine the current level of knowledge, identify research gaps, and direct the path of this study. This literature review contributes to a deeper understanding of the subject matter. It provides solid foundations for the research chapters examining various theoretical approaches, research findings, and best practices in T&D, HCD, and employee attitudes.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Several theoretical frameworks can guide research in the context of T&D and HCD; however, this study focuses on the human capital theory (HCT) as this theory underpins both study variables.

The HCT, developed by economist Theodore Schultz (1961) and revised by Gary Becker in 1967, as cited by Becker (2009), holds that human capital, which includes an organisation's workforce's knowledge, skills, abilities, and experiences, is an important indicator of organisational performance. This capital extends beyond technical skills to include employee motivation, commitment, and effective collaboration (Jeffery et al., 2005). Fitz-enz (2010) distinguishes between intrinsic employee characteristics and the ability to learn and adapt (imagination and aptitude). Organisations that recognise the value of human capital can create a learning environment that encourages ongoing development, resulting in a more productive and flexible workforce (Becker, 1993).

The HCT emphasises the importance of investing in education and training as a tool for human capital development. Goode (1959) described human capital as the accumulation of knowledge, skills, and expertise contributing to individual productivity at work. Lynch (1991) posited that three methods contribute to the development of human capital: formal education (where a person dedicates his entire life to learning), on-the-job training (OJT) (where a person receives post-school training related to the job, within the employee's workplace); and off-the-job training (OffJT) (where a person receives post-school training related to the job, outside the employee's immediate work environment (Sisson, 2001; Noe et al., 2017; Ahadi & Jacobs,

2017). Additionally, Blundell et al. (1999) argued that there are two main elements of human capital that strongly complement each other, namely early ability (irrespective of whether learned or natural) and skills acquired through formal schooling or OJT.

According to the HCT, education and training boost productivity by providing employees with practical knowledge and skills, which increases their long-term revenue by raising their lifetime earnings (Fixous & Charalambuos, 2016). Studies have shown that human capital, particularly education and training, is important for employee and organisational performance (Becker, 1993; Mincer, 1974; Nemeth, 2017). Therefore, the HCT aims to clarify the benefits of education and training as a type of investment in human resources, and the main idea is that humans are viewed as a form of capital for development (Becker, 1993; Benhabib & Spiegel, 1994; Aliaga, 2001; Hendricks, 2002; Engelbrecht, 2003). School and education are planned investments that educate the workforce and raise the efficiency of individuals and organisations while encouraging global growth and development. Similarly, according to Becker (2009), people can actively prioritise their education and skills development, further enhancing their efficiency and prospective earnings. This is in line with the theory's emphasis that the training of individuals should be viewed as a planned investment, similar to how capital funds are allocated in traditional business environments.

The fundamental idea of HCT is that human learning capacities are valuable, just as other resources are used in making products and services (Lucas, 1990). When used by firms, the HCT contends that organisations that invest in employee education and training are likely to become more productive and competent than those that do not, giving them a competitive advantage. According to Piaget (2005), education views learning as a cognitive process in which people build knowledge via interactions with their surroundings. Additionally, the HCT supports the notion that employees' knowledge and abilities may be enhanced by investment in education, training, or learning, which is supported by modern researchers on employee development and learning (Grant, 1996; Hatch & Dyer, 2004). Furthermore, Ulrich et al. (2005) argued that effective employee education should focus on developing core competencies and capabilities.

This theory dramatically impacts employees since it emphasises investing in their careers. People can develop competencies that improve their career prospects by participating in education and training. Additionally, higher levels of productivity and output are strongly associated with higher earnings when skills are improved. Workers with a wider range of skills and expertise can access various employment options because their capabilities make them

desirable candidates for various positions, promoting career diversity and upward progression. This adaptability is especially important in today's continuously changing employment market, reiterating that ongoing training is necessary to remain competitive.

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2019), the public sector is a critical driver of economic growth by providing essential infrastructure, regulating markets, and investing in human capital; therefore, this theory is beneficial for promoting T&D and HCD of South African public sector employees. Investing in public sector employees' T&D can boost their expertise, skills, and abilities, contributing significantly to the country's development (Becker, 1964; Chand & Katou, 2017). Employees have all the capabilities to function as individuals, employees, and public servants.

According to the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA, 2019), the South African public sector is confronted with various HCD issues, including skills gaps within the workforce. According to the South African National Development Plan (SANDP) (2011), a skills gap refers to the mismatch between the skills of individuals and the skills required in the work environment. This problem frequently arises in the public sector as a result of poor education and training systems that are out of touch with labour market demands. This gap between the abilities required by organisations and those held by employees has been well documented in the NDP (NDP, 2011).

According to the Department of Public Service and Administration (2018), another issue is the problem of poorly designed T&D programmes, which impedes the optimal development of employee competencies. According to Altarawneh (2005), many T&D programmes fail to produce the desired results due to poor design and misalignment with organisational needs. Adding to these issues is the problem of low levels of motivation and involvement among public sector personnel (DPSA, 2019). Susomrith and Coetzer (2015) revealed that the lack of employee participation in training programmes is linked to various factors, including inadequate access to opportunities for development, unfavourable working conditions, and the prevalent sense of employment insecurity. These issues adversely affect the quality of service delivery and hinder the nation's overall development. Using the HCT, the public sector can invest in customised employee T&D initiatives aligned with organisational needs to enhance their talents, knowledge, and competencies and deliver public services. This theory supports this notion, emphasising that investments in education, training, and advancement can enhance individual and organisational human capital, leading to better output, effectiveness, and rapid economic growth (Mincer, 1958; Schultz, 1961; Nemeth, 2017).

Notably, the South African government can conduct training programmes that concentrate on enhancing the capacity and knowledge of personnel working in the public sector in crucial fields such as governance, public financial management, and service provision (National Treasury, 2020). Such initiatives could be created to support public sector employees' career development and motivation while enhancing their human capital. The government can also offer incentives, such as scholarships, grants, and study leave, to motivate employees in the public sector to continue their education and training. These incentives should be aligned with individual and NDP, which can assist in enhancing employee human capital and advancing the nation by improving employees' skills.

2.3 Conceptualisation of Training and Development

Employee T&D has grown exponentially in the last few decades, closely correlating with the rising needs of the modern labour market. As organisations strive to improve the productivity of the workforce, this expansion is linked to the need for employees at all levels to improve their existing job-related competencies and acquire the skills and knowledge required for taking on new jobs. Furthermore, considering the constantly shifting nature of work, this evolution is critical for individuals to continue to advance in their jobs (Armstrong & Taylor, 2006).

Numerous organisational management principles emphasise human resources' importance in encouraging any business venture's success. This state of mind is genuine, as evidenced by the realisation that the success of organisations is invariably dependent on the competence of devoted HRD experts (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). Employee development is not an afterthought in this context; instead, it is a necessary component for both short-term profitability and long-term success of firms, whether profit-driven or socially conscious (Hameed & Waheed, 2011)

Training and development are frequently used interchangeably but vary in meaning. According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), training is an organised attempt by an organisation to foster the learning, retention, and transfer of job-related behaviour. In contrast, development is the growth of the individual with regard to capability, knowledge, attitude, and competence. Training and development are structured education and development programmes for employees, either as individuals or in a group, with the primary objective of benefiting both the worker and the firm (Heathfield, 2012). One way to fully grasp HRD-related areas, such as training and development, is to explore related definitions (Swanson, 2001).

Historically, Black (1961) defined training as “imparting job knowledge to employees so that they can carry out orders smoothly, efficiently and cooperatively”. Kllatt et al. (1985) defined training as a:

A systematic way of altering behaviour to prepare an employee for a job or to improve the employee's performance on the present job and development is preparing an employee for improving conceptual, decision-making, and interpersonal skills in complex and a structured situation. (Kllatt et al., 1985)

Additionally, Kirkpatrick (1993) posited that training refers “to the teaching of specific knowledge and skills required on the individual's present job”.

Building on the aforementioned historical definitions of training, Diamantidis and Chatzoglou (2014) conceptualised training in the modern era as the process of gaining knowledge and abilities, which results in behavioural and attitude changes and enhances performance. Moreover, training aims to change an individual's behaviour in relation to performing their work, completing necessary activities, and, most importantly, achieving the organisation's goals (Noe, 2020). According to Hall and Theriot (2016) training refers to the instructions offered to individuals in order to master a specific profession or field. There are two types of training, famously known as general training and special training. General training pertains to training methods that focus on abilities that may be utilised in most workplaces, such as learning to improve reading and writing and communicating efficiently. Alternatively, specific training refers to training in which individuals gain information and abilities relevant to their workplace, such as knowing the organisation's budget or its systems for performance management (Warnich et al., 2018).

Development, in contrast, takes a broader and more forward-looking approach. It seeks to upgrade an employee's competencies and prepare them to assume future organisational roles or responsibilities (SHRM, 2023). Developmental activities extend beyond the immediate job requirements, providing individuals with the knowledge, skills, and behaviours required for career development or adapting to changing organisational needs. Long-term development programmes may include leadership training, mentoring and coaching, job rotation or cross-training opportunities, and educational support programmes. According to Brown and Sitzmann (2011), employee development is important for encouraging employee growth and preparing them for future organisational roles.

In contrast, training is essential for ensuring employees have the skills to perform their current jobs effectively. By distinguishing between the two, public sector organisations can better understand how to design and implement effective programmes that suit their needs. Additionally, development is the methodical effort that directs an individual's skills and knowledge for one's development or future employment. Developmental activities ought to continue throughout an employee's career and should be an intrinsic element of their position. Considering this, T&D are the elements and processes involved in the planning, creation, execution, and evaluation of learning programmes in organisations (Warnich et al., 2015).

This study emphasises Goldstein and Ford's (2002) and Warnich et al.'s (2015) definitions of T&D because they differentiate between similar yet distinct concepts. Training focuses on enhancing job-related skills and behaviours, whereas development focuses on advancing oneself and growing an individual's capabilities. This definition was chosen because it emphasises the crucial nature of T&D in organisational settings. Similarly, Dachner et al. (2021) posited that T&D are an organised measure to enhance employees' knowledge, skills, and capabilities to improve work performance and encourage personal growth. T&D refers to a wide range of activities to improve employee knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes (KSAs) to improve individual and organisational performance (Noe et al., 2019). However, within this broad conceptualisation, a detailed understanding of the core components of education, development activities, and learning is essential for creating and implementing effective T&D programmes.

Education is described as the formal process of gaining knowledge and skills, usually through online courses, formal education settings, or universities (Armstrong, 2021). It offers a fundamental background in general knowledge that prepares people for various careers. Regarding T&D, education gives employees the basic theoretical knowledge and understanding they need to do their tasks well (Noe, 2019). Barrow (2008) defines education as the intentional pursuit of knowledge. As per Rieckmann's (2018) perspective, education entails the acquisition of attitudes, aptitudes, and beliefs through environmental impact, culminating in developing a specific level of understanding regarding particular phenomena. Thus, according to Brottman et al. (2020), "an educated person ought to be equipped with somebody of knowledge along with some form of conceptual scheme to raise their levels of knowledge above the level of a collection of unrelated facts". This study employs education as a targeted initiative to enhance skills of public servants in South Africa. Effective education is important for equipping public servants with the core competencies needed to perform

organisational tasks properly. However, the South African education system has been subject to severe criticism for its inability to adequately prepare public servants for their roles. In light of this, organisations are compelled to prioritise educational initiatives that synergise with training programmes, thus fostering a more comprehensive approach to human capital development. According to Warnich et al. (2014), training is a process by which people gain competencies to aid in the accomplishment of organisational goals. According to this perspective, training is designed to enhance individual proficiency in their educational roles, thereby enabling personnel to be more effective in the workplace. By acquiring new competencies and information employees can improve both task and organisational goals.

Several studies about employee development reflect on the construction and effectiveness of traditional, formal programmes (Garofano & Salas, 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2007; Jacobs & Park, 2009; Bell et al., 2017). According to Hezlett and McCauley (2001), employee development is “the expansion of an individual’s capacity to function effectively in their present or future job and work organisation.” Formal education, work experiences, professional relationships, personality, skill, and ability assessments are among the development activities supporting employees’ professional development (Noe et al., 2014). Formal development programmes are planned with precise goals, learning objectives, assessment tools, and expectations. The programmes include classroom instruction, online courses, and university degree programmes (Chen & Klimoski, 2007). The research generally holds that these programmes will result in employees who can satisfy human capital requirements.

2.4 History of Employee Training and Development in South Africa

The history of employee T&D in South Africa uncovers an uncertain landscape influenced by political, economic, and social influences. The apartheid legacy is a severely segregated workforce with significant skills gaps, notably among the Black majority population, who were denied access to quality education and training programmes (Gamble, 2021). Following the end of apartheid in 1994, the focus of T&D shifted towards redressing these injustices and empowering Black workers (Badat, 2008). The new government enacted legislative changes to foster a more inclusive and skill-driven T&D system. The 1994 SDA established an employer-funded levy system to assist skill development projects. To further this, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), adopted in 1995, further established a standardised and quality-assured framework for vocational education and training (SAQA, n.d; Akoojee, 2010; Kevvy, 2013). Those initiatives and trade unions campaigning for better training opportunities

for their members resulted in a dramatic transformation in the T&D environment (Meyer & Bushney, 2007).

However, the early emphasis on redressing historical imbalances posed obstacles. Some T&D programmes were designed and implemented without considering the changing needs of the South African economy (Erasmus et al., 2009). Furthermore, insufficient resources and the enormous extent of the skills gap hampered the broader effectiveness of such programmes (Erasmus & Breiers, 2009). The turn of the millennium witnessed a renewed emphasis on aligning T&D with the demands of a growing knowledge-based economy. The government prioritised strengthening the workforce's critical thinking, problem-solving, and innovation abilities (RSA, 2020). Public-private partnerships emerged as a crucial driver of T&D activities, with organisations such as the Workplace Learning Council working with industry stakeholders to provide relevant skill programmes (Cloete & Mokgoro, 1995).

Despite these advances, major challenges persist. The South African T&D system continues to face challenges, such as unequal access to quality training opportunities, particularly for historically marginalised groups (Erasmus et al., 2009). Furthermore, the rapid rate of technological advancement calls for ongoing adaptation of T&D programmes to ensure that the workforce has the skills needed for success in today's digital era (OECD, 2019). Simply, the history of T&D in South Africa is one of continuous transformation. From post-apartheid restitution initiatives to the current emphasis on developing a knowledge-based workforce, the T&D landscape continues to evolve in response to the country's social, economic, and technological growth (Bhorat, 2004; Papier et al., 2023). Understanding historical events is critical for developing and implementing effective T&D programmes that meet the unique challenges and opportunities confronting South Africa's workforce in the 21st century.

2.5 Legislations that Govern Training, Skills and Development in South Africa

In the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995), the government focused on revamping the public sector. This transition was motivated by the goal of a people-centred and people-driven government marked by the ideals of fairness, excellence, high ethical standards, and professionalism (Maphunye et al., 2014). Training and education for public servants is vital in reforming the public sector (Russell & Bvuma, 2001). The South African government played a key role in elevating training and employee development to a primary objective on the South African development agenda. Implementing legislative training measures, such as the SDA number 97 of 1998 and SDLA, has led many organisations to re-

evaluate their contributions to education training and specific skills development. The following section gives the various legislations that the South African government adopted that align with the constitutional provision of individual right to education (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

2.5.1 Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998)

Various legislative frameworks influence the landscape of T&D in South Africa's public sector. The most notable is the SDA No. 97 of 1998 (DoL, 1998; Tshilongamulenzhe, 2012). The South African economy faces many problems, one of which is skills development. The SDA was enacted in order to guarantee that the nation establishes a strategic human development approach in hopes of improving its human capital. The SDA No. 97 of 1998 is a critical piece of legislation that governs T&D in South Africa. It was implemented to combat skills gaps, promote skills development, and ensure the availability of a competent workforce to promote economic and societal growth (Coetzee, 2013). The SDA, according to Tshilongamulenzhe (2012) and Coetzee (2013), serves as the statutory framework governing skills development initiatives in South Africa. This Act offers a comprehensive framework for training the skills of the South African workforce, with a particular emphasis on improving workers' quality of life and increasing workplace efficiency (Naong, 2009). This translates directly into better public service delivery through a more trained and empowered workforce. The SDA establishes a multi-layered institutional structure (Davids & Esau, 2012). The NSA serves as the advisory body of the Minister of Labour on T&D policy and strategy formulation (NSA, 2022). Importantly, the Act establishes Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs). These industry-specific committees establish skills plans for their particular sectors, guaranteeing alignment with the national skills development strategy (NSA, 2020). This sectoral approach enables customised T&D interventions that address the unique demands of several public service domains.

The Act establishes crucial financial and implementation methods in addition to legal frameworks. To support skill development programmes and improve occupational competency in the workforce, the NSF acts as a primary source of funding (Kraak et al., 2013). Similarly, the Labour Centre and the Skills Development Planning Unit (SDPU) within the Department of Labour (DoL) were created through the Act (Kraak et al., 2013). The SDPU is essential in identifying national skills development needs, including public sector-specific needs, by investigating and evaluating labour market trends. Conversely, labour centres serve as hubs for

service delivery, offering public sector organisations helpful advice and assistance in creating and executing successful T&D initiatives (Mpehle, 2012).

Nel et al. (2016) posited that the SDA serves numerous functions, including developing the capabilities of the South African workforce, resulting in enhanced standards of living, increased employment opportunities, and labour mobility. It also aims to boost self-employment and make social services more accessible. The Act encourages labour-market investment in education and training to optimise the return on such investment. It encourages employers to develop environments that promote active learning in the workplace and provide employees with opportunities to learn new skills (Nel et al., 2016).

The Act further emphasises the necessity of providing work experience to new entrants into the labour market and assisting persons with difficulty obtaining work. It also encourages employees and non-employees to enrol in learnerships and other training programmes, recognising the importance of ongoing education and skills development (Nel et al., 2008). Furthermore, this Act intends to promote workplace learning, allowing personnel to gain knowledge and experience relevant to their profession.

The Act establishes a statutory framework for developing and strengthening the skills of the South African workforce, particularly public servants. It requires the formation of Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) to ensure the delivery of quality and relevant training in accordance with national qualifications. By promoting a skills-based economy, the SDA directly promotes the development of public sector professionals, thereby improving their capabilities and contributions to effective service delivery. The Act's emphasis on learning and apprenticeships is also consistent with HCD policies, assuring a stream of trained workers for the public sector. Essentially, the SDA serves as a cornerstone for developing a competent and trained public service workforce.

2.5.2 Skills Development Levies Act (No. 9 of 1999)

One of the main pillars of South Africa's skills development plan is the SDLA. This law, which was passed in 1999, required employers to pay a skills development fee (RSA, 1999). According to Patterson et al. (2014) the SDLA's levy-grant mechanism is a crucial component that requires employers to pay a mandatory levy, which can be reclaimed as a grant upon the delivery of accredited training to employees. In support, Hobo (2016) posits that the primary objective of this levy is to promote the investment of quality T&D of the workforce by the organisation.

According to Swanepoel et al. (2008) prior to the enactment of this legislation, several concerns were raised regarding the inadequacy of organisational training provision for employees. The SDLA directly addresses this concern by introducing and developing a targeted funding mechanism, enabling public organisations to access resources for personnel development programmes. As a result, the NSF and levy grant programmes will be integrated as key drivers to ensure meaningful skills development outcomes.

The SDLA is one such law, which mandates that organisations with yearly payrolls surpassing R500 000 pay a 1% levy of their annual payroll into the skills development levy (SDL) (Tshilongamulenzhe, 2012). The SDL funds support employees' T&D initiatives in both the public and private industries (Tshilongamulenzhe, 2012). Additionally, workplace skill plans and yearly training records must be created by employers and presented to the appropriate SETA (Plan, 2016).

The Act, however, does more than impose a levy. It also allows employers to reclaim some of their levy contributions. The SETAs play an important part in this process as they monitor skills development in particular economic areas. They are crucial in ensuring that training programmes are customised to the requirements of organisations and the labour market (Skae & Pearse, 2021). Employers who commit to skill development through approved training programmes may be entitled to reimbursement from their respective SETA (DoL, 1998). According to the Labour Guide (2017), an employer must be registered under the SDLA, make levy payments on time, and have a skills development facilitator to qualify for reimbursement. A work skills plan and yearly training report must also be filed by the SETA-imposed date, which is normally near the end of April. This reimbursement method creates a positive feedback cycle, motivating organisations to invest in their employees while ensuring that levy funds are used efficiently for actual skill development activities.

By imposing this levy, this Act guarantees an allocated funding source for improving public employees' capacities (Labour Guide, 2017). This, in turn, contributes to the goals of T&D and HCD by financing training programmes, learnerships, and other developmental activities. Essentially, this Act serves as an engine for driving the skills and competencies of public servants, therefore contributing to the overall effectiveness and efficiency of the public service.

2.5.3 National Qualifications Framework Act 67 of 2008

The South African NQF was formed in October 1995 under the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (Act 58 of 1995) by the first democratically elected post-apartheid

administration (Keevy, 2013). The NQF was created as a comprehensive system with a strong transformational agenda to promote lifelong learning (SAQA, 2001; Keevy, 2013). The NQF was implemented to foster the relationship between training and education and address the ongoing crisis of adequate training and education in South Africa (Swanepoel et al., 2008; Tshilongamulenzhe, 2012). This Act provides various sectors and levels in the country with an extensive structure for developing, registering, and certifying qualifications. It seeks to promote a standardised and quality-driven T&D system to ensure that qualifications are recognised in the country and linked with industry requirements (Swanepoel et al., 2008). According to the SAQA (2011), the NQF Act No. 67 of 2008 founded the ideas, structures, and procedures of the NQF. This Act establishes SAQA as the body responsible for directing and managing the NQF's execution. SAQA ensures that qualifications and part qualifications are registered, quality certified, and comply with NQF regulations (Coetzee, 2004). The NQF is arranged in levels, as depicted in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: The NQF Structure (Presten, 2020)

National Qualifications Framework				
NQF Level	Sub-Framework and Qualifications Type			
10	Higher Education Qualification Sub Framework (HEQSF)	Doctoral Degree	*	Occupational Qualifications Sub-Frameworks
		Doctoral Degree (Professional)		
9		Master's degree	*	
		Master's degree (Professional)		
8		Bachelor Honour's Degree	Occupational Certificate (Level 8)	
		Postgraduate Diploma		
		Bachelor's Degree		
7		Bachelor's Degree	Occupational Certificate (Level 7)	
		Advanced Diploma		
6		Diploma	Occupational Certificate (Level 6)	
		Advanced Certificate		
5		Higher certificate	Occupational Certificate (Level 5)	
4	General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub Framework (GFETQSF)	National Certificate Grade 12	Occupational Certificate (Level 4)	
3		Intermediate Certificate Grade 11	Occupational Certificate (Level 3)	
2		Elementary Certificate Grade 10	Occupational Certificate (Level 2)	
1		General Certificate Grade 9	Occupational Certificate (Level 1)	

According to Table 2.1, the NQF is divided into 10 levels of learning attainment, which are listed from one to 10 in descending order. A level descriptor, often known as a statement of learning attainment, explains each level on the NQF (SAQA, 2012). The NQF level descriptors guarantee learning cohesion and progression and facilitate the allocation of qualifications to

specific levels within the South African NQF (Bolton et al., 2020). A standardised system of qualifications is established for all areas of education and training under the NQF. According to Preston (2020), three separate sub-frameworks, the Higher Education Qualification Sub-Framework (HEQSF), the General and Further Education and Training Qualifications Sub-Framework (GFETQSF), and the Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework, exist within this framework that classifies qualifications according to their learning objectives and intended audience.

The HEQSF qualifications emphasise academic learning and advanced skill development. They are intended to prepare individuals for professional occupations or postgraduate studies (Bolton et al., 2020). The HEQSF qualifications are primarily intended for those who have completed high school and may hold a National Senior Certificate or equivalent qualification. In contrast, the GFETQSF credentials have a broader focus, including academic knowledge and practical skill development. They cater to people seeking vocational training, job preparation skills, or lifelong learning possibilities (Bolton et al., 2020). The GFETQSF qualifications are designed for a broader audience, including those who have not completed their secondary education or want to upskill or reskill for new professional opportunities. Preston (2020) also argued that the Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework addresses qualifications unique to a given trade or occupation. Workplace learning, apprenticeships, and other types of vocational training are ways to gain Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework qualifications. These qualifications give students the abilities and information required to carry out specific tasks.

To build onto this framework, skills programmes—a subset of it—are essential for enhancing the capacities of the labour force. According to the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO) (n.d) and Seshoka (2020), the term “skills programme” refers to an occupationally orientated learning programme that allows students to gain knowledge and skills for a variety of occupations and accumulate credits towards a full or partial qualification listed on the NQF. A national skills programme is established by facilitators, a community of industry practitioners and experts, and registered on the QCTO database.

Fear et al. (2014) also argued that skills programmes are organised learning experiences that help individuals develop specific skills, knowledge, and abilities needed for work or professional growth. These programmes guarantee that learners obtain qualifications valued and acknowledged by the industry because they align with the NQF levels (Coetzee, 2013). These programmes can range from short-term, targeted training courses to long-term

learnerships and apprenticeships. Flexibility is an important component of skills programmes, as they can be customised to match the unique requirements of individuals, employers, and sectors. This versatility enables many learning opportunities, from foundational skills to advanced competencies (Kotze, 2012). Furthermore, skills programmes are frequently related to occupational standards, which specify the performance requirements for a certain employment role. By adhering to these requirements, skills programmes ensure learners develop the competencies required to succeed in their chosen careers.

According to DHET (2021) South Africa's socioeconomic objectives are closely tied to the development of a skilled workforce, with the National Skills Development Strategy serving as a key driver of this agenda. This strategy emphasises the need to improve the quality of education and training so as to increase access to opportunities for underrepresented groups (DHET, 2021). This is critical in addressing the country's human capacity development challenges.

2.5.4 White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (WPPSTE)

The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (WPPSTE) (1997) is a South African government gazette that seeks to develop a thorough framework for reforming public service education and training. The WPPSTE introduces a novel national policy framework aimed at enhancing public service delivery through targeted training and educational initiatives (WPPSTE, 1998). This strategic approach seeks to align public service training with international best practices and emerging trends in human resource development. A key focus area is the development of human resources and organisational capacity, with a particular emphasis on redirecting resources towards service provision, especially in disadvantaged areas (RSA, 1997; UNDP, 2000). Recognising the limitations of training as a panacea for organisational challenges, the WPPSTE advocates for a systematic integration of education and training within broader human resource development strategies. This commitment to training and development is underscored by the governments pledge to empower both the public service and individual employees through transformative learning experiences (RSA, 1997).

As noted by the DPSA (1998) the WPPSTE framework seeks to foster a culture of continuous learning within the public service, thereby improving service delivery and addressing skills shortages in critical areas. The WPPSTE emphasis on developing national training and education framework, improving training quality, and increasing access to opportunities aligns

with the broader goals of promoting socioeconomic development and transformation (RSA, 1997). According to Swanepoel et al. (2008) this policy framework is instrumental in addressing the skills needs of the public service and promoting a more representative and inclusive public service. In support, Ensor (2003) argues that skilled employees within public-sector firms must promote a culture of learning which prioritises continuous T&D. By prioritising training and education, the WPPSTE aims to enhance the competencies of public servants, ultimately contributing to improved service delivery and socio-economic outcomes

2.5.5 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (WPHRMPS)

An important government gazette in the development of South Africa's public administration is the WPHRMPS (1997) and the DPSA (1997), which outlines the need for a change in human resource management (Chabikuli et al., 2005; Nhlapo & Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2016). The WPHRMPS brought about a paradigm change from traditional personnel administration to strategic HRM, and it was envisioned as a guide for restructuring the public sector (WPHRMPS, 1997; Mtshali, 2018). One of its core principles is that a workforce transformation is necessary for a transformed public service (Schneider, 2005).

By emphasising a people-centric approach, the WPHRMPS created the framework for a responsive, productive public service that can meet the country's development goals (Mtshali, 2018). Its provisions on capacity building, performance management, and employee empowerment were the foundation for subsequent human resource policies (Schneider, 2005). However, its successful implementation has been difficult and marked by both successes and setbacks. To support its implementation, the public service has frequently had difficulty developing the requisite competencies at all levels despite the WPHRMPS's emphasis on capacity building (Mtshali, 2018). Progress has been hampered by low training budgets, restricted access to opportunities for growth, and excessive employee turnover.

2.5.6 Institutional Frameworks Governing T&D Legislative Frameworks in South Africa

SETAs govern the T&D legislative framework in South Africa. The Minister of Labour has the authority to establish SETAs, which are grouped based on job sectors where employees' needs for training and education are comparable. Regarding the public sector, the DoL founded the PSETA in March 2000, in addition to 23 other SETAs (Halabi et al., 2013). The formation of SETAs is a significant aspect of the SDA. SETAs are industry-specific bodies that promote skills development within particular industries, assisting in identifying skills needs, developing sector-specific training plans, and overseeing training programme implementation (Halabi et

al., 2013). SETAs provide various critical functions, such as drafting a sector skills plan that aligns with the national skills development policy. This entails identifying the skills gaps in their particular industries and developing measures to rectify them. According to the DoL (1999), a SETA is financed from 80% of the skills development levies, interest and penalties collected in respect of the SETA, as allocated in terms of sections 8(3)(b) and 9(b) of the SDLA (Section 14(1)(a) substituted by section 4(a) of Act 9 of 1999); money paid to it from the NSF; grants, donations and bequests made to it; income earned on surplus amounts of money deposited or invested; income earned on services rendered in the prescribed manner; and money received from any other source. However, compared to other SETAs, the PSETA is embedded within the the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) (DoL, 2008). This unique arrangement is partly due to the exemption of government departments from the skills levy, which means the PSETA relies on National Treasury funding channeled through the DPSA (DoL, 2008). Scholars have noted the complexities of skills development in the public sector which highlights for nuanced approaches to T&D (Kraak, 2008; McGrath, 2012).

The SETAs implement sector skills plans by creating learning programmes and approving yearly training reports. In addition, grants are distributed to employers, education and training providers, and employees in compliance with established rules (Daniel, 2007). Likewise, SETAs are vital in registering learning programmes and verifying that they satisfy the essential quality requirements. Ultimately, the SETAs collaborate and communicate with the NSA regarding Section 5 of the SDA 97 of 1998. One of the functions of the NSA is to advise the Minister of Higher Education, Science and Innovation on the strategic framework and criteria for allocating funds from the NSF (Jarbandhan & Mothopeng, 2015). The NSF will, therefore, as in the past, table this Annual Performance Plan to the NSA for consideration in the presentation to the Minister of Higher Education, Science and Innovation and the Director-General of Higher Education and Training as the executive and accounting authorities of the NSF. This involves partnering to distribute grants from skills levy contributions to organisations conducting learnerships and national skills development projects (Halabi et al., 2013; Daniels, 2007).

The SDA also established the QCTO, which is in charge of designing and implementing occupational qualifications, as well as assuring the quality of training and assessment in South Africa (Coetzee, 2013; Van Den Heever, 2021). The QCTO is critical in linking training programmes to industry requirements and standards. According to Wedekind (2018), the

QCTO is an important player in the South African T&D environment. The QCTO is critical in creating, developing, and maintaining occupational standards and qualifications, as well as assessing and certifying occupational competence (Bushney, 2005). Quality in the design and delivery of occupational qualifications in improving South Africa's skills development system is one of the critical areas of QCTO, linking qualifications with industry demands and encouraging a competent workforce (Wedekind, 2018). Collaborating with the NSA promotes occupational qualification evaluation and adequacy. The QCTO aims to improve the general standard and relevance of T&D in South Africa, thereby contributing to the country's socioeconomic growth (Van Den Heever, 2021).

The SAQA Act No. 58 of 1995 has been integrated with the SDA to guarantee learning effectiveness (Nel et al., 2008). The Act was implemented to alleviate the shortage of trained labour in South Africa. The Act's primary goal is to boost investment in training and education for the workforce. By doing this, it intends to boost the return on investment for education and training while utilising the workplace as a venue for participatory learning. The main objective of the Act is to establish a culture of ongoing learning and development, which will enhance the workforce's competitiveness and support the growth and well-being of the nation (Nel et al., 2008).

2.6 Procedure in Identifying Workplace Training Needs

According to Gould et al. (2004), the basis for guaranteeing the effectiveness and significance of employee development initiatives in organisations is the training needs analysis (TNA) approach. The skills, knowledge, and attitudes that employees must possess to meet the organisation's changing needs or to carry out their duties well are identified using a systematic approach (Ndulue, 2012). Organisations can use a thorough TNA to customise training programmes to bridge the performance gap between planned performance outcomes and employee capabilities (Cooper et al., 2014). A TNA varies in scope and size depending on its purpose, type of employees, and organisation. McGehee and Thayer (1961) acknowledged that the three-step approach to analysing training needs is regarded as the foundational framework for TNA, and most models produced since then have been centred around the approach (Kraiger & Ford, 2014).

According to this approach, TNA consists of three levels of analysis: organisational, operational, and individual, which has since become known as the organisation-task-person model (Holton et al., 2000; Markaki et al., 2021). The principles of McGehee and Thayer's

concept (1961), Boydell and Leary (1996), Denby (2010), and Markaki et al. (2021) hold that TNA ought to be guided by an analysis of the organisation, its operations (tasks), and individuals. Organisations can thoroughly identify and solve training needs and focus by considering these three factors. Therefore, it is important to conduct regular TNAs to ensure that employees are provided with the T&D needed to perform effectively. Also, TNA is a crucial step in the overall process of employee development, and it should be done comprehensively and consistently (Denby, 2010; Hughes et al., 2018).

Ludwikowska (2018) confirmed that an enterprise must explore three training needs. The organisational level analysis is considered the first level, often referred to as a skills audit, which seeks to pinpoint development opportunities and determine whether these areas may be addressed through training. This analysis examines the organisation's internal environment and how it may affect employees' productivity. The internal environment includes organisational objectives outlined in the organisation's HRD strategy, available resources, and external pressures on the organisation. The data are utilised to decide where T&D actions should be focused, with the goal being to identify essential scarce skills and compare them with the skills the business needs currently and in the near future. The shortage or surplus of valuable skills (skills gap) can be identified based on the outcome of the findings (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007; Folscher & Chonco, 2006; Werner & De Simone, 2009). When conducting an organisational analysis, it is critical to consider internal and external variables that may influence the organisation's training requirements. The first step is to review the organisation's operational and strategic objectives. At this point, organisations may question who needs training, who will deliver it, how it will be delivered, and where it is most needed (Mahfod, 2014). Furthermore, variables such as the organisation's culture, HR goals, and outside influences must also be considered to understand genuinely the organisation's training requirements.

Furthermore, operational (task) needs analysis is a detailed evaluation of the duties and responsibilities of employees within the organisation. This method of analysing training needs compares employees' skills to those needed for successful work performance by identifying any incongruity that can be filled through training (Ludwikowska, 2018). According to Saks and Haccoun (2013), it is critical to undertake a thorough job analysis in order to determine the expertise, abilities, and skills needed to carry out jobs successfully. Surveys, observations, and interview methods can be used to learn more about a task's frequency, difficulty, and significance. By examining jobs, organisations can identify areas where individuals may lack the requisite abilities or knowledge, resulting in performance gaps. The organisation guides the

analysis procedure with frequently asked questions such as, what are the performance standards for carrying out a task? How are employees currently carrying out their duties? What are the current performance standards? This approach incorporates the individual team members' competency needs and professional skills, the team's goals, and the organisation's overall desired outcomes (Mahfod, 2014). The approach also considers the needs of individual employees and ways to enhance the organisation's overall performance.

Individual needs analysis describes training needs identification focusing on individual job performance. Individual knowledge, attitudes and skills are three components that determine employees' overall competency and efficiency. Jusoh et al. (2011) argued that people may possess the fundamental knowledge and capabilities required to fulfil their job requirements. However, further development of these aspects as they apply to their jobs and organisations can yield superior outcomes. Noe and Kodwani (2018) emphasised the importance of assessing employees' current knowledge, skills, and capacities as it significantly impacts organisational effectiveness. Popular techniques for acquiring this information include performance appraisals, skills assessments, surveys, and self-evaluations. Individual preferences and learning styles can be used to increase employee engagement and maximise the impact of training programmes, as understanding individual employee demands enables organisations to adapt training programmes to meet their needs. Ludiwikowska (2018) held that using performance appraisal data has become the most popular method for this analysis. When carrying out an individual TNA, it is critical to consider questions such as: How should employees carry out their responsibilities? What is holding them back from reaching their full potential? Do they possess the necessary skills for their position? What types of training programmes can assist them in meeting the desired performance standards? This method aids in identifying areas for improvement, whether through training or other opportunities for professional growth. Employees feedback can also assist in gaining support for the training programme and identifying specific training needs (Denby, 2010)

The TNA is a fundamental step for assuring a skilled and efficient South African public sector (Jarbandhan, 2022). The complicated and ever-changing environment of the public sector makes a solid TNA process even more important. Several difficulties need a deliberate approach to employee development, including skill gaps and outdated knowledge among public servants (Naong, 2009). Rapid technological improvements and shifting governmental frameworks can soon render existing skill sets obsolete, hindering service delivery and reducing the effectiveness of government initiatives. Due to resource constraints in the public

sector, investments in training must be prioritised based on identified needs (DPSA, 2019). A well-designed TNA can guarantee that training programmes yield the highest return on investment (ROI) by concentrating on critical skills gaps. The Public Service Commission (2019) declared that certain departments or geographic regions may have more pronounced skill gaps than others. Targeted training interventions are necessary to address these gaps and ensure fair service delivery nationwide. Investing in employee development through targeted training programmes can also improve morale, job satisfaction, and employee retention in the public sector (Mohajane, 2017).

The landscape of TNA in the public sector is likely to evolve further. A potential future trend is using technological tools for data gathering, needs assessment, and programme delivery. These technological developments can streamline the TNA process, increase efficiency, and provide employees with a more engaging learning experience (Mohajane, 2017). Furthermore, promoting a culture of continuous learning in the public sector demands continuous TNAs. By periodically recognising new skills shortages, organisations can guarantee that employees are ready to adapt to changing needs and deliver effective services to the public (Mkhonza, 2017). Ultimately, integrating data analytics in the TNA process can provide useful insights into the success of training programmes and direct future training investments (Ndulue, 2012). This ensures a more strategic and data-driven approach to employee development.

According to Holton et al. (2000) and Markaki et al. (2021), traditional TNA methods, such as the organisation-task-person model, must adequately address the South African public sector's specific requirements. A critical aspect is to match TNAs with national development targets indicated in documents such as the NDP (The Presidency, 2019). Training programmes should provide employees with the abilities and knowledge they need in order to achieve these national goals. The ultimate goal of public sector training should be for better service delivery to citizens. As a result, TNAs should prioritise training that equips personnel with the skills required to provide efficient, effective, and citizen-centric services (Bhuiyan, 2017).

2.7 Training and Development Delivery Approaches

There are multiple approaches organisations can adopt based on the organisation, industry, and employee training needs (Hazra et al., 2017). T&D programmes ought to satisfy both employee and organisational and operational needs. Organisations can adopt two approaches: on-the-job T&D and off-the-job T&D (Ngu, 1994; Sabir et al., 2014).

2.7.1 Types of On-The-Job-Training

The most common type of employee training is OJT, which offers a practical and direct learning experience. OJT is an organised, systematic, purposeful training that includes well-directed educational activities and uses the workplace as a teaching environment (Van der Klinkb & Streumer, 2002; Ongori, 2011; Vasanthi & Basariya, 2019). This kind of training takes place inside an organisation to improve the use of different tools, documents, and resources required to improve the learning process for employees (Sabir et al., 2014). It is also the most widely used method for achieving employee development across organisational levels (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Vasanthi & Basariya, 2019). OJT is a method that enables employees to practically learn in the workplace (Baum et al., 2007). In order to improve organisational competitiveness, time and money-efficient strategies for learning and practising particular job-related skills that the organisation needs, such as technical, managerial, administrative, manual, and leadership skills (Taylor & Davies, 2004). Effective OJT programmes require effective TNA before they are implemented in the organisation. Therefore, it is important to understand the different types of OJT programmes that organisations implement and use, including coaching and mentoring.

According to Rudman (2010), coaching entails structured one-on-one instruction in which the coach acts as a role model, provides guidance, and responds to questions, consequently changing work situations into valuable learning experiences. Additionally, Champathes (2006) and Ellingeic et al. (2003) defined coaching as the managerial actions and behaviours centring on developing an employee to ensure they can perform at maximum capability in an organisational environment. Likewise, Rothwell and Bakhshandeh (2022) opined that coaching should not be considered an independent function of a manager's everyday tasks but should be smoothly blended into employee interactions. However, coaches should follow a recognised code of practise to guarantee that the coaching process follows established ethical norms.

Likewise, job rotation is another form of OJT, a training strategy that provides respondents with supervised experience and learning opportunities. According to Karadimas and Papastamatiou, (2000), Jerez Gomez et al. (2004), and Jorgensen et al. (2005), this method entails the systematic movement of employees, including supervisors and managers, from one role to another within the organisation and the job assignments ordinarily last between two and six months. The main goal is to develop employees' understanding of the organisation, allowing them to make well-informed choices at higher levels in their future careers (Dessler & Verkkey, 2009). Trainees gain a fresh perspective by being exposed to multiple work tasks, allowing

them to establish new methods and implement improvements in their jobs. This intensive supervision promotes skill development and ensures that trainees are on track in accomplishing organisational objectives. Notably, Azizi et al. (2010) emphasised that the major advantage of job rotation from the employees' perspective is decreased repetition and improved job satisfaction and motivation.

Similarly, internships form part of OJT as they provide individuals with an exceptional chance to apply theoretical information learned in academic contexts to real-world conditions. With its special combination of hands-on learning, internships are a great way to launch a career (Ahadi & Jacobs, 2017). Internship candidates have firsthand experience of day-to-day tasks, difficulties, and obligations in their field of study by working with seasoned experts. They can refine essential skills, better comprehend industry practices, and build useful professional networks in this immersed setting (Armstrong, 2021; Crisp & Alvarado-Young, 2018). This intensive experience assists in developing applicable skills, improving their awareness of industrial practices, and building professional networks (D'abate et al., 2009). Interns can get insight into varying job functions and organisational cultures through practical involvement in tasks and projects.

Job expansion is another form of OJT that broadens an employee's present function by broadening the scope of their responsibilities and tasks. This strategy allows employees to learn new skills, gain new knowledge, and participate in various job tasks. Orbeta Jr et al. (2014) stated that job expansion can boost job fulfilment and motivation by providing employees greater independence, diversity, and meaning. According to Carpini and Parker (2016), job enlargement refers to the horizontal expansion of occupations with a wider range of responsibilities. Similarly, Jerez Gomez et al. (2004) held that when employees are provided with a broader range of duties and responsibilities, they experience greater diversity in their jobs, which can minimise feelings of boredom and repetition. This, in turn, can boost their job fulfilment and general involvement with their work.

Lastly, job enrichment is a form of OJT that focuses on expanding an employee's work by including higher-level responsibilities and duties requiring greater skills and decision-making. The term "job enrichment" refers to incorporating greater scope for personal achievement and its recognition, additional demanding and responsible work, and more possibilities for personal development and growth in the jobs (Umstot et al., 1976; Carpini & Parker, 2016).

Job enrichment was first used in Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. Job enrichment approaches based on Herzberg's theory include giving employees more control over their work, extending job scope, and creating opportunities for advancement. Carpini and Parker (2016) stated that job enrichment entails vertical work expansion, including increased job autonomy. This strategy gives employees more authority over their jobs and responsibilities and the opportunity to work on relevant and hard projects. Similarly, Kinicki and Williams (2020) posited that job enrichment plays a huge role in increasing employee participation, which involves providing them with more responsibility and control over how the tasks are performed.

2.7.2 Types of Off-the-Job Training

Another traditional form of employee training is OffJT. It refers to training conducted somewhere other than the employee's regular place of employment (Pastore & Pompili, 2020). This form of training can take place on-site but in a different location, or it can take place off-site at locations like conference centres or training facilities (Smith, 2018). Organisations use a variety of techniques for OffJT to encourage effective learning, expanding beyond conventional methods such as simple lectures (Smith, 2002). This training can be costlier than OJT, but it gives employees access to updated expertise and skills that they might not otherwise have access to in their workplace. OffJT can enhance leadership and management abilities (Lacerenza et al., 2017). Employee needs-based training can be facilitated through several types of OffJT. The following methods are commonly used in the public sector due to the prevalent skills shortages.

The first example of OffJT is classroom training, which consists of planned learning sessions in a classroom setting. Subject matter experts and trainers lead these programmes, delivering lectures, presentations, and interactive discussions. According to Cooney and Bhatia (2005), classroom training allows for knowledge dissemination, concept explanation, and the ability for individuals to participate in group activities and exercises that promote learning and knowledge retention. Classroom training also provides the option for rapid feedback and concept clarification.

In a study conducted by Oga-Baldwin et al. (2017), respondents indicated that asking queries and receiving immediate responses from instructors increased their comprehension of the subject matter and their learning experience. This direct engagement with trainers enables personalised advice and support, facilitating greater understanding and application of

knowledge. This training also provides a disciplined and dedicated learning environment. According to Kraiger (2017), the restricted classroom setting helps individuals concentrate on the training content without interruptions from their normal work obligations. This concentrated setting improves concentration, participation, and knowledge retention.

Simulations are another form of OffJT and refer to the process of developing true-to-life scenarios or virtual settings that mimic real-life situations, known as simulation-based learning. Individuals engage in replicated activities in a controlled, secure setting to practise and build abilities. Sitzmann et al. (2006) stated that simulation allows individuals to engage in experiential learning by immersing themselves in simulated environments that closely reflect real-world events. The experience allows trainees to practise and perfect their skills, decision-making, and critical thinking abilities in a risk-free environment. The realistic nature of simulations improves knowledge transfer and the application of learning in real-world situations. According to Salas and Burke (2002), simulation training allows employees to encounter complicated and challenging scenarios that are impossible to recreate using traditional training approaches. Using simulations, employees can improve their problem-solving abilities, learn to handle uncertainty, and increase adaptability. The interactive nature of simulation training encourages involvement and participation, resulting in greater understanding.

Furthermore, according to Allen and Seaman (2017), e-learning provides flexibility in terms of time, place, and pace of learning, allowing employees to access training resources and courses whenever they want. This adaptability is especially beneficial for organisations with geographically dispersed staff or employees who work from home. E-learning also allows for self-paced study, which accommodates a variety of learning methods and preferences. Sitzmann et al. (2006) held that e-learning can be as successful as traditional classroom-based instruction, if not more effective. According to the study, e-learning resulted in comparable knowledge acquisition and improved transfer of learning to job efficiency. E-learning's interactive and multimedia components, such as online tutorials, webinars, and videos, engage learners and enhance knowledge retention.

Behaviour modelling is another form of OffJT, which entails monitoring and mimicking desired behaviours. Participants witness role models or expert performers displaying needed skills, followed by practice and feedback opportunities. According to Bandura and Walters (1977), as cited by Akers and Jennings (2015), the social learning theory emphasises that people learn by watching and mimicking the behaviours of others, and behaviour modelling

aligns with this theory to enhance the acquisition of skills and behaviour modification. Noe (2017) concurred that employees learn by observing another person carry out a task or exhibit a behaviour, then modelling their actions in response to what they have seen. Behaviour modelling allows for practice and feedback. According to Pinder and Harlos (2001), employees can consciously practise observed behaviours by engaging in simulated or role-playing exercises. Trainers or facilitators can then offer constructive criticism and direction to trainees to help them improve their capabilities and performance. This cyclical process of observation, practice, and evaluation increases the improvement of skills and enriches the learning experience.

Lastly, formal education is another type of OffJT that provides systematic and extensive learning opportunities, such as attending colleges and universities or enrolling in short courses. These programmes provide academic information, practical skills, and a more comprehensive grasp of specific areas or disciplines. According to Steen (2016), formal education improves people's ability to analyse problems, think strategically, and apply information in real-world circumstances. Acemoglu and Autor (2012) further stated that formal education has long-lasting advantages regarding professional advancement and increased revenue potential. Individuals with more formal education typically have access to a broader choice of career options, more job security, and better career advancement chances. Formal education provides individuals with the qualifications and competencies many employers seek (Grajcevcic & Shala, 2016).

2.8 Identified Common Organisational Training Needs

Organisational training needs may be facilitated through several methods, namely leadership and management development. These programmes aim to build successful managers and leaders inside a company. These efforts seek to improve leadership talents, analytical thinking, decision-making, and managing teams. According to Avolio et al. (2010), leadership development programmes promote leadership effectiveness, staff engagement, and overall organisational performance. Bolden (2016) also agreed that training is intended to assist managers and supervisors in acquiring the leadership and management abilities necessary for efficient management and administration in the public sector. Furthermore, skills development programmes facilitate organisational needs. These programmes comprise a broad spectrum of training efforts to improve certain job-related competencies. According to Barry et al. (2018), technical skills, interpersonal skills (such as communication and teamwork), problem-solving ability, and logical thinking can all be taught in these programmes. According to Elnaga and

Imran (2013), skills development programmes improve staff motivation, job fulfilment, and overall organisational efficiency. Similarly, Akojee et al. (2005) argued that this kind of training focuses on building the abilities and expertise necessary for specific jobs and responsibilities and creating opportunities for career advancement as public servants.

Compliance training is another form of training that is intended to assist staff members in comprehending and abiding by the laws, rules, and policies that apply to their line of work. According to Puhakainen and Siponen (2010), compliance training focuses on upholding and guaranteeing that staff members know and follow applicable legal, ethical, and regulatory standards. Lanovaz et al. (2023)) emphasised the importance of compliance training in lowering legal risks, promoting ethical behaviour, and safeguarding organisational reputation.

According to Ragas and Culp (2021), training in business acumen is a kind of instruction intended to assist staff members in comprehending and putting business principles essential to the organisation's success into practice. Employees who receive business acumen training gain an awareness of the organisation's activities, industry dynamics, trends in the marketplace, and financial elements. This training provides employees with the knowledge and skills to make educated organisational decisions, understand client needs, and contribute to an organisation's advancement. Similarly, Grillo (2015) stated that business acumen training improves employees' business understanding, results in a customer-centric perspective, and encourages alignment with organisational goals. Furthermore, with the evolution of technology and the move towards a virtual organisational landscape, information technology (IT) and technical training is another form of training that is essential, as it equips staff in comprehending and utilising the IT and technical systems essential to an organisations achievement (Cox et al., 2017). This training emphasises providing individuals with the technical skills and knowledge they need to use IT resources and systems successfully. This training guarantees that personnel can adjust to technological advances, increase efficiency, and use technology to drive organisational success. According to Elnaga and Imran (2013), IT training is critical for boosting employees' technological skills and overall organisational effectiveness.

Additionally, process improvement training is a kind of training that is intended to assist staff in comprehending and enhancing procedures essential to the corporation's accomplishment. According to Börner et al. (2012), this training seeks to improve employees' awareness of company processes and their ability to recognise and bring about process improvements. This programme focuses on Lean, Six Sigma, and continuous improvement approaches to streamline workflows, minimise waste, and boost efficiency. Amaratunga et al. (2001) found

that process improvement training improved operational performance, client retention, and organisational competitiveness.

Industry-specific training is important in fostering operational needs. It is intended to assist employees in understanding and succeeding in a particular industry. Employees receiving industry-specific training are likelier to have specialised knowledge and skills for their particular business or area. Through this training, employees receive the latest information on industry trends, rules, technology, and best practices. According to Schmutzler and Gersbach (2012), industry-specific training improves employee competence, efficiency, and flexibility, allowing organisations to remain competitive in a quickly shifting organisational climate. Another important type of training is economic and financial literacy training, designed to assist employees in grasping and making sound economic and financial decisions, which is significant for operational success (Fatoki & Oni, 2014). Employees who receive economic and financial literacy training better understand fiscal principles, financial management, and business ideas. This training enables employees to make sound choices, evaluate financial statements, and bring value to the organisation's financial stability. According to Antoni et al. (2020), economic and financial literacy training is critical for improving employees' monetary decision-making ability and developing a financially literate workforce.

When selecting T&D approaches for the public sector, it is vital to recognise that public sector budgets are generally limited, resulting in an emphasis on cost-effective training methods. A combination of OffJT and OJT methods can maximise learning objectives and save training costs. For example, using internal mentors for OJT can be less expensive than external training providers. Employees in the public sector have a variety of backgrounds and learning styles. A blended learning strategy may accommodate different learning styles and ensure accessibility by combining various delivery approaches, such as case studies, simulations, and hands-on activities. Organisations can provide their workforce with the competencies and knowledge needed to provide effective, efficient, and citizen-centric services by strategically combining on-the-job and OffJT approaches designed for the public sector environment.

2.9 Process in Evaluating Training and Development Programmes

According to Andales (2024), training evaluation systematically analyses training programmes to ensure they are delivered successfully and efficiently. Training evaluation is a systematic procedure that aims to determine the success and effectiveness of training programmes in order to influence future decisions (Saks & Burke, 2012). It entails gathering both quantitative and

qualitative data to evaluate programme effectiveness. Essentially, evaluation is a feedback system that offers information on the usefulness and relevance of training programmes (Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

Figure 2.1 is a graphical illustration of the training evaluation process.

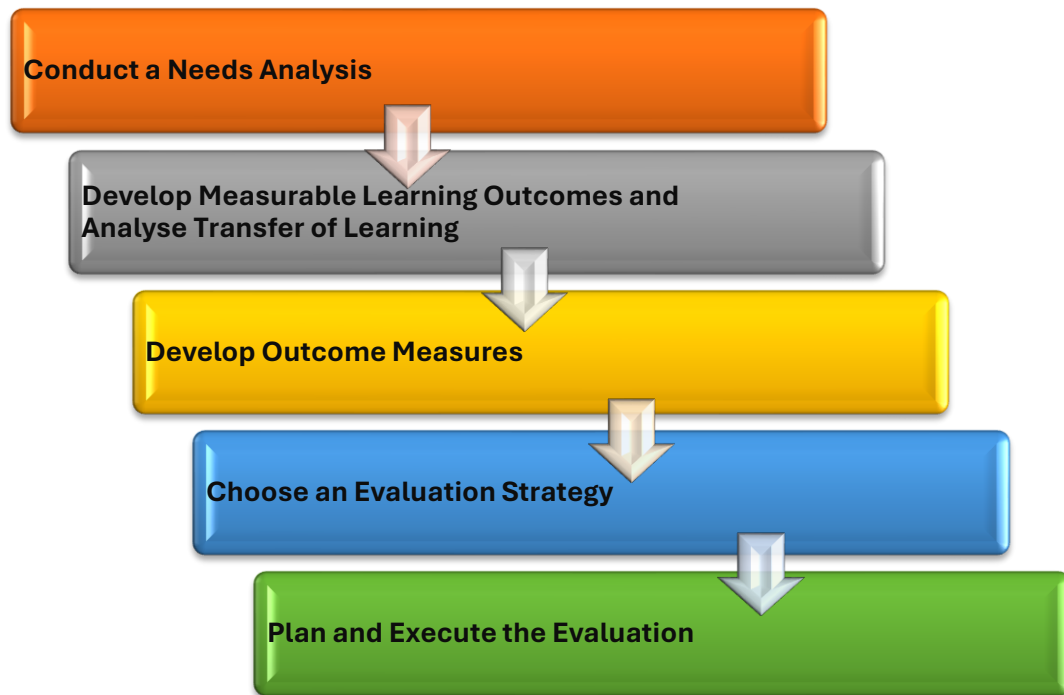


Figure 2.1: The training evaluation process (Grove & Ostroff, 1991)

According to Pineda (2010), training evaluation is a systematic method that analyses a programme both before and after completion. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, this process should start even before training begins. According to Grove and Ostroff (1991), the first stage is to conduct a detailed needs assessment to determine whether specific knowledge, skills, or behaviours are necessary (Passmore & Velez, 2014). In support, Noe et al. (2017) stated that a detailed needs analysis is paramount to determine performance gaps and training requirements. These recognised requirements and capabilities provide the framework for developing precise, measurable training objectives. The clarity of these objectives makes it easier to establish appropriate evaluation outcomes later on. According to Noe et al. (2017), an organised and systematic strategy is required to evaluate training programmes effectively. Organisations can design customised training interventions by identifying expected knowledge, skills, or behaviours.

Subsequently, it is essential to formulate measurable learning outcomes. These goals set precise standards for evaluation and direct the development of the training programme. Measuring

learning outcomes improves the accuracy of evaluation processes (Kirkpatrick, 1993; Oh & Johnston, 2023). Understanding the transfer of learning is crucial for optimising the effectiveness of training. The creation of appropriate evaluation methods is informed by analysing the application of training content in the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Renta-Davids et al., 2014).

Outcome measures are generated based on the specified learning outcomes and training needs for transfer. These training effectiveness metrics should be consistent with the organisation's overall aims. Several metrics can be used, including cognitive, skill-based, and affective outcomes (Brinkerhoff & Goldsmith, 2006). To improve the evaluation process, a work environment analysis is required to establish how training content is implemented on the job (Passmore & Velez, 2014). Combined with the established learning objectives, this analysis permits the development of outcome measures for assessing learning transfer and acquisition.

Once these measures have been established, an appropriate evaluation strategy is chosen, considering available resources, time restrictions, and the required level of evaluation accuracy (Renta-Davids et al., 2014). The evaluation strategy is divided into two phases: formative and summative evaluation (Passmore & Velez, 2014). Formative evaluation entails getting feedback throughout programme development to make required changes, whereas summative evaluation assesses the programme's overall performance in meeting its objectives (Passmore & Velez, 2014). The outcomes of this study will help refine future training activities, advocate for programme continuation, and secure additional resources.

Ultimately, the last stage involves evaluation planning and execution. This includes data gathering, analysis, and reporting. The evaluation process should be continuous, with results driving future training programmes and refining evaluation methods. In support, Andales (2024) relays that a periodic approach to evaluation is required, with ongoing review of the evaluation process to improve its effectiveness.

2.9.1 Effectiveness of Training Evaluation

Training effectiveness is an important indicator for evaluating the value and impact of training programmes. It entails determining the degree to which training meets its stated aims and aids in achieving organisational goals (Homklin et al., 2013). This concept has two main dimensions: the effectiveness of the training process and its effect on individual performance. The first dimension focuses on how training is provided and managed, considering issues including instructional design, facilitator skills, and participant engagement. The second phase

emphasises the extent to which training leads to enhanced work performance, as evidenced by improvements in knowledge, skills, and behaviours (Al Yahya & Mat, 2013).

Numerous levels of analysis and a thorough evaluation plan are necessary for measuring training performance effectively. It is imperative to consider not only the responses of trainees and their acquisition of knowledge but also the application of training in the workplace and its eventual influence on organisational results (Bates & Coyne, 2005). Organisations may improve future training programmes and obtain useful insights into the return on investment of their training programmes by implementing a multifaceted approach and making data-driven decisions. According to Borate et al. (2014), there are two main components to measuring effectiveness: the training programme and the training evaluation. The most efficient method of assessing training effectiveness is through evaluation (Rafiq, 2015). The organisation will be able to determine whether the training was conducted effectively using the data gathered from evaluations (Farjad, 2012). Thus, in order to ascertain whether a training programme is effective, an organisation first needs to establish the evaluation criteria or outcomes (Arthur et al., 2003a; Noe, 2016). In order to accomplish this, it first considers the various training models introduced to fulfil an organisation's training requirements and needs (Oh & Johnston, 2023).

Several studies found that while several models have been developed to assess training effectiveness, Kirkpatrick's four-level model is the most widely accepted and acknowledged model among them (Tamkin et al., 2002; Alvarez et al., 2004; Abdul Aziz, 2013; Xue, 2015; Paull et al., 2016; Cahapay, 2021; Mohanty et al., 2019). According to Sahni (2020), the Kirkpatrick model, which uses four degrees of success to evaluate training, has a beneficial impact on learning. The Kirkpatrick model is a popular training evaluation approach. The model's four tiers explain every requirement, from the planning process to the training programme outcomes.

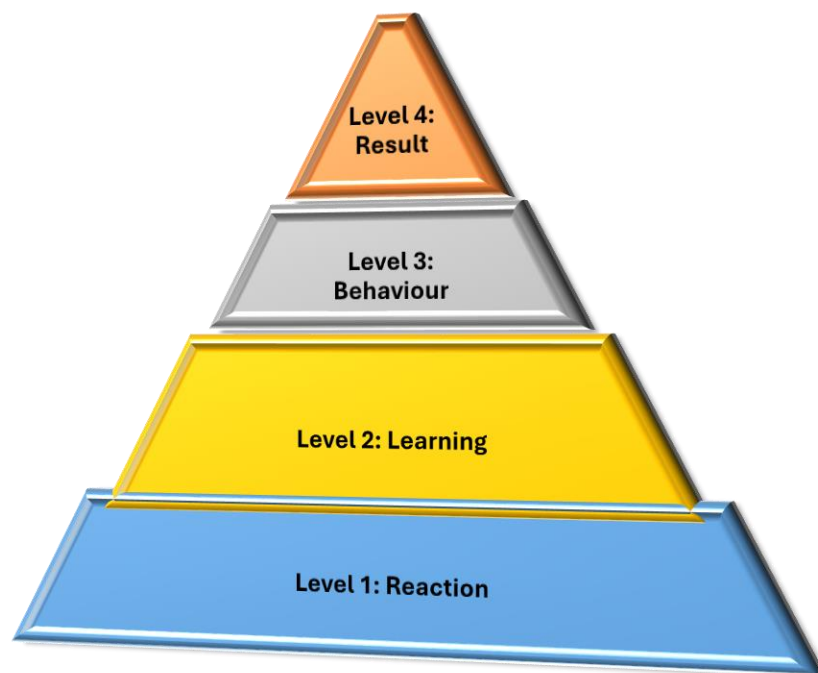


Figure 2.2: Adapted from Kirkpatrick model evaluation level

Source: Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick (2006)

Figure 2.2 illustrates the four evaluation levels: level 1 (reaction), level 2 (learning), level 3 (behaviour), and level 4 (results). Level one, participant reaction, measures how satisfied trainees are with the training material (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2016). Gathering feedback at this stage frequently includes answering questions on the overall training experience, content relevancy, and facilitator effectiveness. Although it is necessary to understand participant views, it offers limited information about how the programme influences performance (Cahapay, 2021). In level two, the learning assessment aims to ascertain whether the participants have acquired the desired attitudes, abilities, and knowledge (Kirkpatrick, 1993; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2016). Pre-training and post-training evaluations are commonly used at this level to track improvements in learning outcomes (Kaufman & Keller, 1994). However, demonstrating that learning has occurred does not always translate into changed behaviour.

In level three, behaviour assesses how much training has influenced on-the-job performance (Cahapay, 2021). This level necessitates tracking and assessing improvements in job-related behaviours and outcomes. It is frequently challenging to isolate the impact of training from other factors influencing performance (Reio et al., 2017). Ultimately, level four evaluates the training's overall effect on organisational performance (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2016). At

this stage, suitable performance measures must be determined, and data must be gathered to demonstrate the training programmes' ROI. Results are frequently measured using metrics including client satisfaction, quality, and productivity (Phillips, 1991; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2016).

Various training models have been introduced to fulfil organisations' training requirements and needs, but despite this, training evaluation and effectiveness remain the most underdeveloped areas (Oh & Johnston, 2023). Numerous issues affect both evaluation incompetence and the difficulties that emerge during the evaluation process (Topno, 2012; Passmore, 2014). Training evaluation and effectiveness are critical in the public sector due to limited resources and the requirement to demonstrate accountability. Public sector organisations have used several approaches to evaluate the effectiveness of their training initiatives. The Kirkpatrick model remains a popular framework (Tamkin et al., 2002; Paull et al., 2016; Cahapay, 2021; Mohanty et al., 2019). However, it has been criticised for focusing solely on individual outcomes and ignoring organisational context (Alliger, 1999; Reio et al., 2017).

To overcome these constraints, broader evaluation models have arisen, such as the Phillips ROI model, which considers financial measures and organisational impact (Phillips, 1998). The ROI model emphasises training programmes' ROI (Phillips, 1998; Phillips et al., 2006; Oh & Johnston, 2023). This model aims to demonstrate training's economic impact by measuring the financial benefits. However, estimating precise ROI can be difficult, especially in the public sector when non-financial effects may predominate (Brinkerhoff & Goldsmith, 2006; Oh & Johnston, 2023). In addition, Stufflebeam's CIPP model provides a broader perspective by considering context, input, process, and product (Stufflebeam, 1971; Madaus et al., 1983; Stufflebeam, 2000; Stufflebeam & Zhang, 2017). It emphasises the necessity of knowing the programme's context, resources, implementation, and results. This paradigm is especially useful for analysing complex training initiatives with various stakeholders (Stufflebeam, 2000; Stufflebeam & Zhang, 2017).

While these models provide useful foundations, their use in the public sector necessitates modifications to account for distinct organisational characteristics and performance indicators. Recent research has emphasised combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies to capture all aspects of training programme outcomes (McNamara, 2009). Furthermore, the changing landscape of labour and technology needs ongoing refining of evaluation methodologies to accommodate new challenges and opportunities.

2.10 Employee Attitudes Towards Training and Development

Employee attitudes towards T&D programmes substantially impact employee engagement and programme effectiveness. These attitudes range from positive, neutral and negative. Employees are more engaged and gain more from T&D programmes when they perceive that the training helps develop skills relevant to their work and future career aspirations (Cheng & Ho, 2001). Employees' buy-in is further increased by well-designed and guided programmes with clear learning objectives and engaging delivery techniques (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Most importantly, when employees recognise the programme's contribution to their professional and personal development, they foster a sense of self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Noe et al., 2006; Elovainio et al., 2000). While positive employee perceptions are essential for successful T&D programmes, negative perceptions can be just as destructive. Understanding these negative attitudes enables organisations to modify programmes and avoid potential hazards.

Employees may become disengaged and perceive their time wasted if the training is deemed inappropriate to their job duties or career goals (Gutterman, 2023). This can happen when training content is not related to their current responsibilities or future goals. Notably, poorly designed or delivered programmes can lead to frustration. Employees may perceive low content quality without clarity, engaging activities, or trained facilitators (Gutterman, 2023).

Employee attitudes towards T&D programmes in the South African public service are complex. While some studies, such as Rykleif and Tengeh (2022), stress the perceived relevance of T&D for enhancing service delivery, it is important to note that employees could show a mix of positive and neutral perceptions towards T&D programmes. Some reasons could contribute to the disparity between perceived importance and real attitudes. Govender (2010) emphasised the importance of fostering a learning culture in the public sector. Employee motivation may diminish if training programmes are incompatible with their needs or do not result in meaningful skill development and career advancement opportunities (Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Giangreco et al., 2009;). Further research into the specific design of T&D programmes and their alignment with employee perceptions of relevance may give information on how to bridge the gap between the perceived importance and actual attitudes towards training in the South African public service.

2.11 Relationship Between Demographic Characteristics and Employee Attitudes Towards T&D Programmes

Effective T&D programmes are critical to developing a trained and adaptive workforce. However, a ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach may not be ideal. According to research, employee demographics can impact employee perceptions and participation in T&D programmes. Demographic characteristics classify people within a population (Jones et al., 2020). They provide a glimpse of the composition of the workforce and can help develop T&D programmes relevant to employee demands.

When planning T&D programmes, a variety of demographic variables must be taken into account. Research studies have focused on the significance of work training for different demographics or classifications of employees (Edgar & Geare, 2004; Slattery et al., 2006; Rawski & Conroy, 2020; Jones et al., 2020). Slattery et al. (2006) discovered that new employee development activities, such as T&D, improve job satisfaction and organisational engagement among temporary employees. Training was also significant in relation to the level of formal education obtained. Buchel (2002) discovered that employees with higher educational qualifications are more likely to engage in job training and stay for more extended periods in their organisations than employees with lower qualifications. According to the findings of other researchers, men have greater access to T&D than women because of “gender segregation by occupation and industry, workweek length, and family rule obligations” (Knocke & Ishio, 1998). This, in turn, influences employee’s attitudes towards T&D programmes.

Furthermore, Burke and Hutchins (2007) argued that recent graduates may be more open to technology-based learning approaches such as e-learning courses and simulations. In contrast, older employees may prefer instructor-led training for engagement and clarification. Furthermore, Dachner et al. (2021) argued that work experience levels might impact training demands. Less experienced employees may benefit from skill development programmes focusing on basic competencies, whereas more experienced employees may seek opportunities to improve leadership or management skills (Dachner et al., 2021). While these are some prevalent demographic factors, examining the context of South Africa’s public service is vital. A diversified workforce with varying levels of education, experience, and socioeconomic status distinguishes this sector.

For this study, emphasis has been placed on gender and job title as factors influencing employee attitudes towards T&D programmes. The selection of these factors as essential determinants of employee attitudes toward T&D programmes is based on a large body of research and a historical context. Gender emerges as a major factor influencing employee attitudes. Numerous studies have repeatedly shown that women and men have different perceptions and experiences with training opportunities (Shields & Wheatly-Price, 1999; Almeida-Santos & Mumford, 2004). These differences can be explained by a range of factors, including societal prejudices, cultural norms, and historical biases (Shields & Wheatly-Price, 1999; Almeida-Santos & Mumford, 2004). Women, for example, may face problems such as work-life balance, childcare duties, and gender-based discrimination, all of which might influence their participation in T&D programmes.

Furthermore, job titles can have a considerable impact on employee attitudes. According to research, people at different levels of the hierarchy may have varying levels of access to training opportunities, as well as different views of the worth and usefulness of such programmes (Keep, 2005; Purcell, 1999). Employees in higher positions have more access to specialised T&D programmes, whereas those in more junior positions may have fewer options due to budget limits or organisational goals (Westwood, 2004). Furthermore, the history of South Africa, which is marked by systemic discrimination and inequality, has had a significant impact on the experiences and attitudes of employees from various backgrounds (Horwitz et al., 2002). Apartheid's legacy has resulted in discrepancies in education, employment prospects, and resource availability, which could keep influencing employee's perceptions and attitudes towards T&D programmes.

Understanding how these demographic factors influence employees' perceptions of the effectiveness of T&D is critical for designing programmes that suit the unique needs of diverse employee groups. Furthermore, the public sector's duty to provide essential services to residents needs a highly skilled and motivated workforce, making it critical to maximise the effectiveness of T&D activities. This will ultimately contribute to an improved understanding of the elements impacting employee engagement and growth in the South African public sector.

2.12 Importance of Training and Development Programmes in the Public Sector

According to Ongori and Nzonzo (2011), T&D is important as it seeks to improve employees' knowledge and abilities in order to boost their performance. Based on the abovementioned previous discussions, this study posits that training should aim to upskill employees in order to

increase their productivity. According to Elnaga and Imran (2013), training is another intervention that is typically carried out when there are signs that a worker is not operating at their best, necessitating the teaching of specific skills to them. Training aims to supplement foundational knowledge with advanced skills typically relevant to a particular job. It may be seen as a multifaceted process that fosters individual growth, equipping employees with the skills, capabilities, and competencies necessary to take on more complex roles and responsibilities (Nassazi, 2013).

South Africa's public sector faces a unique challenge in developing a qualified and competent workforce. The apartheid education system carries a lengthy legacy, with many public servants lacking the fundamental knowledge and skills required for effective service delivery (Bruwer & Smith, 2018). The apartheid-era education system was racially segregated. Black South Africans were consistently denied access to decent education, resulting in a vast knowledge gap compared to their white counterparts (Spaull, 2013). This historical context needs a more sophisticated approach to public T&D programmes. The long-term ramifications of apartheid's educational system can still be seen in the underpreparedness of many public personnel. While apartheid's legal framework has collapsed, its structural and systemic effects remain. Rural schools, primarily attended by Black South Africans, have long been plagued by insufficient resources, understaffing, and low educational outcomes (Spaull, 2013). This legacy of educational inequality has resulted in a disproportionate number of public servants from marginalised groups entering the job with low fundamental skills and knowledge. As a result, the public sector faces difficulty in providing efficient and equitable services, especially in rural areas. Thus, many employees may acquire basic knowledge before effectively participating in skill-based training.

Long et al. (2016) stated that in order to determine whether T&D are effective, the following factors must be taken into account: the training's cost, nature, and relationship to current training policies; its capacity to bridge the competence gap between employees and job requirements; and its significance in relation to its association with the overall efficiency of the organisation. The public service landscape changes as new technologies emerge, citizen expectations evolve, and governmental priorities shift (Rykleif & Tengeh, 2022; Ameeq & Hanif, 2013). Those factors require a culture of ongoing learning in the public sector. The T&D programmes significantly promote this culture by providing opportunities for employees to upskill and reskill. Li (2022) stated that upskilling entails expanding existing abilities to meet

new obligations or technological advancements. Reskilling, however, provides employees with completely new skill sets to meet growing issues or prepare for career changes (Li, 2022).

The importance of T&D in the public sector cannot be overemphasised. According to Public Personnel Management (2013), T&D is important because it increases employees' morale and satisfaction by highlighting the organisation's commitment to their professional advancement. Similarly, T&D programmes can assist in finding employees with leadership abilities and provide them with the competencies and knowledge they need to assume these positions in the future (Public Personnel Management, 2010). Investing in these initiatives can reduce long-term costs by lowering turnover, increasing output, and enhancing total effectiveness (Public Personnel Management, 2013).

2.13 Human Capacity Development

According to the OECD, as cited in Baser (2011), capacity is the ability to carry out intended goals, or, more specifically, capacity is the ability of individuals, organisations, and society to govern their activities successfully (LaFond & Brown, 2003). Capacity is "the ability to perform" (Horton et al., 2003). As Table 2.2 shows, many authors have defined capacity and CD over the years.

Table 2.2: Definitions of capacity development

Author	Definition
Morgan (1998)	Capacity building ‘is a risky business, with unpredictable and unquantifiable outcomes, uncertain methodologies, contested objectives, many unintended consequences, little credit to its champions and long-time lags’.
Grindle and Hilderbrand (1994)	Capacity building improvement in the ability of public sector organisations, either singly or in cooperation with other organisations, to perform appropriate tasks.’.
CIDA (1996)	Capacity development refers to the approaches, strategies, and methodologies used by developing country, and external stakeholders, to improve performance at the individual, organisational, network/sector or broader system level’.
Morgan (1997)	CD refers to “the growth of formal organisational relationship and abilities, i.e. those changes in organisational behaviour, skills and relationship that lead to the improved abilities of groups and organisations to carry out functions and achieve desired outcomes overtime”.
Lusthaus, Adrien, and Perstinger (1999)	The concept of “CD involves the institutional building, institutional development, HRD, development or administration and institutional strengthening”.
Wubneh (2003).	Capacity building can be defined as the ‘process of transforming a nation’s ability to effectively implement policies and programmes to ensure sustainable development’.
Potter and Brough (2004)	Capacity building refers to the “creation, extension or up-gradation of a stock of anticipated qualities and characteristics called capabilities that could be constantly drawn upon over time. It aims to increase the stock rather than manage whatever is accessible”.
OECD-DAC (2009c)	The CD is a “process by which individuals, groups, organisations, institutions and broadly societies enhance their abilities for two main purposes, such as (1) performing roles, solving problems and achieving objectives, and (2) understanding and dealing with their development in a broader context and in a sustainable way”.
UNDP (2008)	CD is a “process through which individuals, organisations and societies gain, reinforce and uphold their capabilities to determine and accomplish their development objectives over time”.
Baser and Morgan (2008)	CD is embedded in the assumption of the “dynamics of change”.
Otoo, Agapitova, and Behrens (2009).	CD refers to the “readiness of resources as well as the degree of effectiveness and efficiency to which societies can utilise those resources for identifying and attaining their development goals sustainably”.
Hope (2006)	CD is the “enhancement of the competency of the range of social actors to engage in activities in a sustainable manner for positive development impacts – poverty reduction, improvement in governance quality, or meeting millennium development goals”.
Ubels, Acquaye-Baddoo, and Fowler (2010)	CD “changes in capacity over time – endogenous and continuous/spontaneous process”.
World Bank (2016)	CD is a “locally driven process of learning by leaders, coalitions and other agents of change that bring about change in socio-political, policy-related, and organisational factors to enhance local ownership for and effectiveness and efficiency of efforts to achieve a development objective”.

Source: The author compiled Table 2.2 based on the referenced authors’ definitions.

Capacity building is a multidimensional concept with multiple levels of focus. Gorgens (2009) and Kusek (2010) described three levels of capacity: system, organisational, and individual (human). Understanding these levels is critical for effective interventions that improve overall competence. Capacity, or the ability to perform necessary tasks efficiently, reliably, and sustainably, is a crucial component of any organisation. According to Spoth et al. (2004), the first level is system capacity, which is the ability of a complex system with its interrelated

components to accomplish its intended aims and support the larger organisational objectives. It comprises several system components operating in unison while following predetermined guidelines and protocols (Spath et al., 2004). The second level, organisational capacity, pertains to the ability of the organisation and its systems to achieve their goals and promote growth. RAND Europe Interview, as cited by Cox et al. (2018) and Yu-Lee (2002), stated that “organisational capacity” refers to an organisation’s “ability to perform work” or the supporting elements that enable an organisation to carry out its operations and meet its objectives. A common definition of organisational capacity in the public sector, according to Ingraham et al. (2003), is “a government’s ability to guide, establish control and manage its financial, human, physical and information resources.” A well-functioning T&D system facilitates an organisation’s entire human capital development.

Furthermore, the third level, individual (human) capacity, refers to individuals’ knowledge, skills, and capacities to perform their duties effectively, consistently, and responsibly (Dhanarajan & Abeywardena, 2013). Luthans and Youssef (2004) stated that investing in human capital development through training and education provides individuals with the tools to make meaningful contributions to their organisations and society. Nelson and Phelps (1966) asserted that a nation’s true wealth is its human capital or people’s knowledge, skills, and capacities (Hilton & Pellegrino, 2012). Individual development efforts play an important part in allowing people to live satisfying lives and contribute to the betterment of society.

Understanding these interrelated levels of capacity—individual, organisational, and system—allows a better understanding of the variables affecting capability development. A multifaceted strategy that addresses capacity needs at all levels is frequently necessary for effective interventions. This creates a synergistic environment where individual potential is translated into organisational effectiveness and ultimately helps to achieve system-wide objectives.

This study prioritises individual HCD for various reasons, including the fact that strong individual skills are the foundation for robust systems and organisational ability. Equipping people with the appropriate information, skills, and abilities enables them to perform their roles effectively. This, in turn, helps systems run smoothly and improves the organisation’s overall performance (Dhanarajan & Abeywardena, 2013). According to the UNDP, “human capacity development is about more than just the fluctuation of national wealth.” It is about establishing a context where employees can grow, thrive, and create lives customised to their needs and interests (Gorgens, 2009; Kusek, 2010). Similarly, USAID (2010) stated that HCD pertains to the techniques used to enhance and maintain the required skills for individual and team

responsibilities in public service and to develop individual and team members' ability to set goals.

This study focuses on Gorgens's (2009) and Kusek's (2010) definition of HCD because it offers an in-depth and practical understanding of the concept and aligns with the HCT guiding the study. The definition emphasises the relevance of developing individual and collective capabilities to meet development goals, and it acknowledges that this is an interactive method involving various kinds of actors. This definition is further supported by the HCT, whose guidelines are frequently employed by the management of organisations to maintain a competitive advantage by expanding their knowledge, abilities, and skills through various job-related training (Pasban & Nojede, 2016). According to this theory, educated people have greater work efficiency, which means they make a far more significant contribution to government revenue and earn more than their uneducated peers. This study conceptualises HCD as imparting individuals with the skills, knowledge, and capabilities needed to perform tasks properly, further enhancing individual, organisational, and societal performance.

2.13.1 Measurement for Human Capacity Development.

Measuring human capability is critical to determining a person's or an organisation's capacity to carry out a certain task or function. It entails identifying and assessing the abilities, knowledge, skills, and other qualities needed for a specific job or function (Healy & Côté, 2001). Measuring HCD is a complicated and multidimensional task because it involves assessing individuals' skills, knowledge, and capabilities and how those attributes positively impact the performance of organisations and society in general (Healy & Côté, 2001). The following section discusses several ways in which HCD can be measured.

Education and training are critical aspects of human capital development (Golovina et al., 2021). The completion of formal schooling is still a key indicator of the HCD. Higher education degrees are typically linked to stronger professional capabilities, and educational qualifications are frequently used as a stand-in for fundamental knowledge and skills (Psacharopoulos, 1994; Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2018). Moreover, involvement in training initiatives intended to close certain skill gaps or impart fresh knowledge to employees can be a useful indicator of continuous attempts to improve human resources (Dhanarajan & Abeywardena, 2013). An organisation's commitment to HCD and its potential impact on workforce capabilities can be determined by monitoring participation rates, completion rates, and the kinds of training programmes offered. Organisations must encourage employees to function as planners and

implementers through training and education. Employee education and training programmes are meant to motivate individuals to enhance their interpersonal abilities in order to increase their work performance (Hidayat & Budiartma, 2018). Individuals' levels of training and education can be assessed in many ways, including the number of years of formal schooling done, vocational training acquired, and OJT completed. It is also necessary to evaluate the quality of education and training, which can be accomplished through analyses of the appropriateness and efficiency of the education or training received (Healy & Côté, 2001).

Workforce quality is another variable used to measure human capacity. According to Swaminathan (2020), workforce quality means people are encouraged to improve their skills and creativity to generate greater results while being held accountable for their performance. Various variables, such as expertise, capacity and output, can be used to evaluate workforce quality (Healy & Côté, 2001). Swaminathan (2020) added that workforce quality is also measured with the sub-variables of commitments, qualifications, expertise, achievement orientation, and accountability.

The quality of the workforce is more than just educational attainment. It includes various competencies pertinent to work performance in a particular setting (Cappelli, 2015). Among the potential workforce quality indicators are technical skills, which refer to the capacity to carry out particular activities associated with a work role. Soft skills refer to critical thinking, problem-solving, collaboration, and communication for navigating complicated work contexts. Adaptability is a willingness to acquire new abilities and change with the demands of a position. Analysis of job performance, employee involvement, and supervisory feedback offers insight into the workforce's quality (SHRM, 2019). The workforce's quality can also be evaluated using objective performance indicators and statistics (Huselid, 1995); Jiang et al., 2012). Assessing workforce quality can involve skills assessments, performance evaluations, and surveys that gauge employee competence in these various skill domains.

Innovation and creativity assume that the degree of innovative thinking exhibited by a person can be used to measure the advancement of human capital. This can involve the number of trademarks or other intellectual property produced, new goods and services development, and other innovation-related indicators (UNCTAD, 2005). Monitoring these metrics facilitates the evaluation of how much an organisation's competitive advantage is enhanced, and innovative culture is fostered by HCD initiatives (OECD, 2005). Although measuring creativity and innovation is sometimes difficult, it is crucial to recognise these traits in people because they can be powerful drivers behind economic development and competitiveness (OECD, 2015).

Additionally, an individual's physical health, mental health, and welfare play a significant role in human capital development (Golovina et al., 2021). This may involve total quality of life and physical and emotional health. There are many ways to assess one's health and well-being, including surveys, health screenings, and evaluations of working circumstances (WHO, 2010). These psychological factors contribute to HCD but are not used as tools to measure HCD.

In most countries, the human development index is often used to measure HCD (Dervis & Klugman, 2011). The concepts of HCD and the human development index are influential. The Human Development Index is an integrated index devised by the UNDP to measure and compare various nations' general progress and well-being (Alkire & Deneulin, 2009). It considers three major aspects of human development: health, education, and standard of living. The human development index asserts how far a nation has progressed in this regard for its citizens through statistical, qualitative findings represented by an actual figure (Citrawan, Widana, & Suarta, 2018). This index enables countries to compare their developmental progress with other nations, as it goes beyond economic metrics to present an accurate depiction of human well-being. For this study, the focus is placed solely on the education index. Education is a critical component of human capital, acting as a catalyst for both individual and societal growth. By focusing on education, the study delves into the complex relationship between T&D programmes and their impact on improving educational attainment and skill acquisition among public servants. Additionally, the South African context, which is distinguished by historical imbalances in education, emphasises the importance of education in tackling developmental issues. By focusing on this component, the study provides a more nuanced picture of how T&D activities might mitigate the impacts of historical imbalances and promote a more equitable public sector.

Additionally, the core tenet of the UNDP's human development report is that growth should be seen to expand individuals' choices and improve their capacities (Sen, 1988; Sen, 1999; Dervis & Klugman, 2011). Human capacity development describes the process of empowerment, which is the ability to develop oneself to live a good life, be literate enough to participate in societal activities successfully, and, most importantly, gain employment. Determining an individual's or a firm's strengths and weaknesses and areas for improvement begins with assessing human potential. Combining several techniques allows for a thorough understanding of a person's or organisation's capabilities and developing plans for improving performance and productivity.

2.13.2 Approaches to Human Capacity Development in the Public Sector

Developing and maintaining a knowledgeable and driven workforce is essential to the smooth and successful functioning of government organisations. Employees in the public sector are given the tools needed to provide high-quality public services through HCD (Andrews et al., 2006). The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS, 1995) published by the South African government aligns with this emphasis on HCD. It describes a public service that is driven by the goal of a people-centred and people-driven government marked by the ideals of fairness, excellence, high ethical standards, and professionalism. The public sector has many different divisions and occupations, each with specific skill needs. Recognising this heterogeneity, effective HCD programmes seek to match public servants' knowledge and abilities with the larger objectives of the public service (Kettl, 2008). For instance, the training programmes necessary for social workers at the Department of Social Development may differ greatly from those for financial management experts in the National Treasury. Nonetheless, within the larger public service framework, they contribute to the overarching goals of increased social well-being and effective resource allocation.

Several important approaches can be utilised to foster HCD within the public service, including pre-service education, in-service training, mentorship, and managerial support.

Pre-service education is the foundation for preparing a competent and well-equipped public service workforce. As Muqadas et al. (2017) emphasised, developing human potential and preparing people for successful employment in the public sector is crucial. Pre-service education provides graduates with the foundational knowledge, abilities, and ethical foundation required to succeed in their chosen public service sectors via focused curricula and practical training experiences (Andrews et al., 2014). This knowledge base covers important topics such as public administration concepts, policy analysis, financial management, and ethical behaviour (Kettl, 2008). South African history emphasises the need for pre-service education. The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS, 1995) emphasises the importance of rigorous pre-service training and education in ensuring that the public sector draws in and retains top talent. Similarly, the WPPSTE (1997) highlighted the potential of learnerships to increase access to pre-service education and training opportunities (DPSA, n.d.). According to the Public Service Internship Programme (DPSA, 2006), a public service internship is a time-limited, planned, structured, and controlled programme that offers work experience. It is a useful programme designed to support individuals' ongoing professional development in preparation for future employment. Learnership offers a useful opportunity for

people, especially those from previously marginalised backgrounds, to enter the public service, develop the skills necessary for successful careers, and combine classroom instruction with supervised on-the-job experience. The WPTPS envisions a changed public service that serves all citizens equally and represents the demographics of South Africa. This emphasis on inclusivity within pre-service education is in line with this vision. Prioritising pre-service education and using pioneering strategies, such as learnerships, can help the public sector develop the next generation of ethical, competent, and well-prepared citizens who are eager to contribute to a more responsive and effective government.

In-service training, often known as workplace training, is a critical component of the public sector's HCD plan, complementing pre-service education (Murphy et al., 2008). While pre-service education provides aspiring public servants with basic knowledge, in-service training expands on that foundation. It equips current public servants with the specialised knowledge and skills to flourish in their respective positions. This focused strategy recognises the dynamic nature of the public service environment. New problems, developing technology, and changing legislation require an adaptable workforce (OECD, 2017). In-service training programmes meet this demand by focusing on two primary goals. First, they intend to improve existing talents. These programmes improve and develop previously acquired skills, ensuring mastery in core areas relevant to specific work responsibilities (Rahmati et al., 2014). Second, in-service training programmes recognise the importance of continuing learning. They provide personnel with new skills and knowledge to help them overcome current obstacles in public service. This emphasis on learning new skills ensures employees stay current on industry best practices, emerging trends, and technological advances (OECD, 2017). Employees who incorporate these new skills and knowledge are empowered to discover creative solutions to complex challenges, potentially encouraging an innovation culture within the public sector (Murphy et al., 2008).

Along with in-service training, ***mentorship and coaching*** are important pillars of HCD in the public sector. These approaches, while unique, share the purpose of promoting individual growth and development. In order to promote knowledge transfer and professional development, mentoring pairs experienced public employees (mentors) with less experienced coworkers (mentees) (Ehrich & Hansford, 2008). The views and direction of an accomplished mentor are beneficial to mentees, as they can offer helpful counsel, encouragement, and role modelling in the particular public service setting. Because of their close relationship, mentors can identify their mentees' strengths and limitations and provide customised support for skill development and career advancement. In contrast, coaching takes a different technique

(Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2005). As facilitators, coaches use methods such as questioning, active listening, and constructive criticism to assist individuals in achieving particular career objectives. By encouraging self-awareness, critical thinking, and problem-solving abilities, this strategy gives public employees the confidence to take charge of their learning and growth. In addition to building resilience and confidence, coaching sessions help people overcome obstacles and adjust to a changing work environment. Although different, coaching and mentoring provide complimentary advantages in an all-encompassing HCD plan. While coaching encourages self-directed learning and flexibility, mentoring offers important direction and support (Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2005). This integrated strategy encourages a culture of lifelong learning in the public sector, giving employees the abilities and information required to prosper in a constantly evolving setting.

Supportive supervision, which builds on in-service training, is another essential component of HCD in the public sector. Although in-service training provides workers with the knowledge and skills they need, supportive supervision creates an atmosphere that enables employees to apply those abilities successfully and enhance their performance over time (Andrews et al., 2014). Supportive supervision, as opposed to conventional, authoritarian methods, employs a helpful, non-authoritarian technique to mentor and inspire employees (Henry et al., 2017). This strategy frequently includes the use of written checklists or assessment forms, as well as supervised visits, to refresh employees' knowledge and highlight areas for improvement (Henry et al., 2017). However, the main goal goes beyond just closing skill gaps. Supportive supervision seeks to create an environment that empowers and encourages employees to think independently, contribute meaningfully, and strive for excellence in their jobs (Andrews et al., 2014). This supportive environment encourages open communication, teamwork, collaborative problem solving, and knowledge sharing within the public sector. It is widely documented that supportive supervision is effective (Yusliza et al., 2021). According to Jaskiewicz and Tulenko (2012), supportive work environment contributes to good service delivery provision. Building on supportive work environment, Avortri et al. (2019) argued the relevance of supportive supervision, as it helps employees advance their knowledge and abilities by creating an environment that encourages learning and development through frequent feedback, acknowledging accomplishments, and group problem-solving. In addition to improving organisational performance and service delivery, this also raises employee morale and motivates them to take on additional tasks, which eventually contribute to the organisation's success (Andrews et al., 2014).

These approaches work to develop and improve the human capacity within the public service, which is vital for the effective functioning of government institutions.

2.13.3 Components of Human Capacity Development

Human capacity development comprises various components that lead to improving the skills, knowledge, and competencies of the public sector workforce. The following is a critical examination of the elements, emphasising their significance and implications for effective CD initiatives.

Training and skills development programmes are critical components of HCD. According to Alaerts and Kaspersma (2009), these programmes aim to improve employees' skills and competencies by providing them with the information and capabilities needed for optimal job performance. Additionally, these programmes ensure that an organisation's human capital is awarded a chance to improve its skills and efficiency for current and future roles. Employees can gain technical, managerial, and leadership skills through training initiatives customised to their needs, allowing them to adapt to changing circumstances and provide quality services. However, to have the greatest impact possible, it is crucial to make sure that training programmes are in line with organisational goals and that their success is assessed (Chiwere & Dick, 2008).

Leadership and management development are also essential to HCD, especially when establishing a capable and successful public sector. Nurturing leaders and managers within an organisation is critical for promoting change, strategic decision-making, and cultivating an innovative culture (Cretchley et al., 2020). Leadership development programmes may emphasise the development of core leadership competencies such as interpersonal skills, problem-solving skills, and decision-making abilities. Furthermore, developing a pool of skilled managers through focused development programmes allows for successful supervision, talent management, and organisational performance (Nzimande, 2017). However, it is important to consider the integration of leadership development programmes with organisational objectives, as well as the establishment of a leadership pipeline (Roupnel et al., 2019).

Additionally, ***succession planning and talent management*** are vital elements of HCD, especially when resolving future skill gaps and ensuring organisational sustainability. Identifying and preparing possible successors for major organisational roles is part of succession planning (Pita & Dhurup, 2019). Implementing ideal succession planning

techniques allows public sector organisations to reduce the risks caused by leadership transitions while maintaining a supply of talented personnel to fill crucial roles. By attracting and keeping individuals, the best talent management practices, such as recruitment, performance management, and career development, contribute to HCD (Nkala et al., 2021). Furthermore, the establishment of comprehensive succession planning and talent management strategies necessitates rigorous alignment with organisational needs, as well as continual evaluation (Chiwere & Dick, 2008).

2.13.4 Human Capacity Development Pillars Relevant to the Study

Several dimensions seek to explain HCD; however, for this study, the following are emphasised:

Skills

Employee skills and knowledge are interrelated and frequently used interchangeably. However, in this study, a differentiation is made between the two. Noe et al. (2017) defined skills as the ability to apply knowledge and expertise to specific tasks or activities. These demonstrate the practical application of information in a real-world setting. Knowledge, alternatively, refers to the theoretical understanding and information gained by means of study and experience (Colquitt et al., 2018). While knowledge is necessary for skill development, the successful application of knowledge is what defines skill.

Employee skills include the expertise, competencies, and abilities employees apply to their organisational duties. These abilities vary from technical knowledge and job-specific skills to interpersonal and problem-solving skills. According to Bhattacharya et al. (2005), skills are important components of job performance, impacting an employee's ability to complete tasks and contributing to overall organisational success. Employee skills are important because they directly impact organisational success and productivity. Organisations with competent workers are better equipped to meet strategic goals, adjust to shifting conditions, and obtain a competitive edge in the market (Uma, 2013). Karim et al. (2019) further stated that developing skills can improve job satisfaction and employee engagement, leading to higher employee retention and overall organisational health. When considering the larger organisational landscape, it becomes clear that developing employee skills is essential to attaining long-term success and preserving a competitive advantage in today's fast-paced and constantly changing corporate world. Thus, the South African public sector, in particular requires skilled personnel who can design and implement initiatives that address pressing social and economic challenges

(Mchunu, 2019). To achieve this, public servants need to engage in continuous learning and upskilling, allowing them to adapt to changing circumstances and align their skills with the demands of their roles (Jonck et al., 2020). As a result, public servants will be better equipped to drive meaningful change and ensure smooth delivery of services.

Knowledge

Metcalfe and Gibbons (1989) and Han and Anatatmula (2007) studied knowledge base and argued that an organisation's knowledge base provides its distinguishing characteristics. How an organisation produces or obtains new knowledge and conveys and expands its knowledge gives a firm its distinctiveness and, in most cases, its competitive advantage. Employee knowledge, including explicit and implicit information, skills, and expertise, is vital in organisational contexts. According to Drucker (1999), Evans (2015), and Qasrawi et al. (2017), a knowledgeable workforce comprises employees who have a comprehensive understanding of their responsibilities that exceeds that of other workers within the organisation (Chopra et al., 2022). This understanding is critical for improving overall organisational efficiency and effectiveness. Furthermore, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) emphasised knowledge's critical role in encouraging creativity and adaptability, emphasising the importance of a culture that encourages the development and sharing of information for organisational success. Furthermore, Davenport et al. (2007) posited that organisations that use employee expertise for data-driven decision-making obtain a competitive advantage in the market, emphasising the strategic significance of informed decision-making.

Imran et al. (2023) supported this perspective, pointing out that investments in staff development and knowledge-building programmes are associated with higher employee satisfaction and retention levels. Furthermore, the literature emphasises the importance of employee knowledge in successful knowledge transfer and succession planning, which are necessary for maintaining organisational effectiveness. As organisations face the difficulties of a changing environment, the capacity to capture and exploit employee knowledge emerges as a strategic essential for long-term success. Therefore, organisations must foster a culture of knowledge development through knowledge management and knowledge-sharing initiatives to ensure a positive relationship between employees and society members. Effective knowledge-sharing initiatives enable organisations and individuals to reuse and regenerate knowledge amongst each other. According to Mårtensson (2000), these initiatives aim to capture, organise, and transfer implicit and explicit information and knowledge within the organisation. Public sector organisations can harness their employees' combined skill sets and

experiences by fostering innovation and continual learning and developing a culture of information sharing. This can be achieved through knowledge-sharing platforms and mentorship programmes (Yusof et al., 2012). In order to achieve successful implementation, problems such as information hoarding and insufficient technological infrastructure must be resolved (Afra et al., 2021).

Knowledge is an essential building component of HCD since it lays the foundation for skill acquisition and application. Organisations can improve their human capital by investing in employee knowledge through training, education, and development activities, which results in higher productivity, innovation, and organisational performance. In essence, knowledge is an important asset that adds to the entire value of an organisation's human capital.

Capability

Employee capabilities are the skills, knowledge, abilities, and traits that people contribute to their positions within an organisation. These skills are crucial in determining an employee's performance and raising the organisation's general efficacy. Employee capacities, or the collective knowledge and skills held by the workforce, are a crucial part of human capital (Becker & Huselid, 2006). The fact that employee competencies directly affect the competitiveness and success of an organisation highlights its importance. According to Delery and Roumpi (2017), companies that have employees with a wide range of advanced skills are better equipped to innovate, adjust to changing market conditions, and gain a long-term competitive edge.

Furthermore, the importance of staff competencies can be seen in their function in building organisational agility and resilience, allowing businesses to overcome obstacles and capitalise on opportunities (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). Understanding and developing staff talents is critical for organisations seeking to improve performance and maintain a competitive edge in today's ever-changing working environment.

Based on extensive discussions provided, this study notes that the capacity of public servants to deliver results is deeply rooted in employees ability to acquire new skills, enhance knowledge, and apply learned competencies in meaningful ways.

2.14 The Role of HCD in the Public Sector

HCD ensures that public services are delivered effectively and efficiently. Public sectors have unique challenges, including complexity, multidimensional issues, and a dynamic environment resulting from rapid technological advancements, demographic shifts, and changing policy

landscapes (Nengwekhulu, 2009). HCD contributes to the broader aims of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by encouraging the acquisition of knowledge and skills relevant to organisational goals, national progress, and individual well-being (Bloomfield et al., 2018). For this study, specific emphasis is placed on Goal 4 (Quality Education) and Goal 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth). Goal 4 emphasises the importance of education as a foundation for individual and societal advancement, whereas Goal 8 emphasises the role of employment and economic growth in developing human potential. These goals were chosen because they have a direct relationship with human capital development.

The South African government knows how important HCD is in accomplishing the National Sustainable Development Goals (NSDGs). The National Planning Commission (2012) noted that the NDP 2030 delineates approaches for allocating resources towards advancing human capital in several domains, such as the public sector. Analysing these programmes and policy documents offers important insights into how the government approaches HCD in the public sector.

In this study, HCD techniques are important for training public servants with the KSAs required to deal with these complexities and provide high-quality public services. One of the most important issues facing the public sector is the potential for skill gaps and shortages. Kanyane et al. (2013) found that such shortages negatively influenced service delivery efficiency. HCD programmes, which include upskilling, training, and development initiatives, are intended to address skill gaps and ensure a competent workforce (Kanyane et al., 2013). The South African setting emphasises this challenge. Kotze and Van der Walt (2002) emphasised the historical legacy of racial discrimination in South Africa's public service, which resulted in "skills scarcity and inadequacies" within the workforce. This presents enormous socioeconomic issues for the government and other public organisations (Bruwer & Smith, 2018). Targeted HCD interventions can help to address historical inequalities and develop a more diverse and talented public service workforce.

Effective HCD extends beyond only addressing skill gaps. It emphasises the strategic alignment of individual competencies with the public sector organisation's overall aims and priorities (Afra et al., 2021). Organisations can create a workforce with the required skills and knowledge to solve current and future issues, thereby contributing to organisational performance and service delivery improvement (Afra et al., 2021). The advantages of HCD go beyond the enhancement of technical abilities. HCD programmes can also improve employee motivation, job satisfaction, and retention (Jamal & Saife, 2011). Organisations engaging in

their employees' continual learning and development generate value and professional advancement, resulting in a more motivated and committed workforce. Furthermore, HCD promotes a culture of learning and creativity in public sector organisations. Organisations can utilise their employees' combined expertise by encouraging information exchange, collaboration, and knowledge sharing (Fischer et al., 2020). This collaborative environment promotes innovation, problem-solving skills, and effective decision-making, resulting in a more responsive and flexible public service sector (Fischer et al., 2020).

It is worth noting that the allocation of responsibility for the provision of T&D to enhance HCD in the South African public sector is complicated and influenced by a number of factors, including the level of government (local, provincial, national), department size, and the nature of the training required (Long et al., 2016). Line managers have traditionally been responsible for identifying training needs and supervising employee growth (Brinkerhoff, 2008). This decentralised method is consistent with the principles of accountability and performance management. However, the growing complexity of the public sector and the demand for specialised skills have forced a more centralised role for HR departments (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010). These departments frequently develop and administer generic training programmes, whereas line managers focus on customising these programmes to individual training needs (Brinkerhoff, 2008). The National School of Government (2022) has emerged as a prominent provider of centralised training and leadership development programmes, notably for senior management. Additionally, the SDLA established a shared responsibility approach, in which organisations pay a tax to fund sector-specific training initiatives. This legislation has enabled a more collaborative approach to T&D among government, labour, and industry partners.

HCD is important to a properly functioning public service. HCD enables public servants to provide high-quality services and handle difficult challenges while contributing to a more efficient and adaptable public sector by addressing skill shortages, aligning individual capabilities with organisational goals, and cultivating a culture of learning and innovation. Furthermore, it is evident that a balanced approach, with centralised and decentralised duties, is required for effective T&D in the South African public sector. This method guarantees that training meets both organisational and individual needs while maximising the utilisation of resources.

2.15 The Relationship Between Training, Development and Human Capacity Development

The relationship between T&D and HCD is central to the debate on organisational performance. At its core, T&D is a strategic tool used to improve employees' knowledge, skills, and capacities, ultimately contributing to HCD. However, the precise nature of this relationship is complex and diverse, influenced by a wide range of organisational, contextual, and human characteristics.

A number of studies highlighted the favourable relationship between T&D and HCD (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Singh, 2021; Burke & Hutchins, 2008; Sal & Raja, 2016; Krishnaveni & Sripirabaa, 2008). For example, Becker (1964) developed the economic view of human capital, suggesting that investments in employee training produce quantifiable returns in terms of productivity and organisational effectiveness. Subsequent research has supported this assumption, finding that well-designed and implemented T&D programmes significantly enhance employee capabilities and work performance (Noe et al., 2017).

However, there is more than one way that T&D and HCD interact. Several academics have noted contextual factors as being crucial in modulating this relationship. Burke and Hutchins (1999), for instance, emphasised how organisational culture and leadership affect the effectiveness of the T&D initiative. Similarly, Arthur and Rousseau (1993) stressed how important it is to have an organisational climate that fosters continual learning in order to maximise the return on T&D investment.

In addition, the idea of developing human capital has expanded to include more organisational aspects in addition to the traditional emphasis on individual capabilities. According to Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), T&D and other HR functions ought to work as strategic collaborators with the organisation to accomplish its goals. From an expanded perspective, it appears that T&D's effect on HCD depends on how well it fits into the overall organisational plan.

Because of the distinct historical, political, and socioeconomic background, the relationship between T&D and HCD in the South African public sector is especially complex. Systemic disparities resulting from apartheid have led to public service with a wide range of skill levels and developmental requirements (Mamokhere, 2022). Studies carried out in the South African public sector have demonstrated how important T&D is in tackling these issues. For example, research conducted by the Public Service Commission has highlighted the necessity of focused

training interventions to improve public servants' competencies, especially in areas such as financial management, leadership, and service delivery (Rykleif & Tengeh, 2022).

However, the efficiency of T&D in the public sector is frequently hampered by factors such as budget constraints, bureaucratic inefficiency, and political interference (Govender, 2009). These problems highlight the significance of a comprehensive and methodical approach to T&D that is consistent with the public service's overall aims. Furthermore, the changing nature of public service delivery, as seen by rising demands for efficiency, accountability, and responsiveness, necessitates a continuing emphasis on HCD. To overcome these difficulties, public servants must have access to continuous learning and development opportunities.

2.16 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature relevant to T&D and HCD. The chapter further discussed factors such as employees' attitudes toward T&D as relevant to HCD. Many dimensions and variables related to the concepts, such as types of training programmes, training needs, knowledge, skills, capabilities, attitudes, and human resource efficiency to assess the role that training critically plays in enhancing human capacity were explored. The next chapter focuses on the study's research methodology.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter examined the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the study. This chapter examines and discusses the methodology of the study. Creswell (2014) defined methodology as “choosing the research design, data gathering methods, analysis of data techniques, and the overall plan for carrying out the study.” It provides a structured plan for researchers to follow while examining and answering research-related inquiries. Research methodology ensures that the study process is rational, transparent, and consistent. It helps researchers communicate the complex processes of gathering and analysing data, resulting in reliable and meaningful results.

According to Kothari (2004), a well-defined research methodology is critical for establishing the validity and trustworthiness of research findings and contributing to the progress of knowledge in various academic areas. Additionally, according to Grix (2002), a research methodology can be considered the critical examination of research methods and their application. It, therefore, focuses on how certain types of research should be conducted (Panas & Pantouvakis, 2010). The term “research methodology” describes the approach a researcher chooses to use in contrast to other possible approaches. The research questions or hypotheses are a conceptual framework for the study, the methods to be employed, their rationale, and, subsequently, the data sources that make up the research methodology, which is informed by particular ontological and epistemological presumptions. These elements are logically and inevitably related (Grix, 2002; Panas & Pantouvakis, 2010). Therefore, this chapter focuses on the research design employed in the study, the population and sample size of the research instrument, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, data analysis and collection, the limitations of the study, and the research ethics.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is the foundation for a study, laying out the precise procedures employed to address the research question. As Salkind (2010) emphasised, a well-defined study design ensures that all components collaborate effectively. Similarly, Bryman and Bell (2015) referred to it as the overall strategy, which includes decisions about research structure, data collection, analysis, and overall design. In essence, the research design is a strategic plan that ensures the study is systematic, well-planned, and adequately addresses the research objective. Given the ethical and logistical limitations of executing actual experiments within organisations (Sekaran

& Bougie, 2016), this study adopts a quantitative method using a correlational non-experimental design.

Bell et al. (2022) emphasised the importance of objectivity in quantitative research, which generates numerical data using measurable variables. This enables statistical techniques to investigate the correlations between these variables. According to Creswell (2014), quantitative research has significant advantages for addressing research questions in many industries. These advantages include accuracy due to systematic data collection procedures, generalisability due to using representative samples, and objectivity due to the emphasis on measurable data (Bloomfield & Fisher, 2019).

Furthermore, this study relies largely on primary data. Primary data, as opposed to secondary data, are acquired directly from individuals using questionnaires. This method ensures the collection of new and particular data relevant to the study objectives.

3.3 Location of Study

Mpumalanga province, South Africa, serves as the location for this study, with a primary focus on the capital city, Mbombela.

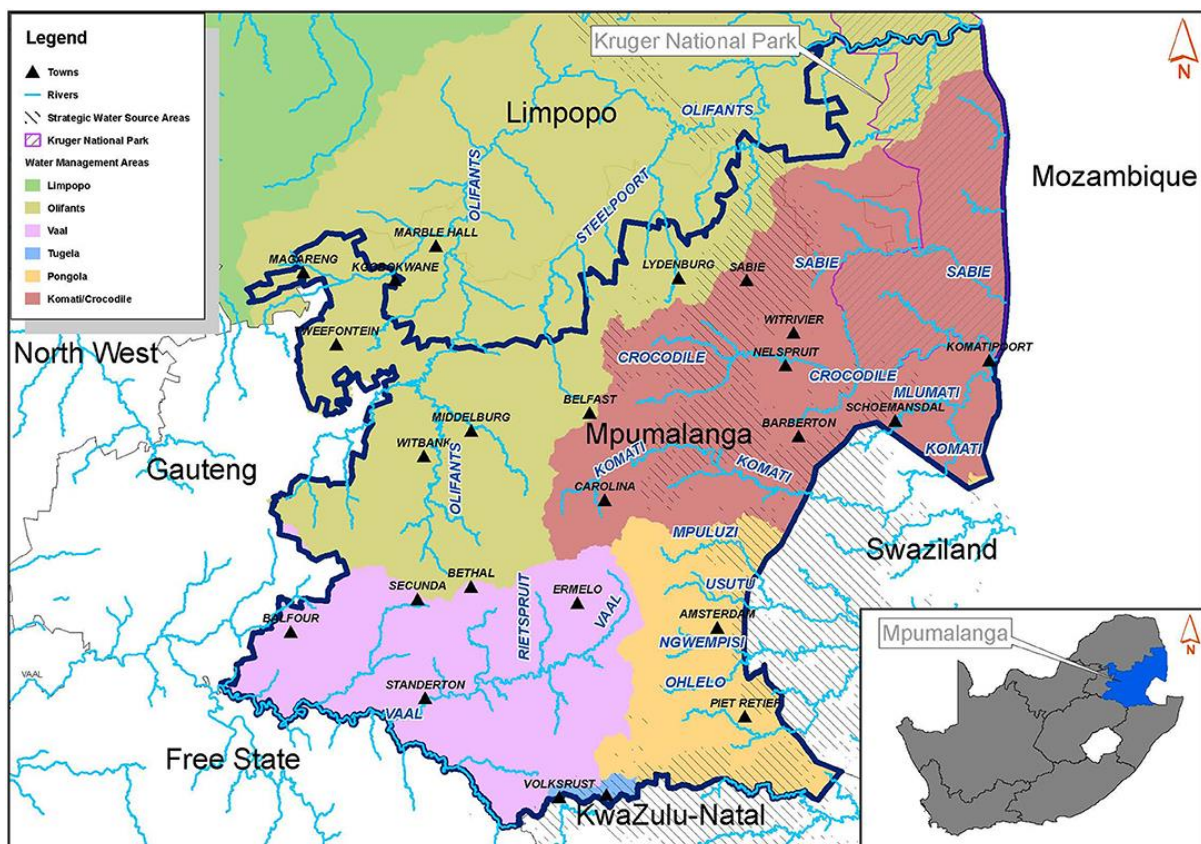


Figure 3.1: Geographical location of the study (Lotter, 2010)

Mpumalanga is a vast and important region in the eastern section of South Africa. With 4 335 964 residents and a 76 495 km² land area, it is the sixth most populous region in the nation. It is between latitudes 25–35 and 31–15 S and longitudes 25–49 and 32–45 E. As the provincial capital of Mpumalanga, Mbombela provides a distinctive study environment with varied geography and greenery. Mbombela has a tropical savanna climate with year-round temperatures that are generally pleasant, ranging from 15°C to 34.8°C. There are two different seasons in this climate: the rainy season, which spans from November to April, and the dry season, which spans from May to September.

Mbombela was chosen as the study's location because of its critical role in Mpumalanga's administrative and economic hub. As the provincial capital, Mbombela is the hub of government activity, hosting the Mpumalanga provincial government offices and serving as the centre for managing and carrying out public policies and programmes. The City of Mbombela is home to the Mpumalanga provincial government, making it the highest concentrated economic centre in the province. Mpumalanga is divided into three district municipalities, Ehlanzeni District, Gert Sibande District and Nkangala District, which are further subdivided into 17 local municipalities (Municipalities SA, n.d.). These district municipalities serve as administrative and governing bodies for their respective regions. The study explores how T&D programmes among Mpumalanga provincial government employees within Mbombela add to the larger discourse on HCD in South Africa.

3.4 Study Population

According to Pandey and Pandey (2021), a population refers to the characteristics of objects, groups, or activities used to gain more insight and knowledge for the study. Similarly, De Vos et al. (2011) stated that population is a term that sets boundaries for the study in that it refers to individuals or events that possess specific characteristics. There are 1 278 employees in the Mpumalanga provincial government and the target population for the study included all employees from semi-skilled and discretionary decision-making (B1–B5), skilled technical and academically qualified/junior management/supervisors/foremen/superintendents (C1–C5), professionally qualified & experienced specialists/mid-management (D1–D5), senior management (E1–E5), and top management (F1–F5) from various departments within the Mpumalanga government complex in Mbombela.

3.5 Sampling

According to Mtetwa (2019), the purpose of sampling is to research the population, so the sample must be selected in a manner that accurately represents the population to be able to generalise the findings to the population.

3.5.1 Sampling Technique

According to Barratt and Shantikumar (2018), as opposed to examining every individual, sampling is a method that enables researchers to conclude a population from data from a sample of that group. Reducing the study's participant base reduces costs and labour, making it much simpler to obtain high-quality data (Taherdoost, 2016). The two basic sampling objectives are determining the population parameter and examining the hypothesis. Sampling has two distinct advantages: it allows for thorough data acquisition and saves time and money. Various sampling techniques can be divided into two distinct categories: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Taherdoost, 2016). The distinction between the two is that probability sampling is founded on the assumption that each element within a population has a known chance of being chosen to form part of the study (Hair et al., 2007). In non-probability sampling, the selection of sample elements is not usually aimed at the statistical representability of the population (Hair et al., 2007).

A non-probability, purposive and convenience sampling technique was used to select the respondents from different departments within the Mpumalanga provincial government. Purposive sampling, or judgment sampling, is the intentional participant selection based on the respondent's attributes (Ilker et al., 2016). It is preferred because it is a non-random technique that does not require any existing theory or a predetermined number of respondents. In layman's terms, the researcher determines what needs to be known and then seeks out individuals who can and are willing to provide the information based on their expertise or knowledge. This approach enables the study to concentrate on individuals who can offer distinctive insights or knowledge that aligns with the study's objectives. According to Schreier (2018), purposive sampling is used to ensure that the chosen respondents are informed and relevant to the setting for the study. The study purposefully selected participants with firsthand experience of T & D initiatives within the public service. This strategic approach ensured the collection of relevant and valuable data that directly addresses the objectives. Moreover, purposive sampling allowed for a diverse representation of perspectives by including respondents from various levels of the public service.

Convenience sampling (also referred to as accidental sampling) is a type of non-probability sampling in which individuals of the target population meet various practical requirements, such as being easily accessible, having a convenient geographical location, and being available at a specific time, or willingness to participate, are included in the study (Davis, 2015). In this case, researchers pick convenient subjects to approach frequently because of their proximity or willingness to engage. Although this strategy is practical, it can potentially induce bias and reduce the generalisation of results. Convenience sampling is frequently used when time, money, or logistics are limited (Davis, 2015).

This study combined convenience and purposive sampling techniques. Convenience sampling facilitated data collection within time and resource restrictions, which is especially important given the widespread nature of the target public servants. Purposive sampling ensured the inclusion of respondents with certain qualities relevant to the study, such as public-sector experience and knowledge.

3.5.2 Sample Size

The sample size of a study depends on the type of sampling technique used. However, estimates of expected sample characteristics (such as mean, proportion, or population), preferred confidence levels, and precision levels should be specified in advance for every sample design (Kabir, 2016). A larger sample size is preferred because it yields reliable and valid results, which lowers the ability of random variations to affect outcomes.

The sample size for this study was determined using Israel's (1992) sample size determination table and Raosoft sample size calculator sample to ensure that the sample size was sufficient to detect a statistically significant difference or relationship.

Table 3.1: The Sample Size Determination Table (Israel, 1992)

Size of Population	Sample Size (n) for Precision (e) of:			
	$\pm 3\%$	$\pm 5\%$	$\pm 7\%$	$\pm 10\%$
500	a	222	145	83
600	a	240	152	86
700	a	255	158	88
800	a	267	163	89
900	a	277	166	90
1,000	a	286	169	91
2,000	714	333	185	95
3,000	811	353	191	97
4,000	870	364	194	98
5,000	909	370	196	98
6,000	938	375	197	98
7,000	959	378	198	99
8,000	976	381	199	99
9,000	989	383	200	99
10,000	1,000	385	200	99
15,000	1,034	390	201	99
20,000	1,053	392	204	100
25,000	1,064	394	204	100
50,000	1,087	397	204	100
100,000	1,099	398	204	100
>100,000	1,111	400	204	100

The sample size was selected based on Israel's (1992) table. This study considered that there are 1,278 employees in the Mpumalanga provincial government. Hence, the target sample size for the study ranged between 286 and 333, with a 5% precision level so that the study results could be reliable and generalisable. It is common practice for research studies to adopt a 5% margin of error to guarantee that findings are sufficient without being excessively complicated or restricted by sample size constraints (Lakens, 2022). Therefore, this study chose a 5% margin of error to determine population characteristics from sample data since it provides an acceptable balance between precision and applicability. Most research studies employ a 5% margin of error to guarantee that findings are sufficient without being excessively complicated or restricted by sample size constraints (Lohr, 2021; Lakens, 2022).

3.6 Research Instrument

According to Oben (2021), a research instrument is a tool that has been scientifically and methodically created to collect, analyse, and interpret data relating to research objectives and findings. Typically, researchers must choose an instrument depending on the type of study they are undertaking (Oben, 2021). This study used the survey method of questionnaires. According

to Rahman (2016), quantitative researchers mostly use questionnaires because they are particularly useful for collecting vast volumes of data from a broad sample of people. Using questionnaires to do research saves time, and respondents can fill out questionnaires at a convenient time. A closed-ended questionnaire was self-developed by the researcher. Questionnaires are important for acquiring useful insight and information from employees, managers, and other key organisational stakeholders (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Developing a well-organised and reliable questionnaire entails multiple important steps that guarantee the validity and reliability of the data obtained (Nulty, 2008). Figure 3.2 gives an outline of the sequential steps that were followed in the questionnaire development process that corresponds with the research aim and objectives of this study.



Figure 3.2 Research instrument design steps followed by the researcher

Source: Author's compilation

Step 1: Background

The researcher clearly specified the group of people from whom the data was to be collected as the target population in the initial stage of this process, using the term “Mpumalanga provincial government employees”. Additionally, the purpose and objectives of the study were outlined to serve as a basis for developing the questionnaire. Furthermore, the research

questions and hypotheses were developed to guarantee the study's focus and provide a framework for the next steps in the questionnaire development process.

Step 2: Conceptualisation

The researcher conducted a thorough literature analysis at this stage to find existing information and theories linked to T&D and HCD. Based on the study, suitable questions were developed to measure key dimensions such as attitudes, knowledge, skills, and capabilities. Lastly, the phrasing and format of the questions were carefully considered to ensure they were clear and avoid any form of bias.

Step 3: Format and Analysis

The researcher chose the proper measurement scales for the questionnaire items in this step. The type of data being gathered informed the choice of scales, such as nominal, ordinal, or interval. Furthermore, to assess the role of T&D on HCD and employee attitudes towards T&D accurately, a 6-point Likert scale style was adopted instead of the 5-point Likert scale. Ordinal scales were used for this study. Ordinal scales are widely employed in 6-point Likert scale questionnaires to accurately evaluate attitudes and opinions (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Churchill, 1979; Likert, 1932; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Jebb, Ng & Tay, 2021). This is because ordinal scales allow respondents to effectively express their perceptions on a range of levels without needing precise quantification (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Jebb et al., 2021).

Step 4: Conduct a Pilot Study

Before distributing the final questionnaire to the population, two pilot studies were conducted, with the first comprising 15 employees and the second amongst 50 employees. Those pilot studies aimed to detect any possible questionnaire constraints, such as ambiguous or leading questions. Feedback from the pilot studies was used to refine the questionnaire and increase its quality.

Step 5: Run Analysis

After collecting data from the pilot study, the researcher analysed the responses using SPSS to establish the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument assesses what it intends to measure, and reliability is the stability and repeatability of a measure (Cohen et al., 2017). The focus was placed on item analysis, which is used to recognise questions unsuitable for use in the instrument, and factor analysis, which was used to examine the instrument's construct validity. Additionally, Cronbach's coefficient

alpha was used to determine the internal reliability of the instrument, whereby a coefficient of 0,90 refers to high reliability, 0,80 refers to moderate reliability, and 0,70 refers to low reliability (Nunnally, 1975; George & Mallery, 2021).

The findings from the pilot study were as follows.

a) Reliability results of the first pilot study

Table 3.2 gives a disposition of the reliability of the first proposed instrument (see Addendum A):

Table 3.2: Statistical Reliability Initial Research Instrument

Reliability statistics of the questionnaire		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.545	.602	59

As evident in Table 3.2, the questionnaire's initial reliability analysis generated Cronbach's alpha values of **0.545** and **0.602**, indicating moderately low internal consistency. This alpha value is lower than the typical permissible range of **0.70** or higher, indicating poor internal validity. In agreement, DeVellis (2021) stated that for most research applications, a Cronbach's alpha value above .70 is usually regarded as appropriate. These findings indicated that the instrument needed further refining to improve its reliability and validity. Item redundancy, poor item quality, multidimensionality, and small sample size were all possible contributing factors to the low reliability. To address these concerns, the instrument underwent multiple revisions, including item analysis, factor analysis, expert review, and further pilot testing. These steps attempted to improve the questionnaire's clarity, consistency, and overall quality, ensuring that it is appropriate for measuring the desired constructs in the study.

b) Reliability results of the second pilot study

Table 3.3 is a disposition of the findings of the reliability and validity of the pilot study:

Table 3.3: Statistical Reliability of Final Research Instrument

Reliability statistics of the questionnaire		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.853	.877	57

Table 3.3 displays the Cronbach's alpha analysis reliability test findings *for the* self-developed questionnaire on *training and development and human capacity development*. The questionnaire's reliability value of .853 indicates an acceptable degree of internal consistency among the items within the instrument. A Cronbach coefficient of **0.853** indicates that the questionnaire items consistently assess the intended construct, suggesting a high level of reliability. This number is higher than the typical permissible range of **0.70** or higher, indicating strong internal validity. In agreement, DeVellis (2021) stated that for most research applications, a Cronbach's alpha value above **0.70** is usually regarded as appropriate.

The reliability of the questionnaire is critical in ensuring that it consistently delivers identical results when delivered to the same group under identical circumstances. In this case, the acquired coefficient shows that the questionnaire is reliable and produces consistent results, thus enhancing the study's overall validity.

Step 6: Evaluation

Based on the results of the pilot study, an evaluation of the instrument was done. Before distributing the questionnaire to the intended population, the researcher requested input from a statistician and made the required changes per their suggestions. This process ensured the questionnaire's validity, relevance, and practicality in attaining the research objectives. Creating a well-structured questionnaire is an important part of conducting research. Following the aforementioned methods improved the instrument's validity and reliability, allowing the researcher to collect more accurate and relevant data.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Data were gathered using a self-developed questionnaire. The questionnaire contained closed-ended questions designed to assess the impact of T&D programmes on HCD and employee attitudes towards T&D programmes. The questionnaire consisted of five sections. The first

section (A) obtained information on the demographics of employees. The second section (B) contained questions on employee perceptions/attitudes of training programmes offered to them. The third section (C) comprised questions on employee's perceptions/attitudes towards the development programmes offered. The fourth section (D) consisted of questions on the actual training and development attended by employees. The fifth section (E) included questions on HCD dimensions.

The researcher designed a structured questionnaire based on themes identified in the research questions and the proposed conceptual framework. The types of questions included 6-point Likert scale responses (strongly agree/ agree/ somewhat agree/ somewhat disagree/ disagree/ strongly disagree). The researcher physically administered the questionnaire to the employees. This was done to provide clarity on respondents' questions. The following methods were used to assess the reliability and validity of the self-developed questionnaire:

3.7.1 Pilot Study

A pilot study, according to Lowe (2019), is a smaller version or trial run designed to test the practicality of a more extensive study, detect and address logistical issues before the larger study, or refine the design and quality of the study. Similarly, Elridge et al. (2016) defined a pilot study as a preliminary research effort conducted before the actual study to analyse and perfect research methodology, processes, and data-gathering techniques. Its importance stems from its ability to discover and handle potential concerns, assess the practicality of the research design, and make required changes before conducting the main investigation. The advantages of doing a pilot study are numerous. Notably, it allows researchers to perfect their research design, assuring coherence and usefulness. A pilot study also aids in determining the conciseness of questions and the applicability of specified procedures by evaluating data collection methods such as surveys or interviews. In addition to methodological refinement, pilot studies provide estimates of the necessary resources, assisting in accurate resource allocation (Lowe, 2019).

A pilot study in this research entailed pre-testing the questionnaire with a small sample of employees (50 employees) to ensure the questions were clear and easy to comprehend. The pilot study's findings were used to improve the questionnaire before it was administered for the main study.

3.7.2 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis helps identify which items correspond in that they are answered similarly and thus measure the same dimension of factor (Maree & van der Westhuizen, 2009). The factor is shared by the items being measured. This technique is also known as common factor analysis. According to Hair et al. (2019), factor analysis is especially beneficial when dealing with excessive variables and attempting to narrow them to a smaller set of interpretable factors. It is commonly utilised in domains such as psychology, social sciences, and market research to elucidate the underlying factors that underlie observed response patterns.

Factor analysis is classified into two main types, namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA. Exploratory factor analysis is employed when researchers have little prior knowledge or hypotheses about the underlying factors. The goal is to understand the latent structure of the data (Kline, 2012). Exploratory factor analysis entails extracting and rotating variables from a correlation matrix in order to increase interpretability, whereas CFA is used to validate a proposed factor structure. Researchers create a model based on theoretical frameworks and then evaluate the models fit to the data. CFA is commonly used to validate existing instruments or to compare existing instruments. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a more advanced form of CFA that allows researchers to evaluate complex models with several latent variables and their relationships (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Hair et al., 2019).

Overall, factor analysis is a valuable tool for assessing a self-developed questionnaire's construct validity and reliability by identifying the underlying factors or dimensions that contribute to the responses to the questionnaire items.

3.7.3 Reliability

The extent to which measurement equipment consistently gives the same results on multiple occasions under identical conditions is described as reliability (Price et al., 2015). It reflects the instrument's capacity to measure a specific construct accurately and reliably. In research instruments, reliability refers to the coherence, stability, and dependability of the measurements obtained by the instrument throughout time and under varied situations (Price et al., 2015). When used repeatedly, it evaluates the instrument's ability to deliver reliable and uniform findings. A trustworthy instrument guarantees that random errors or fluctuations do not significantly alter the measurements taken. The internal reliability of the questionnaire was established using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha determines the internal consistency or average of items in a survey instrument to gauge reliability (Santos, 1999; Bonett & Wright,

2015). The test indicates whether the results of a study will be consistent and replicable. Cronbach coefficient values between **0,5** and **0,8** are regarded as acceptable for self-developed research instruments (Taber, 2018; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011; Bujang et al., 2018).

3.8 Data Analysis

Data analysis is perhaps the most crucial part of any research project. The act of condensing the information gathered is called data analysis (Wickam & Wickam, 2016). It involves applying analytical and logical thinking to analyse the data and identifying patterns, correlations or trends. Furthermore, Sekeran (2006) posited three main objectives of data analysis: getting the feel of the data, examining the data quality, and testing the study's hypothesis.

This study used a combination of inferential and descriptive statistics, and the pilot study data was analysed using SPSS version 28; however, for the final analysis of the study, the mathematical programming software R version 4.3.1 and STATA version 18 were used to analyse data. Those adaptable tools are widely used in academia and industry to do statistical analysis, data diagramming, and modelling. R, an open-source programme, provides a wide variety of packages, allowing for extensive and complex analyses (de Micheaux et al., 2013). STATA is software that has a user-friendly interface and is well-suited for a variety of statistical approaches, notably those involving longitudinal data analysis and panel data modelling (Gutierrez, 2010). R and STATA have been extensively employed in different domains, such as social sciences, economics, and medical research, confirming their reliability and practicality for data analysis (Bartolucci et al., 2015).

3.8.1 Descriptive Statistics

A subset of descriptive statistics deals with presenting and summarising data clearly and understandably. It summarises a dataset's key characteristics, assisting researchers in understanding and successfully conveying the data. Descriptive statistics, such as frequency distribution, percentage, measures of central tendency, pie charts, and bar graphs, were used to summarise and interpret respondents' demographic information.

3.8.1.1 Frequency Distribution

A frequency distribution is a table or graph showing how often each value or category appears in a dataset. It aids in the identification of patterns, central tendencies, and variations in data. According to Ross and Willson (2017), frequency distributions convey an understandable

visual picture of the data distribution. This study focused on graphical data displays, including pie charts and bar graphs. With each category depicted as a slice of the pie, a pie chart shows the percentage of various categories within the pie. In contrast, bar graphs, which simplify comparisons, employ rectangular bars to indicate values or frequency of several categories.

3.8.1.2 Percentage

According to Mishra et al. (2019), percentages represent a portion of a total as a fraction of 100. They aid in comprehending the relative contribution of various categories within a dataset. Percentages are very useful for comparing proportions across groups or categories.

3.8.1.3 Measures of Central Tendency

Central tendency measures are statistical techniques that employ a single value to summarise a dataset, offering a picture of the “typical” or “average” data point (McCluskey & Lalkhen, 2007). As Manikandan (2011) pointed out, these metrics provide a concise representation of the entire data set, facilitating data interpretation and comparison.

The mean is the most frequent measure of central tendency, sometimes known as the “average” (Manikandan, 2011). It is computed by adding the values of all observations in the dataset and dividing by the total number of observations. This basic method establishes a focal point around which data tends to cluster. However, the mean can be susceptible to outliers, extreme values that differ significantly from the rest of the data (Trakulkasemsuk, 2014). These outliers can skew the mean, making it less reflective of the average data point in such circumstances. Additionally, when a dataset has been organised in order, the median is the number in the middle. Extreme values have less impact and better represent the average value, particularly in skewed distributions. The mode is the most often occurring value in a dataset. It measures the most common value and is particularly effective for categorical or discrete data.

3.8.2 Inferential Statistics

According to Asadoorian and Kantarelis (2005), inferential statistics enables researchers to infer information about a population and derive conclusions from a sample of data. Making predictions, testing hypotheses, and inferring results to a wider population all entail using sample data. Inferential statistics offers a framework for making wise decisions and deriving significant insights from data outside the immediate focus of the research. Sutanapong and Louangrath (2015) described inferential statistics as enabling statistics to investigate connections, spot trends, and evaluate the importance of discoveries in a larger context.

Inferential statistics were employed to determine the impact of T&D towards HCD, to examine the relationship between TD and HCD, as well as ascertain employee attitudes towards T&D programmes based on selected demographic variables.

3.8.2.1 Objective One

To explore the relationship between dimensions of training and development (ease, facilitation, quality of training programmes; career and personal development) and human capacity development (knowledge, skills, capabilities) among Mbombela government employees

This objective is achieved using SEM to examine and ascertain the relationship between T&D and HCD dimensions. Furthermore, SEM is used to investigate the hypothesised correlations. According to Kline (2012), SEM is a useful statistical approach for investigating complex relations and determining potential causal relationships among numerous variables. In this context, SEM enables investigation into how the dimensions of T&D programmes (considered independent variables) may influence the various dimensions of HCD (considered dependent variables).

3.8.2.2 Objective Two

To determine the impact of training and development attended on human capacity development based on knowledge, skills, and capabilities amongst employees in the public service

This objective is achieved using SEM. The impact of latent constructs on measured variables may be simulated by combining elements of multiple regression and factor analysis (Byrne, 2016). The independent variable in this study is T&D, whilst the dependent variable is HCD, which is further broken down into knowledge, skills, and capabilities. With this technique, the direct and indirect effects of T&D programmes on HCD may be calculated, leading to an improved understanding of their impact.

The study chose SEM because of its ability to address the limitations of traditional regression analysis. Unlike regression, SEM can account for measurement error in observed variables and predict the interrelationships between several variables simultaneously.

3.8.2.3 Objective Three

To evaluate differences in employee's attitudes towards the dimensions of training and development programmes offered by the public service based on selected demographic variables

To answer this objective, the Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal Wallis test were used to evaluate differences in employees' attitudes regarding the T&D programmes offered. These tests are particularly suitable for analysing survey data on attitudes and perceptions, which often deviate from a normal distribution (MacFarland et al., 2016). They rely on ranks rather than raw scores, making them less prone to the influence of outliers in the data. This is crucial for analysing employee attitudes, which might be subjectively expressed and potentially skewed by extreme responses.

Due to the possibility of non-normality in employee attitude scores, non-parametric statistical tests were used to analyse the data. The Mann-Whitney U test is used to compare attitudes between two independent groups, specifically gender. Because gender is commonly divided into two groups (male and female), the Mann-Whitney U test is a suitable non-parametric alternative to the independent samples t-test (MacFarland et al., 2016). However, it should be noted that the instrument categorised gender into three options: male, female, and other. This allowed for individuals who do not identify as either male or female to specify their gender identity. However, no respondents selected the 'other' option. The Kruskal-Wallis test was also used to assess potential differences in attitudes between several independent groups, specifically job titles. Because job titles often include more than two categories (e.g., manager, administrator, analyst), the Kruskal-Wallis test is a suitable non-parametric alternative to one-way ANOVA (MacFarland et al., 2016)

3.9 Research Ethical Considerations

Apart from the significance of choosing a suitable research methodology and methods, the importance of ethical issues in conducting research cannot be overstated. De Vos et al. (2011) defined ethics as moral principles that are put in place by an individual or a group of people and offer rules and behavioural expectations about correct conduct. Additionally, ethics are used to evaluate researchers' behaviour throughout the research process. The following ethical issues were considered during this study in accordance with the university's policies and regulations for conducting research involving human beings.

3.9.1 Permission

In order to ensure the formalisation of the process, the first step was to obtain ethical clearance from the Faculty of Economics, Development and Business Sciences research ethical committee. Upon receiving ethical clearance, a letter of request was sent to the Mpumalanga provincial government office to request a gatekeeper's letter, which was accompanied by a letter requesting to conduct research in that organisation. Upon receipt of the gatekeeper's letter, the data collection process commenced.

3.9.2 Confidentiality and Privacy

Brink and Van der Walt (2006) stated that confidentiality pertains to the researcher's responsibility never to allow respondents' data to be accessible to others besides themselves. Confidentiality indicates that the information of respondents is securely protected by maintaining privacy and anonymity in terms of respondents' identities and other personal details. Additionally, privacy is the concept of individual privacy, whereas confidentiality refers to the handling of information in a safe manner (De Vos et al., 2011).

The respondents were informed that their names would be kept strictly confidential. This element involves the trust concept, which guarantees the respondents and the host organisation that their trust and participation would not be used for self-gain. Moreover, it was stated that the research is for academic purposes only. The Protection of Personal Information (POPI) Act's provisions guided confidentiality and privacy issues (South African Government, 2013).

3.9.3 Voluntary Participation and Informed Consent

The respondents were informed about voluntary participation and their ability to withdraw from the research at any stage. Attached to the instrument was a letter of informed consent that assured the respondents that participation was by choice and that they had the right to refuse to form part of the study. The informed consent principle was also verbally communicated to respondents. The informed consent letter was used to ensure that the intended respondents were safeguarded.

3.9.4 Data Management

All respondent's data were safely saved using password-protected electronic files after data collection. In compliance with the research ethical policies of the university, data will be kept for five years. Any personally identifiable information will be safely erased using secure data deletion software and hard copies will be shredded after the retention term.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a comprehensive outline of this study's research methodology and design. The research design, sampling technique, sample size, instrument, and data analysis of the study were explained and supported with relevant literature. The importance of ethical considerations was also provided in the chapter. The next will delve into the interpretation and findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an in-depth analysis of the data gathered through a self-developed questionnaire. The questionnaire was self-administered to 302 Mbombela government employees, and 286 useful responses were retrieved, which amounted to a response rate of 94.7%. Notably, the 286 questionnaires were returned without error, forming the foundation of this study.

The data were collected, cleaned, coded and captured on an Excel spreadsheet. The captured data were analysed using mathematical programming software R version 4.3.1 and STATA version 18. The subsequent sections of this chapter provide an extensive overview of the data, using various graphical and statistical tools to explain the findings clearly. In addition, the data is interpreted and analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics to provide a greater understanding of the dataset's patterns, trends, and linkages.

Prior to the foregoing presentation of results, the descriptives, normality, reliability and validity of the self-developed instrument is provided.

4.2 Descriptive Results of the Study

According to Vetter (2017) descriptive statistics are the methods for analysing and summarising data in a logical, comprehensible, and efficient manner. This section provides the descriptive results of the study.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics of the research instrument

	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Median	Min	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
ETP1	286	4,601399	1,1247759	5	1	6	-0,8274	0,718559
ETP2	286	4,611888	1,136198	5	1	6	-0,76258	0,464664
ETP3	286	4,625874	1,1347286	5	1	6	-0,94322	0,938184
ETP4	286	4,583916	1,1539194	5	1	6	-0,98924	1,091628
ETP5	286	4,625874	1,1285273	5	1	6	-0,86761	0,860538
FTP1	286	4,339161	1,2141005	4	1	6	-0,4564	-0,2254
FTP2	286	4,437063	1,1852413	5	1	6	-0,56245	-0,11215
FTP3	286	4,482517	1,1477095	5	1	6	-0,45691	-0,3977
FTP4	286	4,444056	1,1973727	5	1	6	-0,54662	-0,25937
FTP5	286	4,395105	1,1763058	4	1	6	-0,48994	-0,16733
QTP1	286	4,472028	1,1227726	4	1	6	-0,38993	-0,20456
QTP2	286	4,5	1,1355499	5	1	6	-0,35818	-0,4474
QTP3	286	4,454545	1,1621352	4	1	6	-0,32466	-0,55475
QTP4	286	4,472028	1,1258934	4	1	6	-0,29074	-0,47614
QTP5	286	4,454545	1,1377249	4	1	6	-0,37968	-0,27623
CD1	286	4,664336	1,0324154	5	1	6	-0,59507	0,457877
CD2	286	4,646853	1,035056	5	1	6	-0,50741	0,292369
CD3	286	4,601399	1,0303456	5	1	6	-0,39665	0,010936
CD4	286	4,772727	0,9880466	5	1	6	-0,68853	0,600323
CD5	286	4,713287	1,0130543	5	1	6	-0,73879	0,79069
CD6	286	4,681818	1,0018325	5	1	6	-0,64937	0,695356
PD1	286	4,493007	1,1168345	5	1	6	-0,47951	0,025948
PD2	286	4,479021	1,0717654	4	1	6	-0,32063	-0,2665
PD3	286	4,562937	1,127592	5	1	6	-0,55115	-0,13606
PD4	286	4,524476	1,097571	5	1	6	-0,61738	0,468282
PD5	286	4,594406	1,1285001	5	1	6	-0,59189	0,021084
PD6	286	4,65035	1,080992	5	1	6	-0,65446	0,299996
TD1	286	4,706294	1,0551938	5	1	6	-0,78909	0,88117
TD2	286	4,769231	1,0238716	5	1	6	-0,54612	0,178385
TD3	286	4,797203	1,0263848	5	1	6	-0,59809	0,224317
TD4	286	4,576923	1,0153345	5	1	6	-0,68958	1,049844
TD5	286	4,751748	1,0452468	5	1	6	-0,70644	0,537563
TD6	286	4,727273	0,9746385	5	1	6	-0,65975	0,545611
TD7	286	4,783217	1,0269345	5	1	6	-0,79944	0,816337
TD8	286	4,63986	1,1545571	5	1	6	-0,89327	0,719345
TD9	286	4,594406	1,1033459	5	1	6	-0,71522	0,638198
TD10	286	4,737762	1,0384404	5	1	6	-0,77454	0,784493
TD11	286	4,657343	1,0929111	5	1	6	-0,90143	1,188165
K1	286	4,496503	1,1137049	5	1	6	-0,48483	0,000429
K2	286	4,534965	1,1256972	5	1	6	-0,53532	-0,01522
K3	286	4,402098	1,0805436	4	1	6	-0,41294	0,140328
K4	286	4,524476	1,1102847	5	1	6	-0,62857	0,195253
K5	286	4,538462	1,1003619	5	1	6	-0,59333	0,183031
K6	286	4,531469	1,1132642	5	1	6	-0,54258	0,013278
K7	286	4,506993	1,0817238	4,5	1	6	-0,42402	0,01609
S1	286	4,699301	0,9405856	5	2	6	-0,45703	-0,12289
S2	286	4,723776	0,9160907	5	2	6	-0,38554	-0,15941
S3	286	4,681818	0,9478423	5	1	6	-0,61336	0,571382
S4	286	4,723776	0,8849191	5	2	6	-0,28272	-0,35856
S5	286	4,727273	0,9152265	5	1	6	-0,47833	0,296313
S6	286	4,748252	0,9250398	5	2	6	-0,35891	-0,35313
C1	286	4,583916	0,9318648	5	2	6	-0,0755	-0,54122
C2	286	4,601399	0,9524842	5	2	6	-0,10804	-0,62219
C3	286	4,611888	0,9438993	5	2	6	-0,16062	-0,56391
C4	286	4,615385	0,9655329	5	2	6	-0,17542	-0,45559
C5	286	4,629371	0,9490776	5	2	6	-0,13907	-0,60128
C6	286	4,601399	0,9850807	5	1	6	-0,26035	-0,15699

The questionnaire was arranged to get the total number of each item in the following order: strongly disagree (SD)= 1 point; disagree(D)= 2 points; somewhat disagree (SD)= 3 points; somewhat agree (SA)= 4 points; disagree (D)= 5 points; strongly disagree (SD)= 6. As seen in Table 4.1, it is evident that the questionnaire scales are such that high scores indicate a positive attitude towards T&D and HCD. In contrast, low scores indicate a negative attitude towards T&D and HCD. A mean score closer to 6 indicates a high significance, whereas a mean score closer to 1 represents a low significance.

As seen in Table 4.1, descriptive statistics were calculated to summarise the distribution of scores for each item. The means for the items ranged from 4.33 (FTP1) to 4.79 (TD3), they are all above average (3), generally indicating high scores and attitudes across all measures. Standard deviations ranged from 0.93 (CD3) to 1.21 (FTP1), suggesting some variability in the data. As noted by Babbie (2010), a standard deviation close to 1 indicates that responses are distributed fairly evenly across the scale, suggesting a good spread of opinions. This means there was a relatively low level of disagreement among respondents on those items. Conversely, a standard deviation greater than 1 suggests that responses are more spread out, indicating a higher degree of differences in opinions. This means that respondents had more diverse views on those particular items. Furthermore, the medians were generally close to the means, supporting a central tendency around the reported means. Minimum and maximum scores indicated the range of responses on each measure.

Skewness values ranged from -0.98 (ETP4) to -0.26 (PD2), with most variables exhibiting negative skew. This suggests a slight distribution asymmetry, with tails extending towards lower scores. Kurtosis values ranged from -1.19 (K3) to 1.09 (TD4). Most of the items exhibited negative kurtosis.

4.2.1 Research Instrument

As shown in Figure 1.1, the conceptual model consists of nine multifaceted latent variables that cannot be measured through a single observed variable. Thus, multiple observed items are used to measure each of the latent variables of the conceptual model. The first three variables relate to employee attitudes towards training programmes; variables four and five relate to employee attitudes towards development programmes; variable six relates to the actual training and development attended by employees; and the remaining variables relate to employees' HCD.

4.2.1.1 Reliability and Validity of the Self-Developed Questionnaire

Before proceeding with the validity of the self-developed research instrument, a check was conducted for the normality of measurement items using both multivariate and univariate normality tests. The normality of data is important, as the estimation method in EFA and CFA is dependent on the normality of data. Therefore, univariate and multivariate normality tests were conducted to assess the distribution of measurement items using the Anderson-Darling (Anderson & Darling, 1954) and Henze-Zirkler (Henze & Zirkler, 1990) tests, respectively.

Table 4.2.1: Multivariate and univariate normality test results

Multivariate Normality				
Test	HZ		p-value	MVN
1	Henze-Zirkler	4,904436	0	NO
Univariate Normality				
Test	Variable	Statistic	p-value	Normality
Anderson-Darling	ETP1	12,1776	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	ETP2	11,9558	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	ETP3	13,0492	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	ETP4	13,152	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	ETP5	12,1884	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	FTP1	9,0896	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	FTP2	10,114	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	FTP3	10,4218	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	FTP4	10,2029	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	FTP5	9,7193	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	QTP1	10,4642	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	QTP2	10,5406	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	QTP3	10,1584	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	QTP4	10,6716	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	QTP5	10,2171	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	CD1	12,401	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	CD2	12,4471	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	CD3	12,3715	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	CD4	13,6791	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	CD5	13,1809	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	CD6	12,9342	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	PD1	10,5308	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	PD2	10,9175	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	PD3	10,9736	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	PD4	11,1167	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	PD5	11,1342	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	PD6	11,8617	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD1	12,7171	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD2	13,9704	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD3	14,0096	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD4	13,2042	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD5	13,5782	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD6	13,956	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD7	13,9439	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD8	12,7794	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD9	12,6678	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD10	13,0755	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	TD11	12,7208	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K1	10,7683	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K2	10,7607	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K3	11,4614	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K4	11,2631	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K5	11,1585	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K6	10,784	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	K7	11,0927	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	S1	14,119	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	S2	14,5619	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	S3	14,346	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	S4	15,264	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	S5	14,6499	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	S6	14,3632	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	C1	14,5974	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	C2	13,967	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	C3	13,6975	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	C4	14,2231	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	C5	14,0628	<0.001	NO
Anderson-Darling	C6	13,6807	<0.001	NO

According to Table 4.2.1, Henze-Zirkler's test was conducted to assess the overall multivariate normality of the data. The test statistic (4.904436) and the associated p-value (0) indicated a statistically significant rejection of the null hypothesis of multivariate normality. Additionally, Anderson-Darling normality tests were conducted for each individual variable. All variables exhibited statistically significant deviations from normality (p-values < **0.001**). The results indicated that neither the multivariate nor individual variable distributions follow a normal distribution.

Furthermore, the reliability results of each section of the questionnaire is provided prior to the presentation of the results. Table 4.2.2 shows the reliability results:

Table 4.2.2: Cronbach's alpha coefficients of dimensions of the instrument

Cronbach alpha coefficients	
Ease of Training Programmes (ETP)	0,92
Facilitation of Training Programme (FTP)	0,81
Quality of Training Programmes (QTP)	0,94
Career Development (CD)	0,86
Personal Development (PD)	0,88
Training and Development (T&D)	0,84
Knowledge (K)	0,92
Skills (S)	0,94
Capabilities (C)	0,94

As displayed in Table 4.2.2, all dimensions of the self-developed questionnaire achieved Cronbach's alpha values above 0.7 with coefficient values ranging from α **0,81** to **0,94**. This indicated good internal consistency, suggesting that the items within each dimension effectively measured the intended constructs. These findings strengthen the reliability of the data collected for further analysis in this study. Furthermore, the findings indicated that the items are suited for factor analysis, which provides a solid foundation for exploring the underlying factor structure.

Furthermore, eigenvalues and scree plots were employed to identify the optimal number of factors to extract in the factor analysis. Initially, a threshold of eigenvalues greater than 1.0 was considered to determine the number of relevant factors. This initial solution resulted in a model fit of TLI (Tucker-Lewis index) = 0.716 and RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) = 0.04. However, to potentially improve the model fit, the number of factors extracted was subsequently increased, to provide a stable and interpretable model. The scree plot in Figure 4.1 guided the final decision regarding the number of factors, the eigenvalues in

Table 4.2.1, which indicate the amount of variance explained by each extracted factor, and the interpretability of the factors themselves.

Table 4.2.3: Eigenvalues from Factor Analysis

Factors	Parallel values (Eigen values)
Factor 1. Actual training and Development attended (TD)	38,3536522
Factor 2. Career development (CD)	2,97820964
Factor 3. Capability (C)	1,8372935
Factor 4. Quality of Training (QTP)	1,3578176
Factor 5. Knowledge (K)	1,15012754
Factor 6. Ease of Training (ETP)	0,93794314
Factor 7. Personal Development (PD)	0,82114154
Factor 8. Facilitation of Training (FTP)	0,64019282
Factor 9. Skills (S)	0,54918507

Table 4.2.3 shows the eigenvalues from the factor analysis; a higher eigenvalue suggests that a factor accounts for a greater proportion of the variation in the data. Table 4.2.3 shows that the first factor (actual Training and Development attended - TD) has the highest eigenvalue (38.354), indicating that it accounts for the most variance in the data. The remaining eigenvalues decrease gradually.

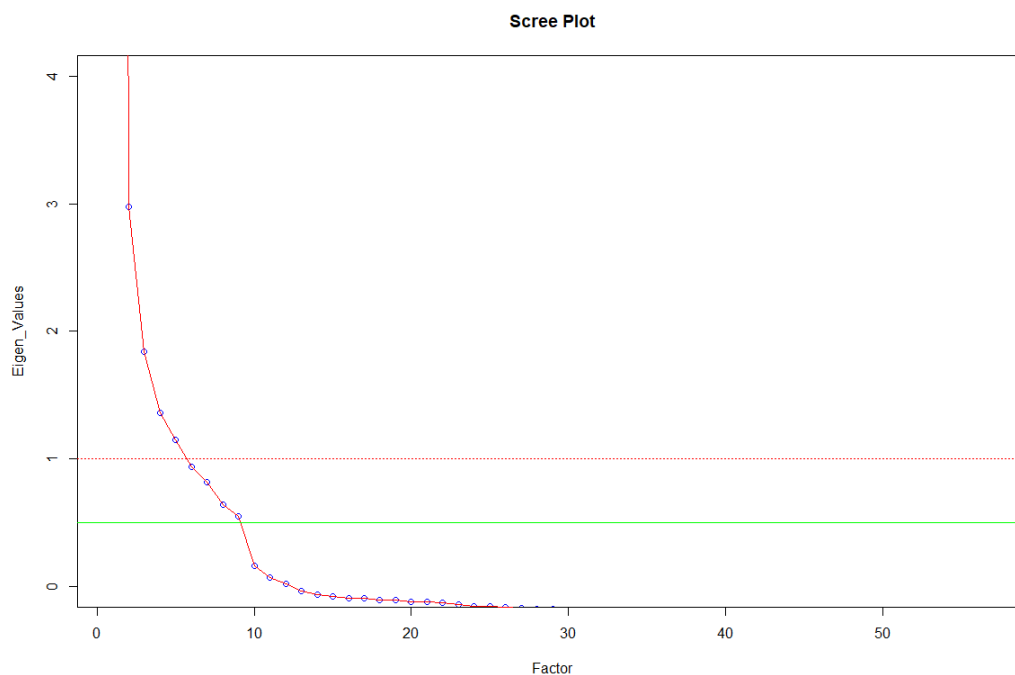


Figure 4.1 Scree plot from factor analysis of the study

Figure 4.1 illustrates the eigenvalues. As observed in the scree plot, a nine-factor solution with eigenvalues greater than 0.5 appears to represent the underlying structure of the study items most accurately. The elbow confirms this in the scree plot, which shows that the curve levels off after the ninth eigenvalue. This levelling off indicates that subsequent components account for minimal further variance and are most likely noise in the data.

Additionally, EFA was used to analyse the relationship between the study items and investigate the underlying structure of the self-developed questionnaire. The Promax rotation was used because the items are not normally distributed. Promax rotation allows for oblique factors, meaning the factors themselves can be correlated, which is confirmed by Table 4.2.4. The items that loaded strongly on each factor were examined to see if the items fit together.

Table 4.2.4: Exploratory and confirmatory factor loadings of the instrument

Constructs and their respective items	EFA Factor loadings	CFA Factor loadings
Ease of training programme		
The training materials were easy to use.	0,77	0,963
Straightforward instructions were provided during the training session.	0,76	0,961
It was easy for me to navigate through the training programme.	0,79	0,965
The pace of the training programme was comfortable for me to follow.	0,79	0,964
I received the needed support when I encountered challenges during the training.	0,75	0,943
Facilitation of training programme		
The trainers were well prepared for training sessions.	0,55	0,815
The trainers effectively engaged with participants.	0,77	0,974
Trainers answered questions and concerns efficiently.	0,73	0,973
The trainers encouraged active participation among attendees.	0,66	0,918
The facilitators adapted training programmes to the need of the participants.	0,45	0,849
Quality of training programme		
The training content aligned with my work tasks.	0,78	0,965
The training programmes covered relevant information related to my work tasks.	0,8	0,983
The quality of training materials was of a high standard.	0,81	0,966
The training programmes was well structured.	0,79	0,98
The feedback provided by the trainer were fair.	0,79	0,953
Career development		
The development programmes offered by my department contributed significantly to my career growth.	0,81	0,966
I am satisfied with the opportunities for career advancement provided through this programme.	0,81	0,96
I am given clear goals and expectations regarding career development through development programmes.	0,68	0,887
These programmes are well aligned with my long-term career goals.	0,66	0,89
This programme positively contributes to my career growth.	0,81	0,962
This programme positively impacts my fulfilment in my career.	0,79	0,927
Personal development		
There are customised programmes tailored towards my personal development.	0,55	0,885
I am satisfied with my department's variety of personal development opportunities.	0,62	0,94
I have successfully applied the knowledge gained from this programme to my personal life.	0,7	0,947
These programmes have increased my confidence in my career.	0,62	0,96
The value of this programme to my individual growth is high.	0,65	0,937
I successfully applied strategies learned from personal development programmes in my job.	0,55	0,937
Actual training and development attended		
The materials provided during this programme were detailed.	0,79	0,906
This training programme enhanced my job-related skills.	0,78	0,948
This programme was effective in improving my job performance.	0,78	0,942
The instructors in this programme demonstrated expertise.	0,76	0,861
I could easily transfer the skills from this training to my job.	0,76	0,941
This training provided me with valuable knowledge for my work duties.	0,75	0,922
I am satisfied with the effectiveness of this training programme in enhancing my work efficiency.	0,71	0,91
This training programme was well organised.	0,67	0,8
I received the needed support from my supervisor during this training.	0,66	0,785
This programme was linked to my job responsibilities.	0,66	0,912
I felt motivated to actively participate in this training.	0,64	0,84
Knowledge		
I have gained relevant knowledge about public service through training programmes.	0,62	0,942
The training programmes have improved my understanding of my job duties in the public sector.	0,66	0,962
I am confident in applying the knowledge gained from public service training to solve work-related challenges.	0,61	0,936
The training programmes improved my knowledge of the core business of public service.	0,69	0,982
The training programmes helped me to understand important concepts in the public service.	0,69	0,975

I learned public sector principles through attending training programmes.	0,69	0,982
The training programmes added significant value to the expertise required in my field.	0,64	0,948
Skills		
I have developed relevant skills by participating in public service training programmes.	0,48	0,959
Public service training programmes enhanced my ability to perform work tasks efficiently.	0,5	0,973
I am confident in using the skills gained through public service training in actual work scenarios.	0,5	0,966
The public service training programmes improved my critical thinking abilities.	0,53	0,974
I have noticed an improvement in my baseline skills after participating in public service training.	0,53	0,979
The public service training programmes equipped me with the skills needed to perform my job excellently.	0,52	0,969
Capabilities		
I am confident in my ability to take on new challenges due to development programmes provided by the public sector.	0,74	0,979
The public service development programmes make me more flexible in handling ever-changing situations.	0,72	0,981
Public service training has improved my ability to prioritise tasks.	0,72	0,979
I can develop creative work solutions after participating in public service training programmes.	0,71	0,958
The public service development programmes have improved my decision-making capabilities.	0,7	0,968
The public service training and development programmes strengthened my contribution to the success of my organisation.	0,67	0,94

CFA model-fit: ($\chi^2(1503) = 3068,318$, $p=0$, CFI= 0.913, TLI=0.908, RMSEA= 0.060, SRMR=0.034

According to Table 4.2.4, the EFA factor loadings provide initial insights into the potential underlying structure of the questionnaire. The findings from the CFA factor loadings in Table 4.2.4 generally support the hypothesised structure of the self-developed questionnaire. Most items have strong factor loadings on their respective constructs, suggesting good construct validity. The factor model was estimated using SEM methods. All fitted models used robust maximum likelihood estimation due to the non-normality of the study items, and model goodness of fit for the hypothesised model was evaluated using several indices. Based on the CFA model-fit results, the chi-square test statistic ($\chi^2(1503) = 3068,318$, $p=0$) indicates a statistically significant lack of fit for the hypothesised model. This suggests that the model might not perfectly capture the data structure. However, it is important to acknowledge that the chi-square test can be sensitive to sample size, particularly in larger samples (Cheung & Lau, 2008). Therefore, the study relied on additional fit indices (RMSEA, CFI, TLI, SRMR) to provide a more nuanced picture.

The RMSEA represents the average approximation error between the model and the population data, values below 0.08 generally indicate a good fit as stated by Hu and Bentler (1999). The RMSEA value for the model which is **0.060** falls within the acceptable range. Additionally, the CFI (comparative fit index) and TLI (Tucker-Lewis index) indices compare the proposed model to a null model (where all variables are uncorrelated), values closer to 1 indicate a better fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Cheung et al., 2024). In this case, CFI=**0.913**) and TLI=**0.908** are

above the recommended benchmark of 0.90, suggesting a good fit between the model and the data. Furthermore, standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) measures the discrepancy between the observed and model-predicted covariances, values below 0.08 suggest a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Cheung et al., 2024). The SRMR value for this study (**0.034**) is well below the recommended threshold, indicating a good fit in terms of reproduced variances and covariances (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Cheung et al., 2024).

The nine-factor structure obtained using EFA was confirmed using CFA, and the overall assessment of the goodness of fit indices suggests that the hypothesised model is a good representation of the data.

Having confirmed the adequacy of the measurement model, the following is a presentation of the descriptive statistics for the observed variables in Table 4.2.5.

Table 4.2.5: Descriptive statistics and correlations among latent variables

Descriptive statistics and correlations among latent variables.											
	Mean	SD	ETP	FTP	QTP	CD	PD	TD	PIK	PIS	PIC
ETP	4,61	1,14	1								
FTP	4,42	1,18	0,715	1							
QTP	4,47	1,14	0,642	0,717	1						
CD	4,68	1,02	0,658	0,662	0,677	1					
PD	4,55	1,10	0,713	0,745	0,701	0,78	1				
TD	4,70	1,05	0,711	0,673	0,663	0,621	0,76	1			
K	4,50	1,10	0,659	0,68	0,66	0,683	0,77	0,82	1		
S	4,72	0,92	0,656	0,68	0,664	0,678	0,766	0,822	0,866	1	
C	4,61	0,95	0,638	0,674	0,663	0,662	0,748	0,788	0,812	0,869	1

According to Table 4.2.5, the means for all variables range from 4.42 to 4.72, suggesting a moderate level of agreement on a 6-point Likert scale regarding employees' attitudes towards T&D programmes. Standard deviations range between 1.02 and 1.18, indicating some variability in employee responses. All correlations are positive, suggesting that employees who perceive higher levels of one dimension tend also to perceive higher levels of others.

As evident in Table 4.2.5, the analysis of correlations reveals several key relationships among employee attitudes towards training and its perceived impact. Firstly, a cluster of moderately high correlations (0.6-0.7) exists between ETP, FTP, and CD. This suggests that employees who find the training content easy to understand (ETP) also perceive it to be well-facilitated (FTP) and contribute to their career development (CD). Secondly, similar correlations (0.6-0.7) are observed between QTP, PD, and TD. This indicates that employees who feel the training is of high quality (QTP) also perceive both personal development (PD) and the actual training

and development attended (TD) to be beneficial. Interestingly, knowledge and skills dimensions exhibit the strongest correlation (0.866), suggesting a very close link between perceived knowledge gain and skills development. This might imply that the training programme effectively influences both aspects. Finally, C demonstrates moderate-to-high correlations (0.6-0.8) with all other variables. This suggests that employees who feel the training has enhanced their capabilities (C) also perceive the content to be easier to learn (ETP), well-facilitated (FTP), and contribute to their overall knowledge base (K).

4.3 Sample Demographics

Demographic data were gathered to serve as the foundation for investigating major aspects of this study and profiling respondents. These demographics were also included to enable future researchers to identify the population segment from which these results were obtained.

Figures 4.2.1 to 4.2.8 display the results of Section A of the questionnaire, highlighting the demographic composition of the Mbombela government employees who participated in the study.

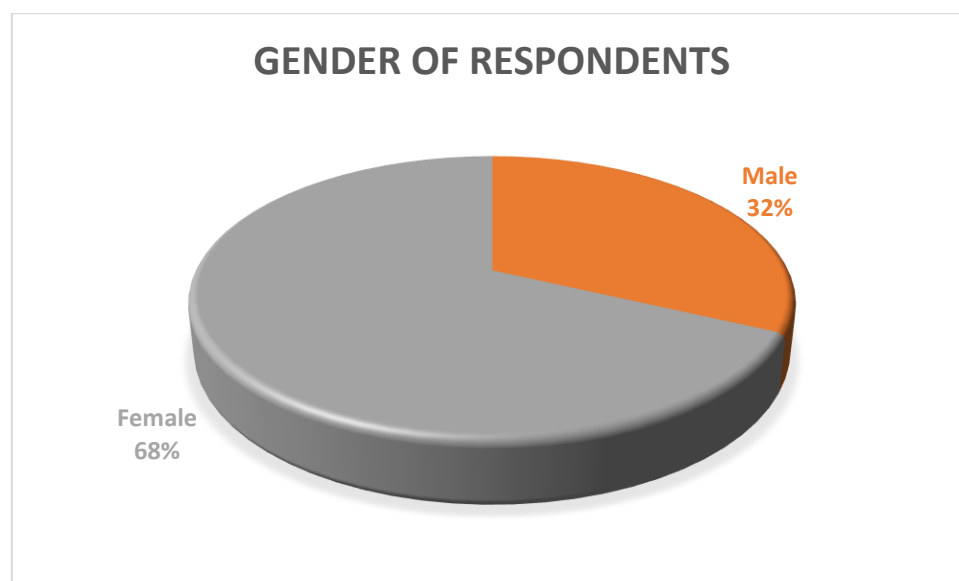


Figure 4.2.1 Gender of respondents

The results from Figure 4.2.1 demonstrate a significant gender distribution within the total 286 Mbombela government staff. Male staff were 92, which accounts for 32% of the sample, while female staff were 194, which accounts for 68% of the sample. This gender breakdown shows the significance of considering multiple perspectives when analysing attitudes towards training programmes. The higher female representation revealed by these findings provides background information that enriches the understanding of the dynamics within the Mbombela government.

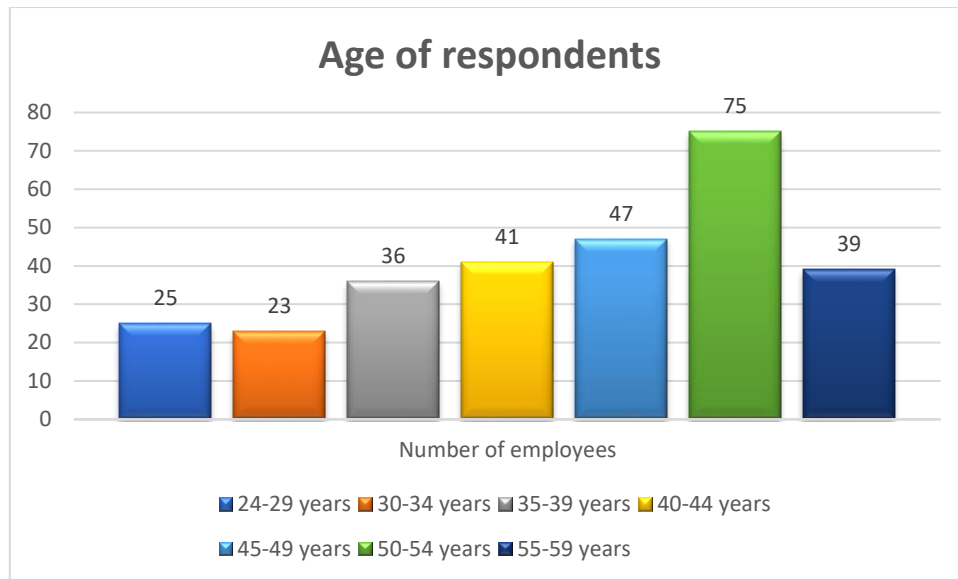


Figure 4.2.2: Age of respondents

Figure 4.2.2 visually represents the distribution of respondents across different age groups. The data revealed that 25 respondents fall within the age range of 24–29 years, followed by 23 respondents between 30–34 years old. 36 respondents are in the 35–39 age category, 41 respondents are between 40–44 years. Subsequently, 47 employees fall within the 45–49 age range. Notably, the most significant age distribution is observed among those aged 50–54, constituting 75 respondents. Finally, 39 respondents are aged between 55–59 years.

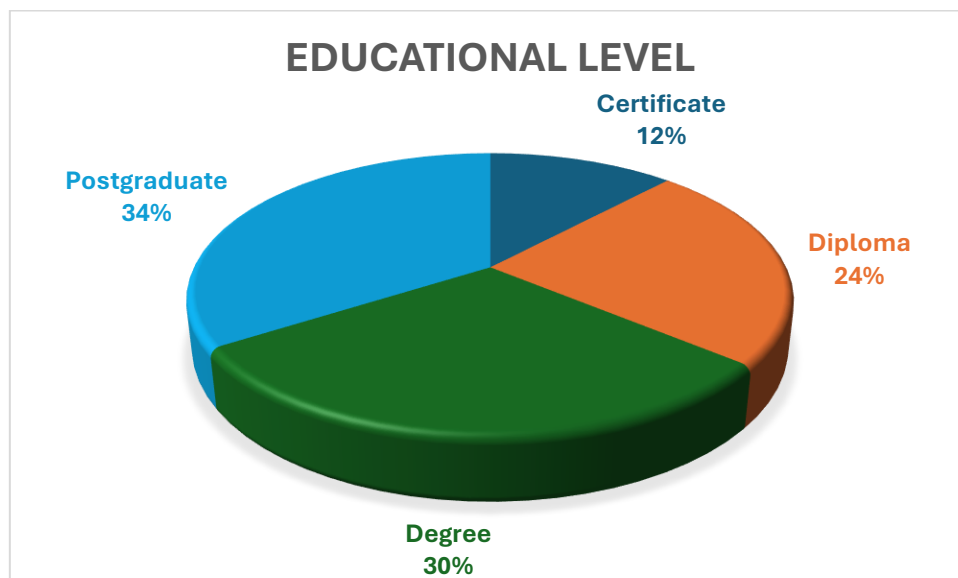


Figure 4.2.3: Education level of respondents

Figure 4.2.3 illustrates the percentage distribution of respondents based on their education levels. The data shown in Figure 4.2.3 reveals that the majority of respondents hold

postgraduate degrees, constituting 34% of the sample. Following closely, individuals with undergraduate degrees represent 30% of the respondents. Additionally, 24% of the surveyed individuals hold diplomas, and 12% hold certificates.

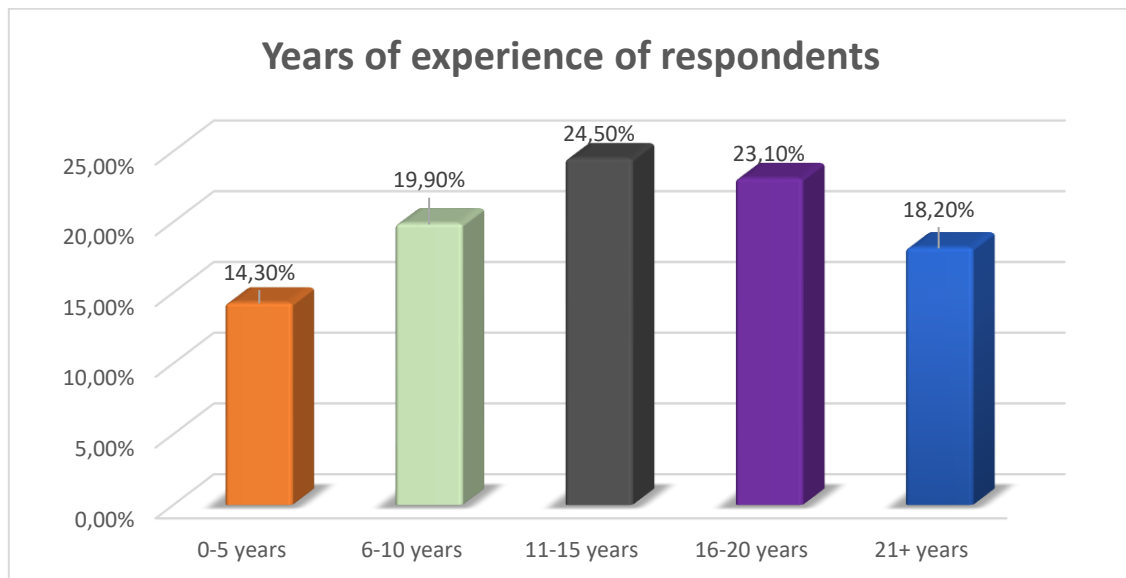


Figure 4.2.4: Years of work experience of respondents

Figure 4.2.4 provides a visual representation of the percentage distribution of respondents based on their years of experience. The data indicates that 24,50% have 11–15 years of experience, followed by 23,10% of respondents of 16–20 years of experience, 19,90% have 6–10 years of experience, then 18,20% have 21+ years of experience, and, lastly, 14,30% of respondents have 0–5 years of experience.

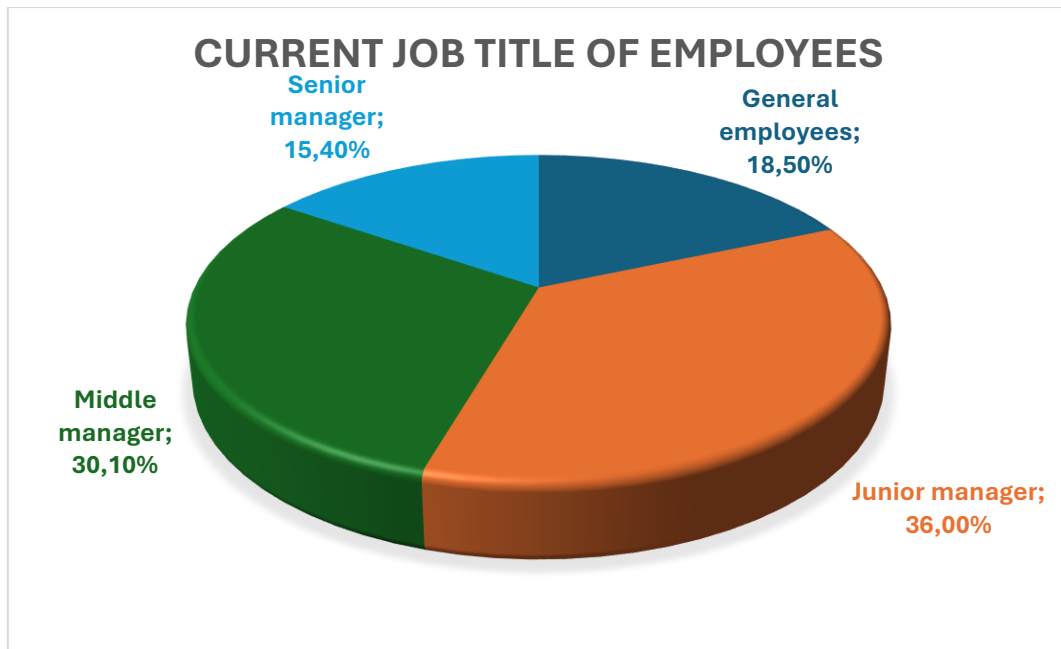


Figure 4.2.5: Current job title of respondents

Figure 4.2.5 provides a visual representation of the percentage distribution of respondents based on their current job titles. The data indicates that the majority of respondents are junior managers, comprising 36% of the total. Following closely, middle managers account for 30.10% of the respondents, while senior managers constitute 15.40%. The smallest group is general employees, representing 18.50% of the surveyed individuals.

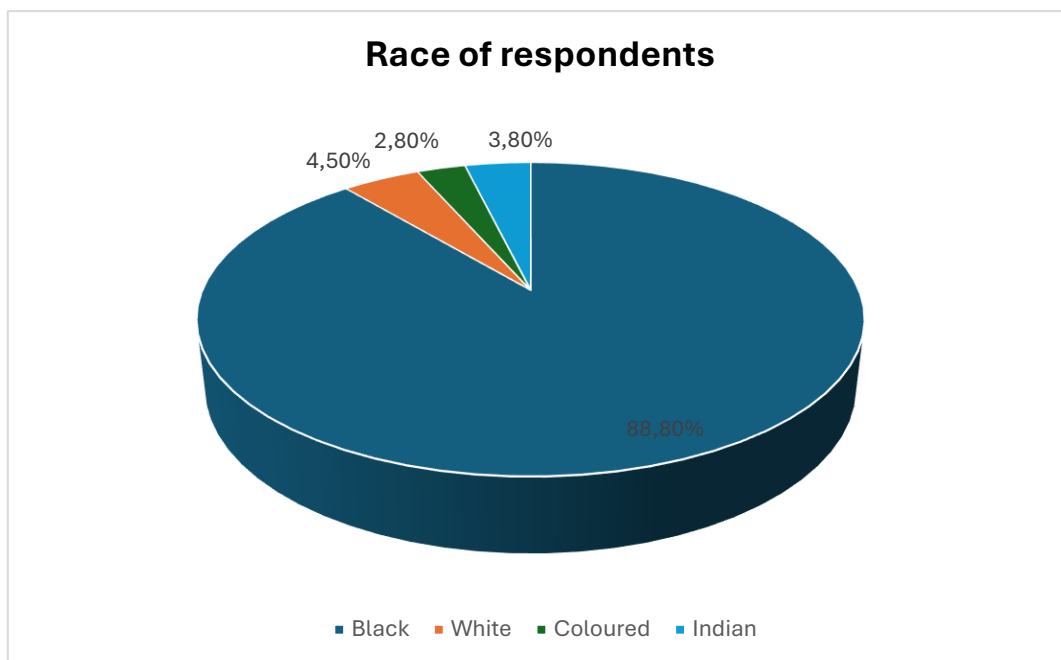


Figure 4.2.6: Race of respondents

Figure 4.2.6 visually represents the racial composition of respondents. The data shows that the majority of respondents, accounting for 88.80%, identified as Black. White respondents constituted 4.50% of the sample, Coloured individuals represented 2.80%, and 3.80% of the respondents identified as Indian.

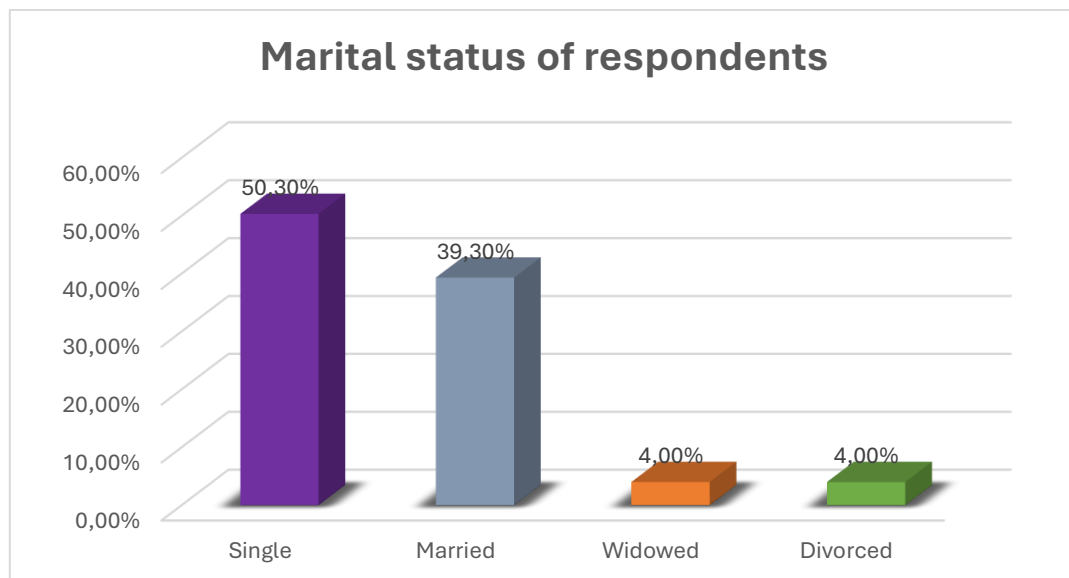


Figure 4.2.7: Marital status of respondents

Figure 4.2.7 visually represents the marital status distribution of respondents. The data indicates that the majority of respondents, comprising 50.30%, are single. Following closely, 39.30% of the respondents are married. Additionally, 4.00% of the respondents fall into the widowed and divorced categories.

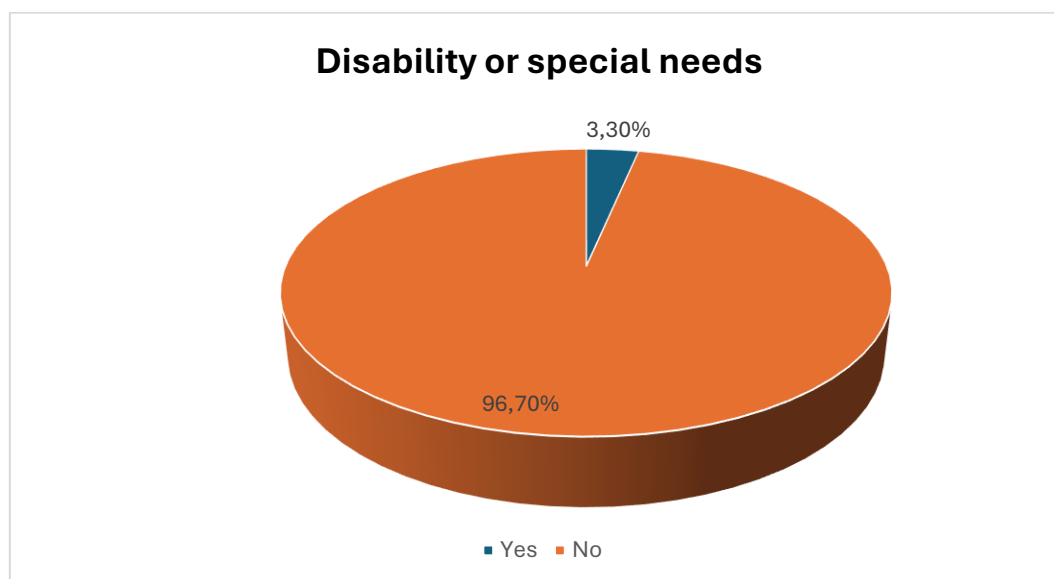


Figure 4.2.8: Disability or special needs

Figure 4.2.8 visually represents the distribution regarding employees' disabilities. The data revealed that the overwhelming majority, accounting for 96.70%, do not have any disability. In contrast, 3.30% of the respondents indicated having a disability and special needs.

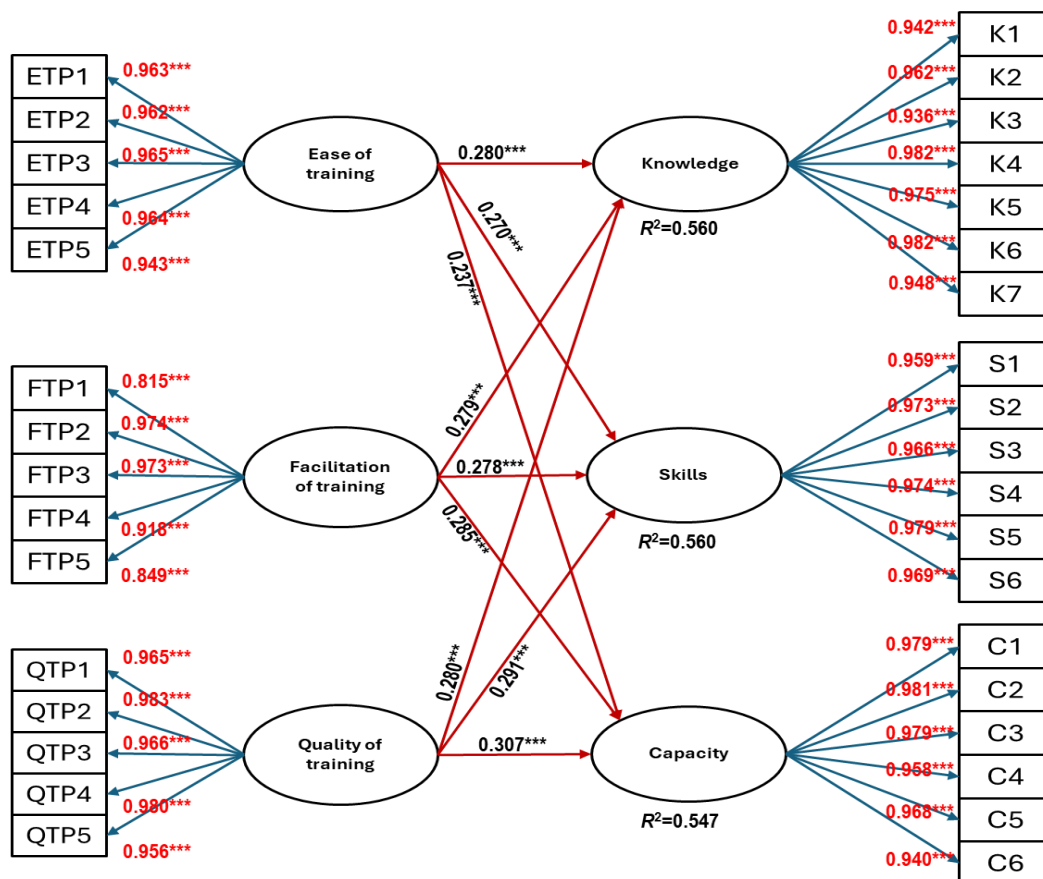
4.4 Empirical Results of the Study

The results, analysis and interpretation have been integrated to achieve the objectives of this study.

4.4.1 Objective One

To explore the relationship between dimensions of training and development (ease, facilitation, quality of training programmes; career and personal development) and human capacity development (knowledge, skills, capabilities) among Mbombela government employees.

SEM was employed to analyse the data and assess the direct effects and underlying associations between these variables. Figure 4.3 shows an exposition of results from R software Objective One:



The estimated structural equation model. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, + $p < 0.00$. SEM model-fit: ($\chi^2(1503) = 4954.495$, $p = 0$, CFI = 0.954, TLI = 0.950, SRMR = 0.034, RMSEA = 0.53)

Figure 4.3 Structural equation model for the relationship between training dimensions and HCD

The results in Figure 4.3 generally support the alternative hypothesis H₁. A significant positive relationship exists between all three dimensions of Training (ETP, FTP, QTP) and all three dimensions of HCD (Knowledge, Skills, and Capability). An in-depth interpretation of the results from each dimension is given in the following section:

4.4.1.1 Training Programmes and Knowledge (K)

The path coefficients, representing the direct effects of individual training programmes on knowledge, ranged from 0.279 to 0.280 (all $p < 0.001$). The factor loadings, ranging from 0.815 to 0.983 (all $p < 0.001$), indicated strong positive associations between the training programme variables and the underlying knowledge construct. This suggests that scores on the training programme variables were good indicators of the knowledge construct. Additionally, the R-squared value for the knowledge dimension explained by the training programmes was **0.560**, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the training programmes can explain 56% of the variance in employee knowledge. This suggests that these programmes collectively account for a moderate proportion of the variance in employee knowledge. Thus, the null hypothesis (H₁) there is no statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions is rejected, and the alternative hypotheses H_{1.1} (ETP), H_{1.4} (FTP), and H_{1.7} (QTP) [there is a statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions (Knowledge)] are accepted.

4.4.1.2 Training Programmes and Skills (S)

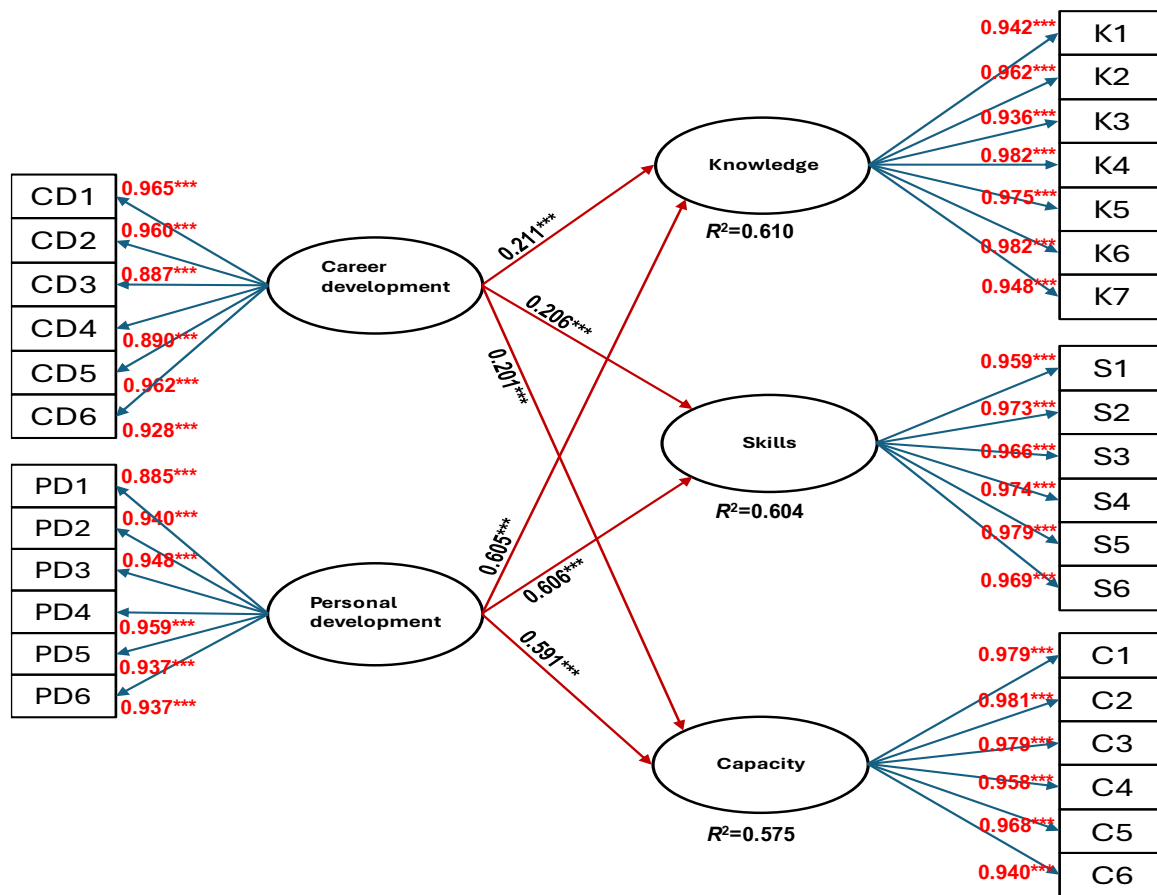
The path coefficients between the training dimensions and the skills dimension ranged from 0.270 to 0.291 (all $p < 0.001$). The factor loadings ranged from 0.815 to 0.973 (all $p < 0.001$), indicating strong positive correlations with the skills dimension. These results suggest that scores on the training dimensions were good indicators of employee skills. Additionally, the R-squared value for the skills dimension explained by these programmes was **0.560**, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99 as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that 56% of the variance in employee skills can be explained by the training programmes. This suggests that these programmes collectively account for a moderate proportion of the variance in employee skills. Thus, the null hypothesis (H₁) there is no statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions is rejected, and the alternative

hypotheses H1.2 (ETP), H1.5 (FTP), and H1.8 (QTP) [there is a statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD (Skills) dimensions] are accepted.

4.4.1.3 Training Programmes and Capabilities (C)

The path coefficients between the training dimensions and the capabilities dimension ranged from 0.237 to 0.307 (all $p < 0.001$). The factor loadings ranged from 0.815 to 0.973 (all $p < 0.001$), indicating strong positive correlations with the capabilities dimension. These results suggest that scores on the training dimensions were good indicators of employee capability. Additionally, the R-squared value for the capabilities dimension explained by these programmes was **0.547**, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the training programmes can explain 54% of the variance in employee capabilities. This suggests that these programmes collectively account for a moderate proportion of the variance in employee capabilities. Thus, the null hypothesis (H1) there is no statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions is rejected, and the alternative hypotheses H1.3 (ETP), H1.6 (FTP), and H1.9 (QTP) [there is a statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD (Capabilities) dimensions] are accepted.

The following section presents the SEM results for the relationship between development programmes and HCD dimensions.



The estimated structural equation model. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, + $p < 0.00$. SEM model-fit: ($\chi^2(1503) = 4954.495$, $p = 0$, CFI= 0.954, TLI= 0.950, SRMR= 0.034, RMSEA= 0.53

Figure 4.4: SEM results for the relationship between development dimensions and HCD dimensions

The results in Figure 4.4 generally support the alternative hypothesis H_1 . A significant positive relationship exists between all development programme dimensions (CD and PD) and all dimensions of HCD (K, S, and C). The following is an in-depth interpretation of the results from each dimension:

4.4.1.4 Development Programmes and Knowledge Dimension (K)

The path coefficients between development programmes and the knowledge dimension ranged from 0.211 CD to 0.605 PD (all $p < 0.001$). These results reveal positive direct effects of development programmes on the knowledge construct, with PD exhibiting a stronger influence than CD. The factor loadings for the development dimensions ranged from 0.885 to 0.965 (all $p < 0.001$), indicating both moderate CD and strong PD positive correlations with the knowledge dimension. Similar to the training programmes, these results suggest that scores on the development dimensions were good indicators of employee knowledge. Additionally, the

R-squared value for the knowledge dimension explained by the development programmes was 0.610, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that 61% of the variance in employee knowledge can be explained by the development programmes. This suggests that these programmes collectively account for a moderate to high proportion of the variance in employee knowledge. Thus, the null hypothesis (H1) there is no statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions is rejected, and the alternative hypotheses H1.10 (CD) and H1.13 (PD [there is a statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD (Knowledge) dimensions]) are accepted.

4.4.1.5 Development Programmes and Skills Dimension (S)

Additionally, the path coefficients between the development dimensions and the skills dimension ranged from **0.206** CD to **0.606** PD (all $p < 0.001$). These results reveal positive direct effects of development programmes on employee skills, with PD exhibiting a stronger influence than CD. The factor loadings for the development dimensions ranged from 0.885 to 0.965 (all $p < 0.001$), indicating strong positive correlations with the skills dimension. These results suggest that scores on the development dimensions were good indicators of employee skills. Additionally, the R-squared value for the skills dimension explained by the development programmes was 0.604, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the training programmes can explain 60% of the variance in employee skills. This suggests that these programmes collectively account for a moderate proportion of the variance in employee skills. Thus, the null hypothesis (H1) there is no statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions is rejected, and the alternative hypotheses H1.11 (CD) and H1.14 (PD [there is a statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD (Skills) dimensions]) are accepted.

4.4.1.6 Development Programmes and Capabilities Dimension (C)

The path coefficients between the development dimensions and the capabilities dimension ranged from 0.201 CD to 0.591 PD (all $p < 0.001$). These results reveal positive direct effects of development programmes on employee capabilities, with PD exhibiting a stronger influence than CD. The factor loadings for the development dimensions ranged from 0.885 to 0.965 (all $p < 0.001$), indicating strong positive correlations with the capability dimension. These results suggest that scores on the development dimensions were good indicators of employee capabilities. Additionally, the R-squared value for the capabilities dimension explained by the

development programmes was **0.575**, which falls within the acceptable range of **0.50** and **0.99**, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the development programmes can explain 57% of the variance in employee capabilities. This suggests that these programmes collectively account for a moderate proportion of the variance in employee capabilities. Thus, the null hypothesis (H1) there is no statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions is rejected, and the alternative hypotheses H1.12 (CD) and H1.15 (PD [there is a statistically significant relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD (Capabilities) dimensions] are accepted.

The SEM results provide strong evidence rejecting the null hypothesis and supporting the alternative hypothesis. These findings suggest that T&D programmes are positively associated with higher knowledge, skills, and capability.

4.4.2 Objective Two

To determine the impact of training and development programmes attended on human capacity development amongst public service employees.

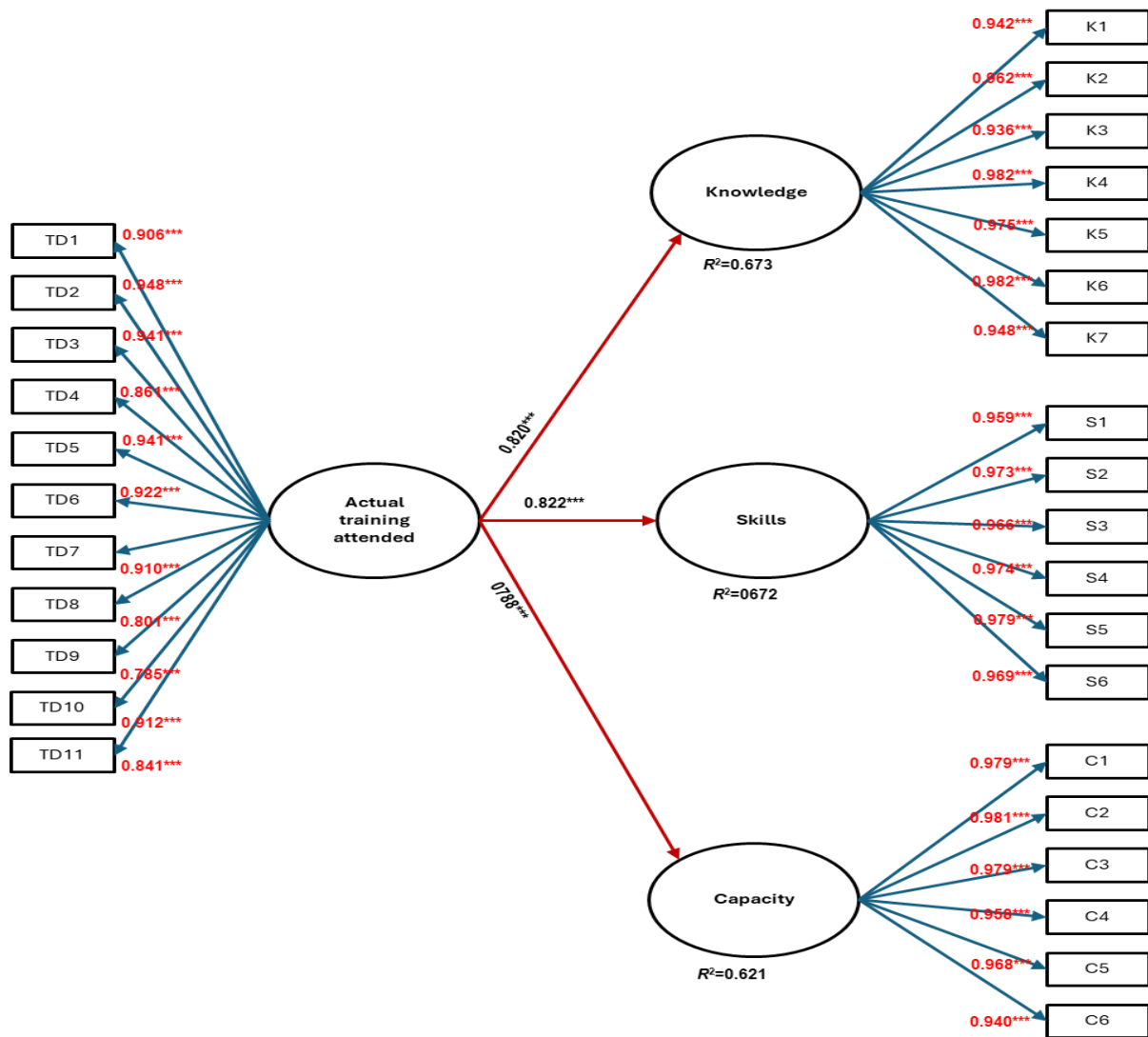
Table 4.3 is an exposition of results from R software for the study Objective Two:

The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to see whether a difference exists in employee attitudes towards T&D programmes, based on the OJT and OffJT as depicted in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Mann Whitney U test results for on and off-the job training

Characteristics	Category	N=286	Knowledge (K)		Capabilities (C)		Skills (S)	
			Median	p-value	Median (CI)	p-value	Median (CI)	p-value
Name Training	Off Job	140	0.189 [-4.51, 2.25]	0,612	0.0393 [-3.71, 2.08]	0,986	-0.0702 [-3.09, 2.81]	0,946
	On Job	146	0.249 [-3.37, 2.22]		0.0917 [-4.18, 2.53]		-0.137 [-3.29, 3.55]	
Place of Training	1	140	0.263 [-3.13, 2.22]	0,394	0.00337 [-4.18, 2.53]	0,264	-0.137 [-3.29, 3.55]	0,606
	2	156	0.175 [-4.51, 2.25]		0.0461 [-2.48, 2.12]		0.00555 [-3.09, 2.81]	

As evident in Table 4.3, no statistically significant differences are found between Off-the-job training and On-the-job training regarding their impact on all three dimensions of HCD. This suggests that the location of training delivery may not be a critical factor in its effectiveness. Further analysis was conducted to ascertain whether actual training and development attended, regardless of location, impacted employees' knowledge, skills, and capabilities through employing SEM, as shown in Figure 4.5.



The estimated structural equation model. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, + $p < 0.00$. SEM model –fit: ($\chi^2(1503) = 4954.495$, $p = 0$, CFI= 0.949, TLI= 0.944, SRMR= 0.022, RMSEA= 0.053).

Figure 4.5: SEM results for the impact of actual T&D attended on HCD

The estimated structural equation model exhibited a good fit to the data ($\chi^2(1503) = 4954.495$, $p = 0$, CFI= 0.949, TLI= 0.944, SRMR= 0.022, RMSEA= 0.053). These results support the hypothesised (H2) positive significant impact of actual T&D attended (TD1- TD11) on all three dimensions of HCD: knowledge (K); skills (S); and capabilities (C).

4.4.2.1 Actual Training and Development (TD) and Knowledge (K)

The path coefficient between actual T&D attended and knowledge was **0.820** ($p < 0.001$), suggesting a significant positive impact of training attended on employee knowledge. This value exceeds the commonly recommended threshold of 0.30 for a substantial effect (Cohen, 2013). The factor loadings, ranging from **0.785** to **0.948** (all $p < 0.001$), indicate strong positive associations between the actual T&D attended items and the underlying knowledge construct

measured by K1-K7. Additionally, the R-squared value for the knowledge dimension explained by the actual T&D attended was 0.673, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the training accounts for a moderate-to-high proportion of the variance in employee knowledge. Thus, the null hypothesis (H2), there is no statistically significant impact of actual T&D attended on HCD dimensions, is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis H2.1 [there is a statistically significant impact of actual T&D attended on HCD (Knowledge) dimensions] is accepted.

4.4.2.2 Actual T&D Attended and Skills (S)

The path coefficient between actual T&D attended and the skills dimension was **0.822** ($p < 0.001$), suggesting a significant positive impact of T&D attended on employee skills. The factor loadings, ranging from **0.785** to **0.948** (all $p < 0.001$), indicate strong positive associations with the skills dimension. Additionally, the R-squared value for the skills dimension explained by the actual T&D attended was **0.672**, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the T&D attended accounts for a moderate-to-high proportion of the variance in employee skills. Thus, the null hypothesis (H2), there is no statistically significant impact of actual T&D attended on HCD dimensions, is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis H2.2 [there is a statistically significant impact of actual T&D attended on HCD (Skills) dimensions] is accepted.

4.4.2.3 Actual T&D Attended and Capabilities (C)

The path coefficients between actual T&D attended and the capabilities dimension was **0.788** ($p < 0.001$), suggesting a significant positive impact of T&D attended on employee capabilities. The factor loadings, ranging from **0.785** to **0.948** (all $p < 0.001$), indicate strong positive associations with the capabilities dimension. Additionally, the R-squared value for the capabilities dimension explained by the actual T&D attended was **0.621**, which falls within the acceptable range of 0.50 and 0.99, as suggested by Ozili (2023). This indicates that the T&D attended accounts for a moderate-to-high proportion of the variance in employee capabilities. Thus, the null hypothesis (H2), there is no statistically significant impact of actual T&D attended on HCD dimensions, is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis H2.3 [there is a statistically significant impact of actual T&D attended on HCD (Capabilities) dimensions] is accepted.

Considering the aforementioned results, the alternative hypothesis that actual T&D attended significantly impacts employee knowledge, skills, and capabilities is fully supported.

4.4.3 Objective Three

To evaluate differences in employee's attitudes towards the dimensions of training and development programmes offered by the public service based on selected demographic variables.

The following is an exposition of results from R software for the study Objective Three:

4.4.3.1 Gender

This section examines potential variations in employee attitudes towards T&D programmes the public service offers based on gender. The Mann-Whitney U test was employed to identify statistically significant differences between male and female employee attitudes. The analysis utilises median scores and p-values presented in Table 4.4, alongside visual representations of the data distribution through the visual binning in Figure 4.6.

Table 4.4: Employee attitudes towards T&D programmes across gender

Gender				
Dimension	Category	N (286)	Median	p-value
ETP	1 (Male)	92	0.320 [-3.21, 2.16]	0,029
	2 (Female)	194	0.0887 [-4.26, 2.12]	
FTP	1 (Male)	92	0.237 [-2.33, 1.46]	0,441
	2 (Female)	194	0.201 [-4.51, 2.08]	
QTP	1 (Male)	92	0.272 [-2.53, 2.11]	0,011
	2 (Female)	194	0.0658 [-4.63, 2.33]	
CD	1 (Male)	92	0.195 [-3.46, 1.65]	0,109
	2 (Female)	194	0.0818 [-3.06, 2.16]	
PD	1 (Male)	92	0.314 [-2.38, 1.62]	0,207
	2 (Female)	194	0.159 [-2.89, 2.34]	

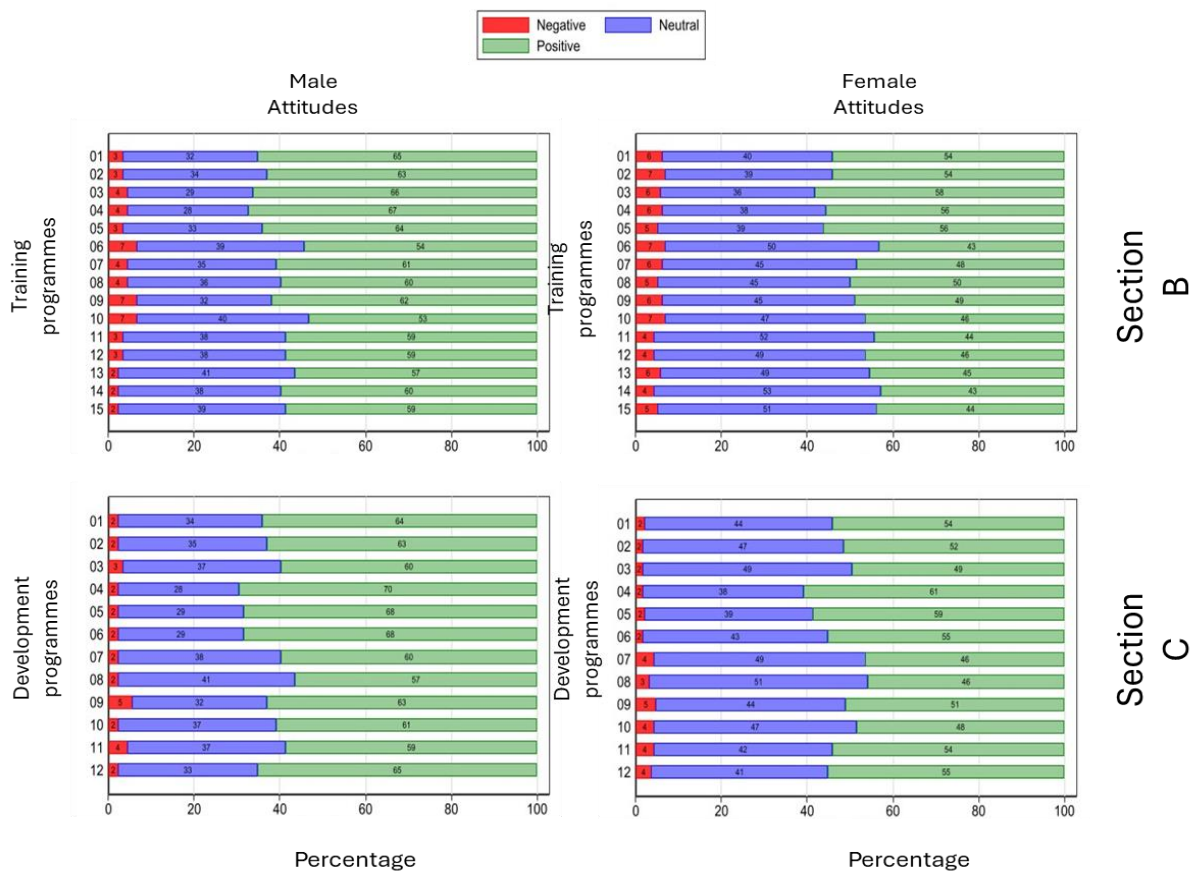


Figure 4.6: Visual binning of employee attitudes based on gender

As shown in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.6, it is evident that there are statistically significant differences between employee attitudes towards T&D programmes across genders on the following dimensions of T&D. These results support the hypothesised differences in attitudes (H3):

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.6 revealed a significant difference between males and females. Gender and Ease of Training Programmes (ETP) at the $p < 0,029$ level of significance, as well as Gender and Quality of Training Programmes at the $p < 0,011$ level of significance. This suggests that males have a positive attitude towards ETP and QTP, whilst females have a combination of neutral and positive attitudes. This means that male and female employees may have had different experiences with the ease and quality of T&D programmes, resulting in incomparable perceptions and attitudes. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employee attitudes based on selected demographic variables, is subsequently rejected considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Furthermore, the analysis presented in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.6 reveals a lack of statistically significant differences between male and female employees' attitudes toward T&D programmes across three dimensions: facilitation of training programmes ($p<0.441$), Career Development ($p<0.109$), and Personal Development ($p<0.207$). These findings suggest that, within the context of this study, there is no compelling evidence to support the claim that gender significantly influences employees' perceptions of these aspects of T&D. This suggests that male and female employees may have had similar experiences with facilitation of T&D programmes, as well as career and personal development programmes, resulting in comparable perceptions and attitudes. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employee attitudes based on selected demographic variables is subsequently accepted considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis rejected.

4.4.3.2 Current job title

The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted, with a Benjamini-Hochberg (1995) adjustment for multiple comparisons, to evaluate potential differences in employee attitudes towards T&D programmes based on their job title. Table 4.5 illustrates these findings, which include pairwise comparisons based on the Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction.

Table 4.5: Employee attitudes towards T&D programmes across job titles

Job title				
Dimension	Category	N (286)	Median	p-value
ETP	1 (General employee)	53	-0.0579 [-3.33, 1.93]	0,188
	2 (Junior manager)	103	-0.0284 [-4.26, 2.16]	
	3 (Middle manager)	86	0.187 [-3.72, 1.92]	
	4 (Senior manager)	44	0.337 [-1.92, 1.38]	
FTP	1 (General employee)	53	0.163 [-2.62, 1.70]	0,001
	2 (Junior manager)	103	-0.0370 [-2.60, 1.53]	
	3 (Middle manager)	86	0.408 [-4.51, 2.08]	
	4 (Senior manager)	44	0.522 [-3.97, 1.28]	
QTP	1 (General employee)	53	-0.226 [-2.70, 2.33]	0,000
	2 (Junior manager)	103	-0.0664 [-2.53, 1.88]	
	3 (Middle manager)	86	0.311 [-4.63, 1.76]	
	4 (Senior manager)	44	0.651 [-2.44, 1.88]	
CD	1 (General employee)	53	0.0196 [-3.45, 1.38]	0,006
	2 (Junior manager)	103	-0.164 [-3.46, 2.04]	
	3 (Middle manager)	86	0.0877 [-2.84, 2.05]	
	4 (Senior manager)	44	0.543 [-1.88, 2.16]	
PD	1 (General employee)	53	-0.436 [-2.37, 1.66]	0,017
	2 (Junior manager)	103	0.115 [-2.89, 2.02]	
	3 (Middle manager)	86	0.288 [-2.38, 2.34]	
	4 (Senior manager)	44	0.284 [-2.38, 1.56]	

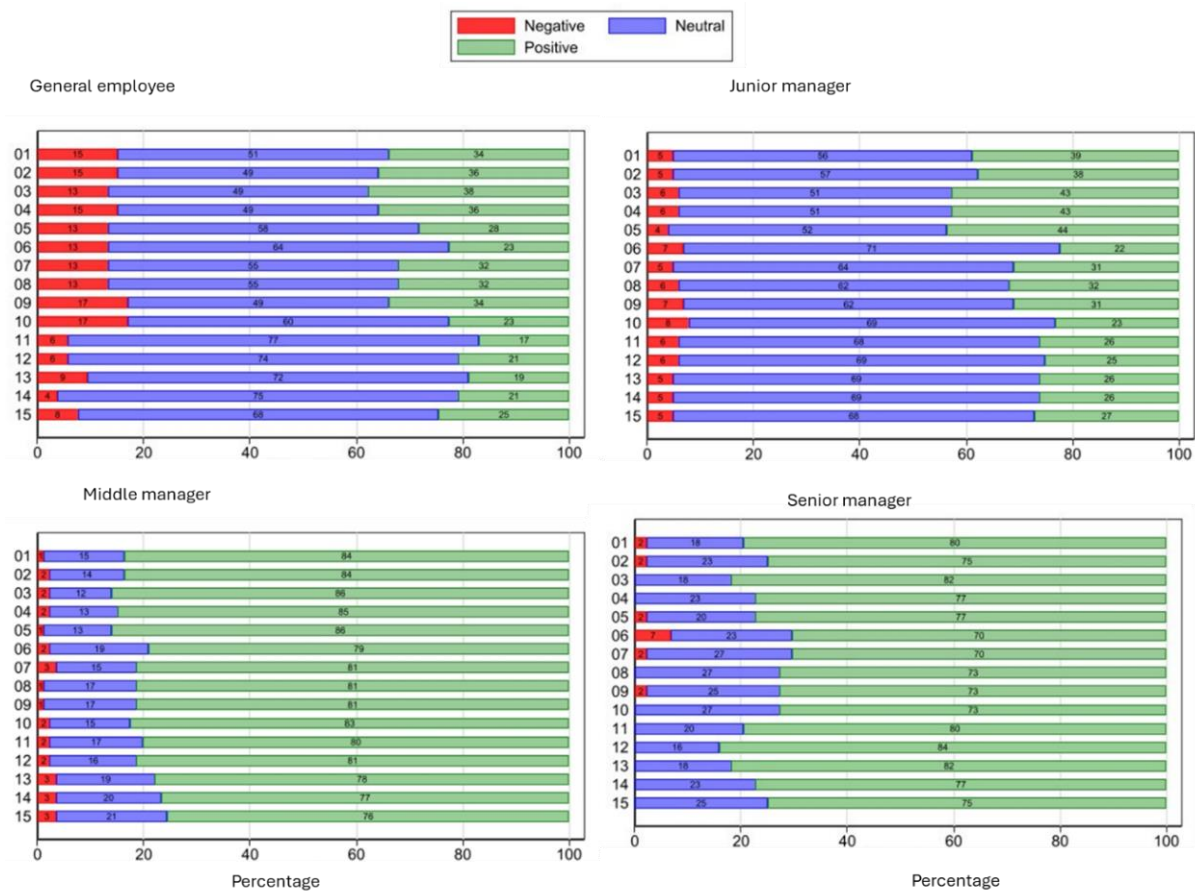


Figure 4.7: Visual binning of employee attitudes based on job title

Examining Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7, it is evident that there are statistically significant differences between employee attitudes towards T&D programmes across job titles on the following dimensions of T&D:

Job title and FTP were at the $p<0,001$ level of significance. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7 revealed a significant difference only between general employees ($M = -0.0579$) and middle managers ($M = 0.187$). This suggests that general employees perceive the facilitation of training programmes less favourably than middle managers. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employee attitudes based on selected demographic variables, is subsequently rejected considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Job Title and QTP were at the $p<0,000$ level of significance. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7 revealed a significant difference between general employees ($M = -0.226$) and both middle managers ($M = 0.311$) and senior managers ($M = 0.651$). This suggests that general employees perceive the quality of training programmes less favourably than middle and senior managers. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employees' attitudes based on selected demographic variables, is subsequently rejected considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Job Title and CD were at the $p<0,006$ level of significance. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7 revealed a significant difference between general employees ($M = 0.0196$) and junior managers ($M = -0.164$). This suggests that general employees perceive training programmes as contributing less to their career development compared to junior managers. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employee attitudes based on selected demographic variables, is subsequently rejected considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Job Title and Personal Development (PD) at the $p<0,017$ level of significance. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7 revealed significant differences between general employees ($M = -0.436$) and both junior managers ($M = 0.115$) and middle managers ($M = 0.288$). This suggests that general employees perceive training programmes as contributing less to their personal development than both junior and middle managers. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employee attitudes based on selected demographic variables, is subsequently rejected considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Furthermore, based on the results shown in Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7, it is evident that there are no statistically significant differences between employee attitudes towards T&D programmes across job titles on the ETP dimension at the $p < 0.188$ level of significance. This suggests that senior, middle, and junior managers, as well as general employees, share similar perceptions regarding the ease of use of training materials, the clarity of instructions, and the navigability of the training programmes. The null hypothesis H3, stating that there are no statistically significant differences in employee attitudes based on selected demographic variables, is subsequently accepted considering the aforementioned scores, and the alternative hypothesis is rejected.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter entailed an in-depth analysis of the data obtained to address the study's research objectives, using statistical techniques such as the Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U tests and SEM. Following the data presentation, this chapter provided a critical interpretation of the findings. It explored the identified patterns, highlighting both statistically significant relationships and non-significant results.

The following chapter focuses on a detailed discussion of the result that aligns with the existing literature and the study's conceptual framework. Similarly, the chapter provides recommendations for public service T&D that align with human capital development, and a study conclusion is proposed.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

A methodical presentation and interpretation of the analysed data results was given in Chapter Four to show the achieved research objectives outlined in Chapter One. This chapter extensively discusses the findings, establishing them within the context of the main research objectives and the larger body of existing literature. The discussion includes a critical examination of the results, including comparisons and contrasts to relevant empirical studies and other scholarly research findings. The reasons for rejection or acceptance of the proposed conceptual model in Chapter One (Figure 1.1) are also discussed using relevant literature.

5.2 Discussion of Key Findings

The key findings of the study are critically discussed in this section. Engaging with the larger body of literature, the discussion carefully compares and contrasts the findings with pertinent empirical studies and well-established theoretical frameworks. This comparative analysis aims to highlight any new contributions the study makes and to clarify the importance of the findings within the body of existing knowledge.

5.2.1 Discussion of the Study Results

Objective One: To explore the relationship between dimensions of training and development (ease, facilitation, quality of training programmes; career and personal development) and human capacity development (knowledge, skills, capabilities) among Mbombela government employees

The findings, shown visually in Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4, reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between all training dimensions (ease, facilitation, and quality of training programmes, as well as development dimensions (career and personal development) and all dimensions of HCD (knowledge, skills, and capabilities) explored in this study. In this study, ease of training programmes refers to the accessibility and user-friendliness of training programmes. Facilitation of training programmes encompasses the quality of instruction provided during training. Quality of training programmes includes factors such as content relevance and alignment with job tasks, whilst career and personal development dimensions highlight the potential of T&D to support employee growth and advancement within the organisation. By focusing on these dimensions of T&D, this study contributes to a more

comprehensive understanding of how training can effectively enhance employee knowledge, skills, and capabilities.

The results of this study are consistent with previous research, such as the meta-analysis study by Aguinis (2009), which established a positive relationship between T&D programmes and employee knowledge, skills, and performance. In addition, the OECD (2016) studies on workforce development emphasised how crucial training is to improving employees' capabilities to fulfil job requirements (OECD, 2016). Dabale et al. (2014) concluded that if an employee receives specialised and individualised training, and benefits from additional training hours on that subject, the employee gains more skills and expertise in that aspect, allowing the employee to be more productive, as well as perform higher-quality work.

Similarly, Brown and Sitzmann (2011) posited that training improves employee knowledge, capabilities, skills, abilities, and behaviour. Likewise, Hilton and Pellegrino (2012) contended that training not only enhances capabilities but also improves the ability to think critically and solve problems abilities. This improved cognitive ability enables employees to make more informed decisions promptly and effectively, resulting in improved organisational effectiveness within the public sector. While the findings of this study demonstrate a significant positive relationship between all identified T&D and HCD dimensions, it is essential to acknowledge the broader factors influencing employee performance. Employee skills, knowledge, and capabilities are not only shaped by T&D but also by overall employee well-being and a supportive organisational culture. As the Taplow Group (2023) have noted, a healthy workforce is crucial for organisational productivity and success. In addition to investing in T&D programmes, organisations should prioritise employee health, including a healthy work-life balance, and foster a supportive organisational culture. Similarly, Wong (2023) found that a positive and inclusive culture can significantly impact employee health, engagement, and, ultimately, their ability to utilise their skills and knowledge effectively. Therefore, while T&D programmes play a vital role in enhancing employee capacity, it is equally important to invest in employee health and well-being in order to achieve the required holistic approach to HCD (Msweli, 2015; Bloom et al., 2004). Furthermore, it is important to acknowledge research suggesting a more nuanced relationship between T&D and HCD.

The effectiveness of training programmes can vary depending on their design, implementation, and evaluation (Burke et al., 2006; Smith, 2017). Entwistle and Peterson (2004) found that employees who participated in training programmes that emphasised rote memorisation were less likely to demonstrate a deep understanding of the subject matter. Easy training may

encourage superficial learning, focusing on memorisation rather than understanding. This can limit the ability of employees to apply their knowledge in new or unexpected contexts. Therefore, while the present findings highlight the potential benefits of T&D, it is crucial to consider the broader context and recognise that training is likely one component among many factors contributing to HCD. This is especially vital in a complex and dynamic context like South Africa's public sector.

While existing research has consistently demonstrated a positive relationship between T&D and employee capabilities, skills, and knowledge, there is a limited body of literature that has explicitly separated T&D as distinct constructs. Most studies use these constructs interchangeably, but this study distinguishes between them. By exploring T&D as separate constructs, this study provides a more profound understanding of the factors that contribute to employee growth and development. Additionally, the study explored ease, facilitation, and quality as training dimensions and career and personal development as development dimensions to examine how these factors influence the effectiveness of T&D initiatives.

While the conceptual model in Figure 1.1 predicted a positive relationship between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions, the empirical findings suggest that the strength of this relationship varies across different T&D and HCD dimensions. These findings indicate that the conceptual model is generally supported but that the nuances of the relationships between T&D and HCD dimensions are more complex than initially anticipated.

Objective Two: To determine the impact of training and development programmes attended on human capacity development based on knowledge, skills, and capabilities amongst employees in the public service

The results in Table 4.3 revealed no statistically significant differences in the impact of OffJT and OJT on HCD dimensions. This shows that the location of training delivery may not be a determining factor in its success. Additionally, while the findings in Table 4.3 indicated no statistically significant differences, it is important to highlight that these are not the only methods used to deliver T&D. Other approaches, like blended learning, have the potential to influence employee skills and knowledge significantly. However, because of their widespread prevalence in organisations, the availability of existing research and data on these methods, and the study's specific objectives of comparing and contrasting the effectiveness of these traditional approaches on HCD, this study focused primarily on OffJT and OJT. The finding in Table 4.3 is consistent with the constructivist theory of learning, which posits that the location

of learning is less critical than providing learners with opportunities for exploration, reflection, and collaboration (Anderson & Garrison, 1997; Garrison, 2009). Additionally, Renta-Davids et al. (2014), discovered that training design and content, rather than location, had a more significant influence on the outcomes of learning. While the findings of this study support the idea that the location of training is not a driver of its effectiveness, it is crucial to note that some studies indicate that the location of training can influence its effectiveness. For instance, Senel (2014) maintained that OJT is more beneficial than OffJT since it helps learners acquire practical skills and knowledge, and they are able to apply this newly acquired knowledge in a real-world setting immediately. Furthermore, Mahadevan and Yap (2019) discovered that OffJT can be more effective, as it improves theoretical knowledge and abilities, particularly for knowledge that requires a specialised learning environment.

Further investigation was carried out to determine whether the actual T&D attended, regardless of location, impacted employees' knowledge, skills, and capabilities. This shift in emphasis from location to content of the training is critical, as various studies have shown the relevance of training needs assessment and customised training programmes for effective employee development (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Singh, 2021; Burke & Hutchins, 2008).

Guest (1997) stated that T&D programmes, which are some of the most important HRM practices, have a beneficial impact on the quality of workers' knowledge, skills, and capabilities, resulting in higher employee performance at work. Training programmes can have a sequence of positive impacts, improving not only employee knowledge and skill sets, but also capabilities, competencies, and even work-related behaviours (Sal & Raja, 2016). This is especially true in the public sector, where a well-trained and competent workforce is required for effective service delivery to its citizens.

The impact of T&D goes beyond the development of technical skills. Meyer and Allen (1991) recognised employee motivation and commitment as critical elements for successful job performance, and effective training programmes can help cultivate these qualities (Alqudah et al., 2022). Training that instils a feeling of purpose and ownership in one's job while serving the public interest can result in a more engaged and productive public service workforce.

T&D programmes are crucial in promoting HCD. These programmes directly improve individuals' ability to contribute meaningfully to their chosen discipline by providing them with the required knowledge and skills to flourish in their roles (Krishnaveni & Sripirabaa,

2008). According to Nassazi (2013), a well-trained workforce is productive, thus emphasising the relationship between training and job performance.

Considering the approaches for obtaining HCD, a significant theme is the emphasis on education and training. Morgan (2005) characterised HCD as a strategy for building individual and team skills throughout a person's career, with a focus on continuous learning. This is especially important in today's rapidly changing environment. HCD acts as a technique for systematically improving individual skills, resulting in better career prospects, enhanced productivity, and higher earning potential (European Training Foundation, 2010). This boosts a country's economic growth by encouraging innovation. The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (Un-Escwa, 2013) emphasised the correlation between human development, education systems, and a country's innovative capacity. An educated and talented workforce is a key driver of economic growth.

While the current study found a positive impact of T&D and HCD, other research suggests a more multifaceted relationship. Some studies contend that training alone may not have a major impact on employee knowledge, skills, and competencies (Goldstein, 2000; Alliger & Kraiger, 1995). These perspectives stress the relevance of elements other than training, such as human traits, work environment, and organisational culture, in determining HCD outcomes (Noe & Yorks, 2018). Additionally, the findings of this study contradict the findings of Kum et al. (2014), who performed a survey in South Africa and discovered that just 28% of respondents agreed that employees gain new knowledge after training, with a significant proportion (62%) disagreeing. This disparity demonstrates the potential for variance in the effectiveness of T&D programmes across contexts and organisations. The difficulties in properly assessing and putting training programmes into practice could be one reason for this disparity. The transfer of knowledge and skills to the workplace can be hampered by elements including poor training design, ineffective delivery strategies, and inadequate post-training assistance, which can have mixed or even detrimental effects. As a result, while the current findings emphasise the potential benefits of T&D, it is critical to assess the larger context and understand that training is likely just one of several factors leading to HCD.

Existing research has consistently demonstrated a positive impact of T&D on employee knowledge, skills and capabilities, however, there is a limited body of literature that has explicitly examined these constructs as dimensions of HCD, studies often examine them as separate employee performance indicators. Thus, it is important to acknowledge the complexities involved in measuring HCD. The World Economic Forum's Human Capital

Report (WEF, 2013; Msweli, 2015) provides a comprehensive framework for measuring human capital, using an index based on four pillars: (1) education; (2) health and wellness; (3) workforce employment; and (4) enabling environment. This study focuses specifically on the education dimension. This decision is grounded in the recognition that education is a fundamental pillar of human capital and a widely used approach for assessing HCD (Friderichs & Correa, 2022). By focusing on education-based indicators, this study provides a clear and measurable framework for evaluating the impact of T&D and offers a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between T&D and HCD.

Additionally, these dimensions are essential for public sector employees to effectively perform their roles and contribute to organisational goals and can be assessed using various tools and techniques, such as performance appraisals, competency assessments, and surveys. Focusing on knowledge, skills, and capabilities aligns with many public sector initiatives aimed at improving employee performance and organisational effectiveness, demonstrating the relevance of these dimensions to the public sector context.

Furthermore, the conceptual model proposed in Figure 1.1 hypothesised a significant positive impact of actual T&D on HCD dimensions. The empirical findings provide strong support for this hypothesis, demonstrating that T&D initiatives indeed have a positive impact on employee knowledge, skills, and capabilities. The conceptual model is thus supported.

Objective Three: To evaluate differences in employee's attitudes towards the dimensions of training and development programmes offered by the public service based on selected demographic variables

Based on the results, shown in Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6, as well as Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 it is evident that there are statistically significant differences between employee attitudes towards T&D programmes across employee's gender and job title on various dimensions of T&D. The findings are consistent with previous studies that recognise the overall value of training programmes for employee development. The observed variance in attitudes based on job title is consistent with the findings of Colquitt et al. (2000), indicating that employees at different levels have unique training preferences. Possible justifications for the observed attitude differences include the perceived relevance and alignment of training programmes with job-specific demands and career goals. McLean et al. (2017) found that employees at higher levels (middle and senior managers) may prioritise programmes focused on leadership development and strategic skills that could aid them in advancing in their careers. Employees in general, and

junior positions alternatively, may be more interested in learning specific skills that are directly relevant to their current duties (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Furthermore, the lack of perceived relevance or clarity on the benefits of training programmes may be the cause of the neutral attitude shown among general employees and junior managers. Employees who fail to recognise the link between training and their professional and personal development may have a neutral or even negative attitude, according to studies by Baldwin and Ford (1988) by giving employees more authority over their work and asking them what kinds of training they would appreciate most, might result in an improvement in junior managers and general employee's attitudes towards T&D.

Furthermore, the findings are supported by previous studies conducted by other researchers. According to Edgar and Geare (2004), gender disparities are acknowledged by a significant body of research comparing the attitudes and behaviours of men and women (Mor Barak et al., 1998; Konrad & Hartmann, 2001). These differences are frequently linked to the unfair treatment that women endure (Mai-Dalton & Sullivan, 1981; Kirton & Greene; 2015) and it is hypothesised that these encounters influence a person's attitudes and behaviours at work (Cianni & Romberger, 1995). While certain research, such as Webster and Martocchio (1995), could not find any significant gender effects, Feinberg and Halperin (1978) demonstrated that women have lower learning levels. Given the absence of theoretical support for these effects, it is not unforeseen that consistent results for gender have not been found.

The findings of this study are contrary to the findings of Truitt (2011), which revealed that women, significantly more often than men, indicated positive attitudes toward training. Additionally, Bausch et al. (2014) mentioned that older women showed more positive development compared with older men. However, Gegenfurtner (2020) found no significant gender differences in employee motivation to participate in training. These findings indicate that factors other than gender may play an influential role in shaping attitudes towards training programmes.

Gegenfurtner (2020) also highlight the importance of organisational context in gender disparity. Investigating issues such as supervisor support for training and the existence of work-life balance policies could provide an improved understanding of how gender interacts with these variables. The level of support provided by supervisors can significantly influence employees' participation in and benefits from training programmes. Additionally, organisations with supportive work-life balance policies can create a more favourable environment for employees to participate in training and develop their skills. Investigating how gender might influence the

effectiveness of these policies in promoting T&D and HCD could provide valuable insights. For example, if supervisors are not supportive of training attendance or work schedules are not flexible, women may have more difficulty managing work and personal commitments. This could have a disproportionate effect on their attitudes towards training programmes.

While the conceptual model in Figure 1.1 predicted significant differences in employee attitudes towards T&D based on various demographic factors, the empirical findings suggest that such differences only exist among job title and gender. This indicates that the conceptual model is partially supported, requiring minor revisions to account for the unexpected absence of significant differences based on other demographic variables.

5.2.2 Study Model Based on Findings

While the initial conceptual framework proposed in Figure 1.1 laid a solid foundation for the study, it needed to be refined considering the empirical findings. The discrepancy between the proposed conceptual model and empirical findings could be attributed to unforeseen contextual factors, such as organisational culture, industry-specific trends, or recent events, which may have influenced employees in ways that were not anticipated by the conceptual model. This resulted in the construction of the supported outcome model of the study.

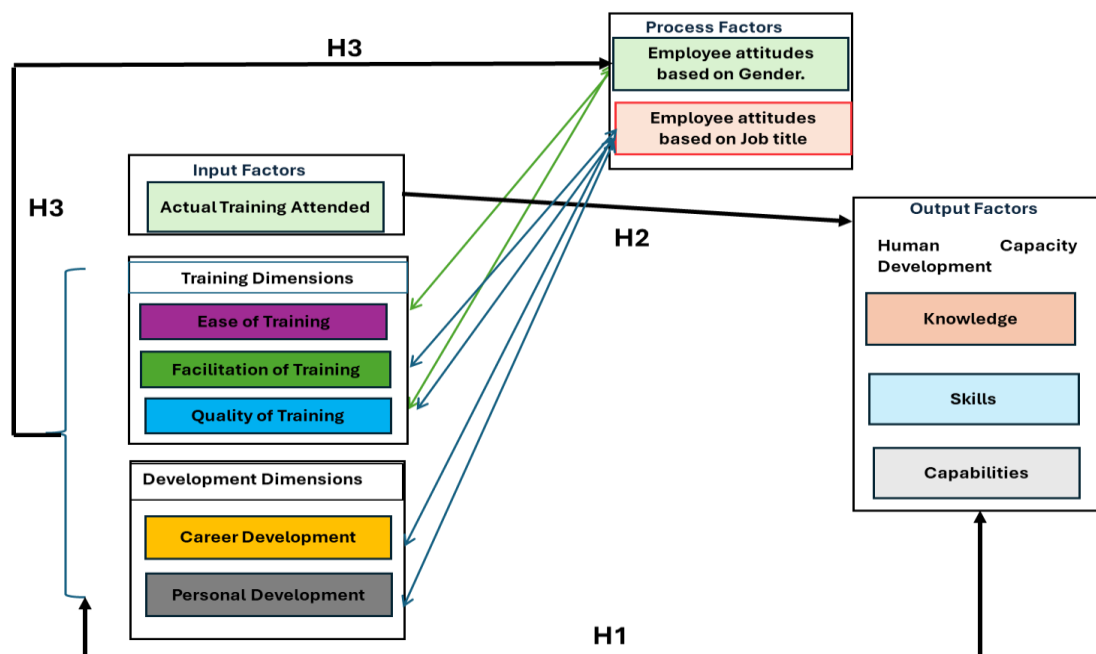


Figure 5.1: Study model based on findings

Based on the accepted hypotheses of the study, Figure 5.1 accurately represents the empirical findings of the study. The modified model is deeply founded in the theoretical underpinnings presented in the study, drawing from the literature on HCD, T&D, and employee attitudes. By incorporating actual findings of the study, the model provides a more comprehensive understanding of the elements that influence employee development and overall performance. Furthermore, the findings in Chapter Four serve as validation for this model. The empirical evidence supports the predicted correlations between T&D and HCD, as well as the effects of gender and job title on employee attitudes and perceptions. This validation enhances the model's acceptability and generalisability, making it a useful tool for researchers.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

This study provides important insights into the role of T&D programmes in the Mbombela public sector. However, this study recognises various limitations that must be acknowledged when evaluating the findings. The study used a non-experimental correlational research design, which limits the capacity to demonstrate causal correlations among variables. While it can detect correlations between T&D and HCD, it cannot conclusively prove that T&D programmes directly improve HCD. While there was a positive relationship between T&D and HCD, as well as neutral and positive attitudes towards T&D programmes, it is not feasible to prove definitively that T&D programmes generated an improvement in employee skills and knowledge.

Furthermore, the sample's demographics may prevent the study's findings from being generalisable to the entire public service workforce. Figure 4.2.1 shows that the sample population is predominantly female. However, according to the South African NDP (SANDP, 2022), female labour force participation in South Africa is barely 50%, compared to 67% for male labour force. This implies that the study may underrepresent the experiences and viewpoints of male public servants. Furthermore, Figure 4.2.5 shows a significant share of mid-career professionals in the sample. While this demographic data are important in the public sector, it may not accurately reflect the experiences of both entry-level and senior-level employees. The sample may not accurately reflect the diversity of the workforce's demographics, job categories, or organisational structures.

Additionally, the study used self-reported data from employees to assess their attitudes towards T&D programmes and the study yielded more neutral and positive attitudes towards T&D. These results could be an overestimation of employee satisfaction with T&D programmes and

their perceived impact on their knowledge, skills, and capabilities level may result from social desirability bias. A smaller and skewed sample might underestimate or overestimate the actual impact of T&D programmes because it would not fully capture the variety of experiences and perceptions found within the Mbombela public service.

While the study identified positive correlations between all T&D dimensions and HCD (Figure 4.5), as well as a positive impact of specific training on HCD dimensions (Figure 4.6), the strength of these relationships varied significantly. The path coefficients, indicating the strength of the correlations, were generally lower for the training process dimensions (ease, facilitation, and training quality) in Objective Two. In contrast, development dimensions within the same objective (career and personal development) had higher path coefficients. Subsequently Objective Two, which examined the impact of individual training programmes attended, had the strongest path coefficients.

This observed difference reveals that specific training programmes have a stronger direct impact on HCD dimensions over individual T&D process factors. Process factors, such as ease, facilitation, and quality of training, have a less direct impact on HCD than the actual content and design of the training. The impact of these process factors could be moderated by factors not directly evaluated in this study, such as the application of learned skills in the workplace. Additionally, the finding that development dimensions generated stronger path coefficients than training dimensions within the same objective (Figure 4.6) warrants additional research. This could be due to a variety of reasons. Development programmes, which emphasise career and personal growth, might foster stronger intrinsic motivation and engagement in learning than training activities. This increased motivation can have a significant impact on skill and knowledge acquisition. Furthermore, development dimensions may have a more direct impact on HCD by prioritising long-term personal and career goals, potentially contributing to a stronger correlation with HCD outcomes.

Ultimately, the context of the public service sector may have influenced the findings of this study, particularly given that the data were collected post COVID-19 following the implementation of hybrid work arrangements. The shift to remote or hybrid work may have altered employee attitudes towards T&D, as well as the availability and effectiveness of training programmes. Factors such as technological limitations, challenges with virtual collaboration, and changes in workload distribution could have impacted employee perceptions of T&D and its effectiveness. Furthermore, the emphasis of public sector organisations on

measurable outcomes may result in a focus on the immediate impact of training programmes on specific job skills, knowledge, and capabilities.

Additionally, there has been little research on HCD in South Africa. Much of the existing research on HCD is based on models and frameworks produced in Western contexts, which may not completely reflect the particular difficulties and opportunities confronting African governments and public sector institutions. Because of the shortage of context-specific research, it is difficult to generalise the findings of this study, as well as previous studies based on Western models of HCD, to the larger African setting.

5.4 Recommendations Based on the Findings of the Study

Building upon the insights gained from this study, some key recommendations are as follows:

5.4.1 Recommendations for Future Research

The current study used a correlational design, which establishes relationships but does not clearly prove causation. Future research could benefit from using experimental methods, such as randomised controlled tests, to identify the precise impacts of T&D programmes on HCD dimensions. This would provide stronger evidence about the causal impact of T&D programmes on employee skills and knowledge. Future studies could also consider conducting longitudinal studies of employee attitudes over time, as this could provide additional solid evidence of causality. Additionally, supplementing quantitative findings with qualitative measures, such as interviews and focus groups, as well as objective measurements of knowledge and skill acquisition, in addition to self-reported data, may improve the validity of the findings.

Though the study recognises the significance of context, a more thorough examination of the content of particular training programmes provided and elements regarding the type of supervisor support provided during training could yield a more nuanced view. For example, examining the quality and design of training programmes, the alignment of training content with employee needs, and the level of encouragement and support provided by supervisors for involvement in T&D activities could provide useful insights.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Public Sector Organisations

The study suggests prioritising development programmes, as well as the content and design of training programmes, because they may have a greater influence on HCD than the training

process itself by ensuring that these programmes are carefully designed, engage, and directly address identified skills and knowledge gaps.

Closing the gap between training and application is critical. Public sector organisations should provide post-training support and opportunities to apply newly gained skills in the workplace because this can help strengthen learning and improve HCD. Furthermore, consideration of the context and diversity of the workforce is critical. Tailoring programmes to varied learning styles and experiences, as well as guaranteeing accessibility through a variety of training styles, can increase employee engagement and effectiveness.

Lastly, encouraging a culture of learning evaluation through regular evaluations of programmes is critical. Collecting feedback from employees and assessing the impact of T&D programmes on key performance indicators enables continual improvement. Implementing these recommendations and prioritising a learning-centred environment can help public sector organisations transform their T&D programmes into a strategic instrument for improving HCD, resulting in a more competent, motivated, and productive workforce. However, it is critical to realise the greater challenge of implementing T&D in South Africa. Resource constraints, fragmented training initiatives, and a lack of emphasis on post-training applications can all hinder the success of T&D programmes. To fully realise T&D's potential for addressing HCD, public sector organisations must address these systemic difficulties in addition to the specific recommendations provided in the study. Taking all of this into consideration, public service organisations now have a direct strategy for increasing employee knowledge, skills and capabilities through effective training programmes. As a result, a long-term competitive advantage is established.

5.5 Practicality of the Study

SEM was employed in this study as a robust statistical technique capable of simultaneously examining multiple relationships between variables (Savalei & Bentler, 2006). Given the complexity of the relationships between T&D dimensions and HCD dimensions, SEM provided a valuable tool for testing the proposed conceptual model. By specifying a series of hypothesised relationships and estimating their parameters, SEM allowed for the assessment of the overall fit of the model to the data and identification of any inconsistencies between the theoretical framework and empirical observations. This approach provided a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the relationships between variables, ultimately enhancing the validity and reliability of the study findings.

Additionally, this study provides significant insights for policymakers, human resource departments, and training programme designers in the South African public sector. The study emphasises the strategic importance of T&D programmes in training public servants with the skills and knowledge required to provide efficient services to citizens. Prioritising investment in T&D results in a more competent and capable workforce, which leads to better service delivery.

Furthermore, the study emphasises the importance of customised training programmes. By understanding the specific demands and obstacles that employees encounter in various areas of public service, training content may be adapted to ensure its relevance and direct impact on job performance. This strategy goes beyond simply enhancing skills; the findings indicate that good T&D programmes may generate intrinsic motivation and a sense of ownership among employees, resulting in a more engaged and dedicated workforce. T&D programmes can help to create a more efficient and effective public service that better meets the needs of South African citizens by providing public servants with the requisite skills, knowledge, and problem-solving abilities.

5.6 Conclusions

This dissertation examined the role of T&D as a strategic tool for fostering HCD within the Mbombela government public service. Employing a quantitative method using questionnaires, the study investigated the relationship between T&D, HCD, and employee attitudes towards these programmes. The study makes significant contributions to the field of public sector HRM. First, it provides an improved understanding of how T&D works in the context of the Mbombela public service. The study emphasises the necessity of taking into account employee demands, job titles, and the design of T&D programmes in order to maximise their effectiveness in developing human capacity. This improved understanding can be used to guide T&D efforts in different public-service contexts and departments. Likewise, this study analysed the attitudes of employees regarding T&D programmes; the analysis demonstrated a generally neutral and positive attitude towards T&D programmes, implying that employees understand the relevance of such programmes in improving skills and knowledge.

In addition, the study contributes to the existing body of literature regarding the positive relationship between T&D and dimensions of HCD. By measuring employee knowledge, skills, and capabilities, the study highlights the importance of well-designed T&D programmes in improving the competence of the public service employees. Likewise, the study emphasises

the importance of tailoring T&D programmes to meet the unique demands and situations of public sector employees. This guarantees that training content directly correlates with increased job performance and service delivery within the Mbombela public service.

The study also emphasises the value of well-designed and focused T&D programmes that satisfy employee requirements and job demands. Additionally, variances in employee attitudes towards T&D programmes were observed based on job title, emphasising the importance of taking individual preferences into account when developing training programmes. These findings have major implications for policymakers and human resource professionals in the public service. Public sector agencies should maximise the benefits of their investments in employee T&D by prioritising excellent programme design, adapting training content to specific needs, and creating a supportive training environment. This results in a more trained, motivated, and effective public service workforce capable of providing high-quality services to citizens.

This research emphasises the varied nature of T&D as a strategic tool for HCD. It emphasises the importance of moving away from just investing in T&D and moving towards a more strategic approach that takes into account context, programme design, and individual requirements. By adopting this strategic approach, public service organisations can use T&D to build a competent workforce, ultimately improving service delivery and strengthening the public sector in South Africa. Future research, stipulated in the limitations section, can help to deepen our understanding of T&D's strategic function and inform the creation of effective training programmes in the public sector.

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ANNEXURES

Annexure A: First proposed instrument

Section A: Demographic Information

❖ Please complete the following questions by ticking one of the boxes in each question

1. Gender:

Male (1)		Female (2)		Other (3)	
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2. Age:

3. Education level:

Certificate (1)		Diploma (2)		Degree (3)		Postgraduate (4)	
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4. Years of experience:

0-5 year (1)		6-10 years (2)		11-15 years (3)		16-20 years (4)		21+years (5)	
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5. Current job title:

General employee (1)		Junior manager (2)		Middle manager (3)		Senior manager (4)	
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6. Race:

Black (1)		White (2)		Coloured (3)		Asian (4)		Other (5)	
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7. Marital status:

Single (1)		Married (2)		Widowed (3)		Divorce (4)	
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8. Any disabilities or special needs

Yes (1)		No (2)	
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Section B: Employee attitudes/perceptions of Training and development programs offered (6-point Likert scale)

❖ Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale below:

- 6- Strongly agree
- 5- Agree
- 4- Somewhat agree
- 3- Somewhat disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 1- Strongly disagree

1. The training programs helped me develop skills relevant to my job.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

2. Training programs are delivered in a way that is easy to understand and apply in the workplace.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

3. Participating in work-related training programs has a positive impact on my promotion chances.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

4. The quality of instruction provided during training helps me improve my job performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

5. I get the needed support from my supervisors during the training process.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

6. The training offered by my department has provided opportunities for my career growth.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

7. My participation in workplace training programs is recognized by my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

8. My participation in workplace training is rewarded by my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

9. There is a disconnect between the training programmes offered by the department and my career goals.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

10. There is a disconnect between the training programmes offered by the department and my organizational goals.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

11. My department's training programmes cater to a diverse range of employees.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

12. My organization adequately invests in their workforce training.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

13. Organizational training programs improved my level of job satisfaction.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

14. The training programmes I attended have helped me work more efficiently.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

15. There are more training options relevant to my career development to choose from.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Section C: Employee attitudes/perceptions towards the different types of training and development programs offered (6-point Likert scale)

Career development

1. The development programmes offered by my department contributed significantly to my career growth.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

2. I am satisfied with the opportunities for career advancement provided through this programme.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

3. I am given clear goals and expectations regarding career development through development programmes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

4. These programmes are well aligned with my long-term career goals.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

5. This programme does not positively impact my career growth.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

6. There are limited opportunities for career advancement through this programme.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Personal development

7. There are customised programmes tailored towards my personal development.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

8. I am satisfied with my department's variety and availability of personal development opportunities.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

9. I have successfully applied the knowledge gained from this programme to my personal life.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

10. These programmes have increased my motivation and confidence in my career/job.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

11. The value of this programme to my personal development is not high.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

12. I lack the motivation to engage in the personal development opportunities provided.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

13. Which of the following on-the-job training have you attended? Tick one only

- ☐ Job rotation (performing different roles to gain experience in various departments)
- ☐ Job expansion (adding more tasks and responsibilities to one's job to give a broader work range)
- ☐ Job shadowing (Observing and learning from experienced employees as they do their jobs).
- ☐ Job enrichment (providing employees with greater control and independence over their work)
- ☐ Coaching (Getting feedback, advice, and support to improve performance and learn new skills)
- ☐ Mentoring (Getting direction and help from a more experienced employee in gaining job-specific abilities)
- ☐ Apprenticeships (gaining practical trade or craft skills under the supervision of a trained mentor)
- ☐ Internships (gaining work experience in the sector by working under professional supervision)

❖ **Based on your experience of the training you have attended and ticked, answer the following questions:**

On-the-job training

14. This training provided me with valuable knowledge for my work duties.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

15. I am satisfied with the effectiveness of this training program in enhancing my work efficiency.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

16. This training program was well organized and structured.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

17. I received the needed support and guidance from my supervisor during this training.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

18. This program was irrelevant to my job responsibilities.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

19. I felt unmotivated to actively participate in this training.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

20. Which of the following off-the-job training have you attended? Tick one only:

- ☐ Workshops and Seminars: Attending specialised training events led by professionals or trainers.
- ☐ Conferences and professional development (Attending industry conferences and development events to learn about current trends and improvements)
- ☐ Formal Education/Classroom training (Obtaining academic degrees, diplomas, or certifications to gain more theoretical knowledge)
- ☐ Online Training and E-Learning (Remotely acquiring new skills and knowledge using the internet and electronic platforms)
- ☐ Industry Certifications (Obtaining certificates of competency in a particular skill or domain)

❖ **Based on your experience of the training you have attended and ticked, answer the following questions:**

Off-the-job training

21. The materials and resources provided during this programme were detailed.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

22. This training programme enhanced my job-related skills.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

23. This programme was effective in improving my job performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

24. The instructors in this programme demonstrated expertise and quality.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

25. This programme was not practically relevant to my work duties.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

26. The materials provided during this training were not useful.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

27. I could easily transfer the skills from this training to my job.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Section D: Perceived Impact of Training and Development on human capacity development (6-point Likert scale)

Knowledge:

1. I have gained new and relevant knowledge through training programmes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

2. The training programmes have improved my understanding of my job and duties.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

3. I am confident in applying the knowledge gained from training to solve work-related challenges.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

4. The training programmes have improved my knowledge of industry trends and best practices.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

5. I can articulate the concepts and principles learned through training programmes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

6. The training programmes have not improved my overall knowledge and expertise in my field.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Skills:

7. I have developed new relevant skills due to participating in training programmes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

8. The training programmes have enhanced my ability to perform job-related tasks effectively.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

9. I am confident using the skills gained through training in actual work scenarios.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

10. The training programs have improved my critical thinking abilities.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

11. I have not noticed an improvement in my teamwork skills after participating in training.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

12. The training programs have equipped me with the needed skills to perform my job excellently.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Capabilities:

13. I am confident in my ability to take on new challenges due to training.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

14. I feel more flexible in handling ever-changing situations due to the training programmes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

15. My ability to manage my time and prioritize tasks has not improved.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

16. I can come up with creative work solutions after participating in training programmes.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

17. The training programmes have improved my decision-making capabilities.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

18. The training programmes have strengthened my overall capabilities to contribute to the success of my organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

Annexure B: Final Research instrument and Consent letter



Researcher: Venacio Rucesia, Std number 201867095

Supervisor: Dr. Christiana Kappo-Abidemi

Telephone: 0130020245

E-mail address: c.kappo-abidemi@ump.ac.za

Dear Potential Research Participant,

I am **Rucesia Venacio**, a **Master of Art in Industrial Psychology** student at the University of Mpumalanga, in the school of development studies in the Faculty of Economics, Development and Business Sciences. You are invited to participate in a research project titled:

The role of Training and Development as a strategic tool in Human Capacity development: A case of Mbombela Government Employees.

The research objectives of the study are:

- To determine the impact of actual training and development attended on human capacity development based on knowledge, skills, and capabilities amongst employees in the public service.
- To explore the relationship between dimensions of training and development and human capacity development.
- To evaluate the employees' attitudes towards the training and development programmes offered by the public service based on selected demographic variables.

If you decide to take part in the study, you will be required to do the following:

- Sign this informed consent form.
- You are required to answer all questions.

The questions are strictly for the purpose of this research study. Please note that your participation in answering this questionnaire is completely voluntary and you are allowed to withdraw any time should you wish to. Your name will not be recorded anywhere, and no one will be able to connect you to the answers you give. Your answers will be given a code number, or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way during data analysis and discussion of results in the research report. All responses will be summed together as a group with other respondents with no reference to individuals. This research is strictly for educational or academic purposes.

Your co-operation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. Please sign the informed consent below if you agree to participate in the study.

Kindly, answer each question honestly and accurately as your participation in this process is essential to the success of this study.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Rucrecia Venacio', with a stylized flourish at the end.

—
Signature

Rucrecia Venacio

CONSENT FORM

1. I agree to and am voluntarily taking part in this research project.
2. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and may choose to no longer participate without having to explain myself.
3. I am aware that the information I provide on the questionnaire is for educational/academic purposes.
4. I understand that my name will not be recorded.
5. I have been provided with, and have read, the information leaflet regarding this research study.
6. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study and received satisfactory answers to my questions and any additional details I wanted.
7. I agree to answer the questions to the best of my ability.
8. I understand that I may refuse to answer any questions that I do not feel comfortable answering.
9. By signing this letter, I give free and informed consent to participate in this research study.

DATE			
PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE			
RESEARCHER NAME	R.N Venacio	RESEARCHER SIGNATURE	

This research is being conducted by Rucrecia Venacio

Telephone: 0719048587

E-mail: ruckiivenacio@gmail.com

If there are any further questions about the research study or the questions themselves, please contact the Supervisor (Dr C. Kappo-Abidemi) at UMP. The Supervisor's contact details are as follows:

Supervisor

Tel: 0130020245

Email: C.Kappo-Abidemi@ump.ac.za

Section A: Demographic Information

❖ Please complete the following questions by ticking one of the boxes in each question

1. Gender:

Male (1)	☐	Female (2)	☐	Other (3)	☐
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2. Age:

3. Education level:

Certificate (1)	☐	Diploma (2)	☐	Degree (3)	☐	Postgraduate (4)	☐
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4. Current job title:

General employee (1)	☐	Junior manager (2)	☐	Middle manager (3)	☐	Senior manager (4)	☐
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5. Race:

Black (1)	☐	White (2)	☐	Coloured (3)	☐	Indian (4)	☐	Other (5)	☐
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6. Marital status:

Single (1)	☐	Married (2)	☐	Widowed (3)	☐	Divorce (4)	☐
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Section B: Employee's general attitudes of Training programmes offered by the public service in the past 5 years (6-point Likert scale)

❖ Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale below:

- 6- Strongly agree
- 5- Agree
- 4- Somewhat agree
- 3- Somewhat disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 1- Strongly disagree

S/N	Research Items	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Ease of training programme							
1.	The training materials were easy to use.						
2.	Straightforward instructions were provided during the training session.						
3.	It was easy for me to navigate through the training programme.						
4.	The pace of the training programme was comfortable for me to follow.						
5.	I received the needed support when I encountered challenges during the training.						
Facilitation of training programme:							
6.	The trainers were well prepared for training sessions.						
7.	The trainers effectively engaged with participants.						
8.	Trainers answered questions and concerns efficiently.						
9.	The trainers encouraged active participation among attendees.						
10.	The facilitators adapted training programmes to the need of the participants.						
Quality of training programme							
11.	The training content aligned with my work tasks.						
12.	The training programmes covered relevant information related to my work tasks.						
13.	The quality of training materials was of a high standard.						
14.	The training programmes was well structured.						
15.	The feedback provided by the trainer were fair.						

Section C: Employee general attitudes towards development programmes offered by the public service in the past 5 years (6-point Likert scale)

S/N	Research Items	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Career development							
1.	The development programmes offered by my department contributed significantly to my career growth.						
2.	I am satisfied with the opportunities for career advancement provided through this programme.						
3.	I am given clear goals and expectations regarding career development through development programmes.						
4.	These programmes are well aligned with my long-term career goals.						
5.	This programme positively contributes to my career growth.						
6.	This programme positively impacts my fulfilment in my career.						
Personal development							
7.	There are customised programmes tailored towards my personal development.						
8.	I am satisfied with my department's variety of personal development opportunities.						
9.	I have successfully applied the knowledge gained from this programme to my personal life.						
10.	These programmes have increased my confidence in my career.						
11.	The value of this programme to my individual growth is high.						
12.	I successfully applied strategies learned from personal development programmes in my job.						

Section D: Employee general attitudes towards specific training programmes offered by the public service (6-point Likert scale)

1. Which of the following training programmes have you attended in the past 5 years? Tick as many you have attended.

- ☐ 1. Job rotation (Performing different roles to gain experience in various departments)
- ☐ 2. Job expansion (adding more tasks and responsibilities to one's job to give a broader work range)
- ☐ 3. Job shadowing (Observing and learning from experienced employees as they do their jobs).
- ☐ 4. Job enrichment (Providing employees with greater control and independence over their work)
- ☐ 5. Coaching (Getting feedback, advice, and support to improve performance and learn new skills)
- ☐ 6. Mentoring (Getting direction and help from a more experienced employee in gaining job-specific abilities)
- ☐ 7. Apprenticeships (Gaining practical trade or craft skills under the supervision of a trained mentor)
- ☐ 8. Internships (Gaining work experience in the sector by working under professional supervision)
- ☐ 9. Workshops (Short training sessions on specific skills)
- ☐ 10. Seminars (Specialised educational training events led by professionals or trainers).
- ☐ 11. Conferences (Events to network and learn about developments in one's industry).
- ☐ 12. Professional development (Knowledge and skills enhancement programmes aligned with one's career aspirations)
- ☐ 13. Formal Education (Obtaining academic degrees, diplomas, or certifications)
- ☐ 14. Online Training/E-Learning (Remotely acquiring new skills and knowledge using the internet and electronic platforms)
- ☐ 15. Industry Certifications (Obtaining certificates of competency in a particular domain)

2. Name ONE most recent training you have attended based on the ticked responses above?

3. Where was the most recent training you attended conducted: (Circle the answer)

- a) At your workplace
- b) Outside your workplace

❖ **Based on the most recent training you have attended and written, answer the following questions:**

S/N	Research Items	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	The materials provided during this programme were detailed.						
2.	This training programme enhanced my job-related skills.						
3.	This programme was effective in improving my job performance.						
4.	The instructors in this programme demonstrated expertise.						

5.	I could easily transfer the skills from this training to my job.						
6.	This training provided me with valuable knowledge for my work duties.						
7.	I am satisfied with the effectiveness of this training programme in enhancing my work efficiency.						
8.	This training programme was well organised.						
9.	I received the needed support from my supervisor during this training.						
10.	This programme was linked to my job responsibilities.						
11.	I felt motivated to actively participate in this training.						

Section E: Impact of Training and Development on human capacity development (6-point Likert scale)

S/N	Knowledge	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1.	I have gained relevant knowledge about the public service through training programmes.						
2.	The training programmes have improved my understanding of my job duties in the public sector.						
3.	I am confident in applying the knowledge gained from public service training to solve work-related challenges.						
4.	The training programmes improved my knowledge of the public service core business.						
5.	The training programmes helped me to understand important concepts in the public service.						
6.	I learned public sector principles through attending training programmes.						
7.	The training programmes added significant value to the expertise required in my field.						
Skills							
8.	I have developed relevant skills due to participating in public service training programmes.						
9.	Public service training programmes enhanced my ability to perform work tasks efficiently.						
10.	I am confident in using the skills gained through public service training in actual work scenarios.						
11.	The public service training programmes improved my critical thinking abilities.						
12.	I have noticed an improvement in my baseline skills after participating in public service training.						
13.	The public service training programmes equipped me with the skills needed to perform my job excellently.						
Capabilities							
14.	I am confident in my ability to take on new challenges due to development programmes provided by the public sector.						

15.	I feel more flexible in handling ever-changing situations due to the public service development programmes.						
16.	Public service training has improved my ability to prioritise tasks.						
17.	I can come up with creative work solutions after participating in public service training programmes.						
18.	The public service development programmes have improved my decision-making capabilities.						
19.	The public service training and development programmes strengthened my contribution to the success of my organisation.						

END!!!!!!

Annexure C: Gatekeeper request letter



Private Bag X11283, Mbombela 1200, South Africa, Tel: (013) 002 0232

The Director

Research Services Unit

Mpumalanga Provincial Government

Dear Sir/Madam

Request to conduct research.

In partial fulfilment of the Master of Arts in Industrial Psychology requirements, our students are expected to complete a research project. In this regard, we kindly request permission for (Rucresia, Venacio, 201867095) to conduct her project in your organisation. The project title is **The Role of Training and Development as a strategic tool in Human Capacity Development: A Case of Mbombela Government Employees.**

Employees who are willing to participate will be asked to complete the attached questionnaire: We want to clarify that the project is solely for academic purposes, and the branch name or the employees who will participate in the project will remain anonymous. The project will be guided by the University of Mpumalanga's ethics policy and the POPI Act to ensure that personal information is kept private. Accordingly, project details will not be publicised without consent or permission from the organisation.

A copy of the completed feedback report will be available upon request. For further details, please contact the undersigned.

Your approval will be greatly appreciated.

Kind regards

Supervisor's Signature:

Date: 18th July 2023

Supervisor's Name: Dr Christiana Kappo-Abidemi

Cell number: 0646496280

Work telephone number: 0130020245

E-mail: C.Kappo-Abidemi@ump.ac.za

Annexure D: FRIC clearance letter



FACULTY OF ECONOMICS, DEVELOPMENT AND BUSINESS SCIENCES
FACULTY RESEARCH AND INNOVATION COMMITTEE (FRIC)

PROPOSAL REVIEW LETTER

Date 22 August 2023

Dear Rucesia Venacio (201867095)

Research proposal topic:

**The role of Training and Development as a Strategic tool in Human Capacity Development:
A case of Mbombela Government Employees.**

Your research proposal was read by FRIC and the outcome is that it was:

- A. Accepted as satisfactory *
- B. Accepted but requires minor changes to be made
- C. Accepted but requires major changes to be made.
- D. Rejected

Yours sincerely

Prof. Calvin Gwandure

Chairperson, Scientific Peer Review Committee,

Mbombela Campus (Main Campus)
University of Mpumalanga, Private Bag x 11283, Mbombela, 1200
c/o D725 and R40, Riverside, Mbombela, South Africa, 1200
Tel: +27 13 002 0001

Siyabuswa Campus
Bhekimfundo Drive, Siyabuswa,
South Africa, 0472
Tel: +27 13 590 0590

General enquiries (Switchboard)
Tel: +27 13 002 0001
Email: info@ump.ac.za
Web: www.ump.ac.za

Annexure E: FREC ethical clearance letter

Faculty Research Ethics Committee

FREC-UMP



UNIVERSITY OF
MPUMALANGA

Ref: UMP/Venasio/09/2023

Date: 7 September 2023

RUCRESIA VENACIO [201867095]

School of Development Studies

University of Mpumalanga

RE: APPROVAL FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE FOR THE STUDY:

The role of Training and Development as a Strategic tool in Human Capacity Development: A case of Mbombela Government Employees

Reference is made to the above heading.

The Chairperson, on behalf of the Faculty Research Ethics Committee (Faculty of Economics, Development and Business Sciences) UMP, approved the ethical clearance of the above-mentioned study. Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e., Questionnaire/Interviews Schedule, Informed Consent form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach, and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be stored securely in the school/division for a period of 5 years.

The Ethical Clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter, Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

A handwritten signature in black ink.

Prof. Ogujiuba Kanayo
Chairperson: FREC,
Faculty of Economics, Development and Business Sciences
University of Mpumalanga

Annexure F: Permission to conduct research



office of the premier
MPUMALANGA PROVINCE
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

No 7 Government Boulevard, Riverside Park, Ext 2, Mbombela, 1200, Mpumalanga Province,
Private Bag X 11291 Nelspruit, 1200
Tel: +27 (0) 13 766 0000, Int: +27 13 766 0000

Lihovisi la Ndvunankhulu

I-Ofisi Lika Ndunakulu

Kantoor van die Premier

Enq : L Ngwenyama
Tel : 013 766 2115

Ms Rucesia Varacio
University of Mpumalanga
Private Bag X11283
MBOMBELA
1200

Dear Ms. Rucesia Varecio

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

The above matter has reference

The Office of the Premier Research Services wishes to acknowledge receipt of your request to conduct research within the Provincial Administration for your Master's degree on "The role of training and development as a strategic tool in the human capacity development".

The office has perused your request and found no challenges that might hinder your request and therefore the permission for your study is granted with the following understanding;

1. You can conduct your research study with the identified respondents from the provincial administration/departments in the relevant trade of study.
2. If you are extending the scope to include other entities, (public entities, and Municipalities), you may write directly to the CEOs and Municipal Managers in that regard. Stating the objectives of the study and permission request thereof.

However, it is your responsibility to develop a research plan and secure appointments with the relevant respondents.

We appreciate your commitment to share your research findings upon completion of your study with the Mpumalanga Provincial Administration. Your request is therefore supported in general. The office wishes you good luck on your studies.

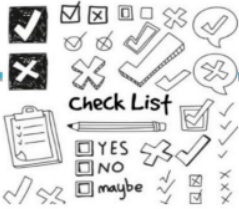
Kind Regards


Mr. M. MAMPURU

DIRECTOR-GENERAL: OFFICE OF THE PREMIER OF MPUMALANGA

DATE: 2023/11/08

Annexure G: Certificate of Dissertation Editing



Helen Bond
IMPELA EDITING SERVICES
impelaediting@gmail.com
079 395 5873

26 September 2024

CERTIFICATE

Rucrezia Venacio

Dear Rucrezia

Thank you for using Impela Editing Services to edit your Master's thesis entitled "Training and Development as a Strategic Tool in Human Capacity Development: A Case of Mbombela Government Employees, South Africa".

I have proofread for errors of grammar, punctuation, spelling, syntax and typing mistakes. I have formatted your work and checked the references (this means checking the formatting).

PLEASE NOTE: Impela Editing accepts no fault if an author does not accept the corrections suggested or makes changes to a document after a certificate has been issued. A client may choose to accept none, some, or all of the editor's editorial changes and/or suggestions.

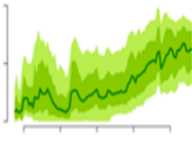
I wish you the very best in your submission.

Kind regards



Helen Bond (Bachelor of Arts, HDE)

Annexure H: Certificate of Statistical analysis run by a professional statistician

	Stat Consult
Certificate of Statistical Analysis This is to certify that the statistical analysis for the research project titled: <i>The role of Training and Development as a strategic tool in Human Capacity development: A case of Mbombela Government Employees</i> was conducted by Okechinyere Achilonu, a professional statistician at Stat Consult, for: <i>Rucrezia Venacio</i> Date Issued: 28th March 2024  Okechinyere Achilonu BSc (Hons), Mathematical Statistics (<i>Wits</i>) MSc, Statistics & Actuarial Science (<i>Wits</i>) PhD, Biostatistics (<i>Wits</i>)	

Annexure I: Turnitin Plagiarism Report

RN Venacio

ORIGINALITY REPORT

13%

SIMILARITY INDEX

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STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1

Joseph Kwadwo Danquah, Oliver S. Crocco, Qazi Moinuddin Mahmud, Muhammad Rehan, Lubna Javed Rizvi. "Connecting concepts: bridging the gap between capacity development and human resource development", Human Resource Development International, 2022

Publication

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