

**MANAGEMENT SKILLS TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS
OF COMPANY AND BATTALION COMMANDERS
IN THE TURKISH ARMY**

**The Institute of Economics and Social Sciences
of
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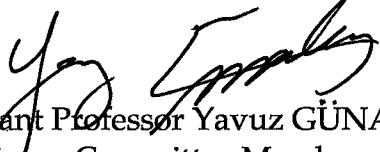
JULY 2001

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ABSTRACT

MANAGEMENT SKILLS TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS OF COMPANY AND BATTALION COMMANDERS IN THE TURKISH ARMY

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M.B.A. THESIS

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The Turkish Army like other organizations tries to keep up with the change in all areas and uses some methods of change. One of the areas is management and the method of change used by The Army is training and development of its officers at managerial positions. The army needs to know whether its officers need training or not. A needs analysis should be done for this.

This study tries to determine whether the officers at two managerial positions, company and battalion commanders, need training in nine topics of management skills. The topics are: problem solving, stress management, organizing/coordinating, conflict management, motivating, coaching and counseling, team building, communication, empowering/delegating. A questionnaire is developed and used to collect the data. Determining the needs is the first step of designing training programs.

Keywords: Change Management, Training And Development, Needs Analysis, Management Skills.

ÖZET

TÜRK KARA KUVVETLERİNDEKİ BÖLÜK VE TABUR KOMUTANLARININ YÖNETİCİLİK YETENEKLERİ EĞİTİM İHTİYAÇLARI ANALİZİ

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Türk Kara Kuvvetleri, diğer organizasyonlar gibi tüm alanlarda değişime ayak uydurmaya çalışmakta ve bunun için bazı metodlar kullanmaktadır. Bu alanlardan birisi yöneticilik ve bunun için kullanılan metod ise yönetici pozisyonunda bulunan subayların eğitimi ve geliştirilmesidir. Kara Kuvvetleri Komutanlığı'nın subaylarının eğitime ihtiyacı olup olmadığını bilmesi gerekir. Bunun için bir ihtiyaç analizi yapılmalıdır.

Bu çalışma iki pozisyondaki, bölük ve tabur komutanlığı, subayların yöneticilik yeteneklerinin dokuz alanında eğitime ihtiyacı olup olmadığını tespit etmeye çalışmaktadır. Araştırılan 9 yöneticilik yeteneği şunlardır: problem çözme, stres yönetimi, organize/koordine etme, anlaşmazlık (çatışma) yönetimi, motive etme, koçluk etme/yönlendirme, ekip kurma, iletişim, görev/yetki devri. Bilgileri toplamak için bir anket geliştirilmiş ve kullanılmıştır. İhtiyaçların tespit edilmesi bu konulara yönelik eğitim programı yazılmasının ilk aşamasıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Değişim Yönetimi, Eğitim Ve Geliştirme, İhtiyaç Analizi, Yöneticilik Yetenekleri.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Organizations want to stay competitive in an inevitably changing environment. Effective management of people in an organization is one of the competencies of organizations and effective management requires high level of competence in management skills.

Organizations try to keep up with the changing world and stay competitive by developing themselves and use some methods to develop themselves. These methods are technological, managerial, and people (methods of affecting change through people) methods. Education and training is one of the people methods (Connor and Lake, 1988).

By using education and training methods organizations can have workers with high performance. This can be done by either training them and training their managers and thus managing them more effectively and getting high performance. In fact, training the managers is somehow training their subordinates as well because a good manager knows that training subordinates is a responsibility of him or her. The managers need to have some skills to manage their subordinates effectively and to manage their job effectively (Whetten and Cameron, 1998). Meaning, managers should do the right things to be a good manager at their managerial position (Craig, 1987). As mentioned above this needs some managerial

skills. These skills include personal, interpersonal and group skills (Whetten and Cameron, 1998).

Management is an important factor for the firm's success. excellent management can make dramatic and rapid improvements in an organization. So an organization tries to provide better management (Whetten and Cameron, 1998). To provide better managers organizations either 'hire' new better managers or 'train and educate' the current managers.

How will an organization know whether the manager is successful or be able to contribute to the organization? The answer is different for new managers and the organization's current managers. For the new manager or manager candidate, an organization can make some tests to assess the knowledge of the manager, this will show whether she or he can meet the qualifications or not. She or he can either 'be hired and trained' according to the needs or 'not be hired' because of the lack of knowledge.

For the current managers of the organization, the organization has the chance to assess both the knowledge and the behavior of the managers. Both their knowledge and behavior can be tested and the results will reveal whether they need to be trained to be a better manager or not.

Organizations often do not have the luxury of firing the low performing people and hiring new, better performing people but have chance to train the low

performing people. Training their staff is generally preferred by organizations to firing etc.

To train the people in an organization the first thing to be done is to determine whether there is a need for training or not. The needs can be determined by comparing the current position with what it should be. If there is a difference, there is a need for training.

The aim of this research is to determine whether there is a need for training for management skills of the company and battalion commanders of Turkish Army. Determining the needs is the first step of designing training programs for the needs. Designing the programs for the topics that need to be developed requires different studies and the training method (on the job, off the job, on the site but off the job) may differ for the different topics of needs or for different subtopics. The design of the program and selection of the training method should be determined by studying every need-topic differently. The topics, which are investigated with this study, are problem solving, stress management, organizing/coordinating, conflict management, motivating, coaching/counseling, team building, communicating, and empowering/delegating.

These skills have been chosen because they are the most frequently cited skills of effective managers according to the study, which has been done by Cameron and Tschirhart (1988). Organizing and coordinating have been added to

the skills determined by this study since it is a needed skill for officers according to Army implementation order signed in 2000 by Career Development Department.

An empirical study has been conducted to determine the training needs of company and battalion commanders and a questionnaire has been developed. The required knowledge and the behaviors of officers have been determined by a literature survey. The questionnaire was given to the company and battalion commanders. These positions were selected because they are the first two levels of the managerial positions where the topics of management skills, which are investigated in this research, are being used but where the officers are not very experienced. With further studies, officers can be trained before being appointed to these positions. Besides, the current training can be evaluated according to its results.

The report will begin with change management, and the third chapter is about training and development as a method of change, and needs analysis inside training and development. The fourth chapter is about the methodology, the evaluation and the results of the research. Finally, discussion, conclusions and directions for future research are stated.

CHAPTER TWO

CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Change is the only constant, we are told in the twenty-first century (Ojala, 1997). In order for many organizations to stay competitive in their fields, they must be prepared for change and the effects of that change. Change management helps companies predict, institute, guide, facilitate, and evaluate change. Change management is the focus of the change project (or initiative), whether it is to bring about alterations at the individual, group or organizational level (Henderson and McAdam, 1998). The concept behind change and change management is that these changes or alterations refer to proactive business improvements (Henderson and McAdam, 1998).

Change has become the norm in most organizations. Plant closings, business failures, mergers and acquisitions, and downsizing have become experiences common to many companies. In the past, organizations could succeed by claiming excellence in one area— for example quality, reliability, or cost—but this is not the case today. The current environment demands excellence in all areas, and organizations are taking steps to achieve this goal (Nelson and Quick, 1997).

There are two basic forms of change in organizations. Planned change is change resulting from a deliberate decision to alter the organization. Companies that wish to move from a traditional hierarchical structure to one that facilitates self-managed teams must use a proactive, carefully orchestrated approach. Not all change is planned, however. Unplanned change is imposed on the organization and

is often unforeseen. Changes in government regulations and changes in the economy, for example, often lead to unplanned organizational change. Responsiveness to unplanned change requires tremendous flexibility and adaptability on the part of organizations. Managers must be prepared to handle both planned and unplanned forms of change in organizations (Nelson and Quick, 1997).

Change is inevitable and is not always good (Ojala, 1997); therefore, organizations must understand the sources that drive change, how their employees will react to change, and the underlying principles of change, and use them to develop a comprehensive change management framework that will ensure a successful change project (Hirschfield, 1999).

2.1 Sources of Change

Organizational changes have their sources either from outside the organization or within it. Some examples of sources of change include (Connor and Lake, 1988):

2.1.1. External Sources of Change

Social: Social changes in organizations' environment are those changes in the beliefs, values, attitudes, opinions, and life styles of society as a whole.

Political / Legal and Economic Environment: The political power or political climate, the laws and regulations, and the environmental economic conditions.

Technological Developments: Technological developments affect organizations in two ways. The first is general technological developments such as

telephones, computers etc. The second are the developments in a particular company's own industry.

2.1.2 Internal Sources of Change

Professional Associations: These are the vehicles by which people can relate with members of their professions outside their organizations. Through membership in professional organizations, subscriptions to professional journals, and attendance at conventions and lectures, professionals continually learn of new developments in their specialties. Engineers bring back to their companies the latest technical information either to apply directly or to develop further for use. Managers learn new managerial techniques, new ways of designing organizations, and new areas of economic opportunity, which they apply to their own companies.

New Organizational Goals: Existing means must be changed in order to achieve new goals. New goals may need to change products, or responsibilities. The organization must be adapted to the new goals.

Excess Organizational Resources: Changes appear because the excess resources vary and different companies chose to use them in different ways. Some companies provide extra services to their employees and some companies provide supervisory and training programs or job development courses. Companies may also choose to apply their excess resources to finding new ways of doing business.

2.2 Objects of Change

Organizational changes can have several kinds of impact. For one thing, they can affect individuals and their jobs, such as the social worker whose caseload has doubled because of drastic reduction of federal funds. Changes can also take place in the ways in which decisions are made, performance is measured and appraised, or career paths are charted; these kinds of changes affect fundamental organizational processes. Changes can occur in a company's long-range goals, the products that a manufacturing firm produces, or the clientele that a state agency serves. These are changes in the organization's strategic direction. Finally, changes can affect such things as the ways in which people share information with each other (or withhold it), encourage experimentation (or discourage it), or support other work groups in the organization (or downgrade them). These are examples of changes affecting norms, which is a way of saying that changes can affect an organization's culture.

2.3 The Scope of Change

Change can be of a relatively small scope, such as a modification in a work procedure (an incremental change). Such change, in essence, is a fine-tuning of the organization, or the making of small improvements. Change also can be of a larger scale, such as the restructuring of an organization (a strategic change)(Nadler, 1988). In strategic change, the organization moves from an old state to a known new state during a controlled period of time. Strategic change usually involves a series of transition steps.

The most massive scope of change is transformational change, in which the organization moves to a radically different, and sometimes unknown, future state (Ackerman, 1986). In transformational change, the organization's mission, culture, goals, structure, and leadership may all change dramatically (Jick, 1993).

Many organizations undertake transformational change in order to meet the competitive challenge of globalization. In 1982, British Airways faced two extreme external pressures. One pressure was the deregulation of international air traffic, with resulting fare wars among airlines. Another pressure was the British government's decision to take British Airways from government to private ownership. British Airways made radical changes in its structure, systems, culture, and mission in order to survive the competitive challenge (Goodstein and Burke, 1991).

2.4 The Change Agent

The individual or group who undertakes the task of introducing and managing a change in an organization is known as a change agent. Change agents can be internal, such as managers or employees who are appointed to oversee the change process. Change agents can also be external, such as outside consultants.

Internal change agents have certain advantages in managing the change process. They know the organization's past history, its political system, and its culture. Because they must live with the results of their change efforts, internal change agents are likely to be very careful about managing change. There are

disadvantages, however, to using internal change agents. They may be associated with certain factions within the organization and may easily be accused of favoritism. Furthermore, internal change agents may be too close to the situation to have an objective view of what needs to be done.

External change agents bring an outsider's objective view to the organization. They may be preferred by employees because of their impartiality. External change agents face certain problems, including their limited knowledge of the organization's history. In addition, they may be viewed with suspicion by organization members. External change agents have more power in directing changes if employees perceive the change agents as being trustworthy, possessing important expertise, having a track record that establishes credibility, and being similar to them (Beer, 1980).

2.5 The Process of Change in Organizations

Once an organization has made the decision to change, careful planning and analysis must take place. Part of the planning involves the recognition that individuals, when faced with change, often resist. Some individuals are more open to change, in general, than others. The challenge of managing the change process involves harnessing the energy of diverse individuals who hold a variety of views of change. It is important to recognize that most changes will be met with varying degrees of resistance and to understand the basis of resistance to change.

2.5.1 Resistance to Change

Resistance to change is any attempt to maintain the status quo when there is pressure for change (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). Acts of resistance can slow down or stop the organization's transition from its current state to some desired future state. Change agents who recognize the inevitability of resistance to change and develop strategies for dealing with it can successfully manage the organization's transition. Change agents who dismiss the topic of resistance will likely be left within an organization caught somewhere between the original and the transition; with more problems created than solved (Connor and Lake, 1988).

Some of the major reasons for resisting change follow.

Fear of the unknown: Change often brings with it substantial uncertainty. This is especially a problem when there has been a lack of communication about the change.

Fear of loss: When a change is impending, some employees may fear losing their jobs or their status.

Fear of failure: Some employees fear changes because they fear their own failure. The employees fear because they think that they may not keep pace with the change and achieve changes.

Disruption of interpersonal relationships: Employees may resist change that threatens to limit meaningful interpersonal relationships on the job.

Personality conflicts: When the change agent's personality engenders negative reactions, employees may resist to the change (Klein, 1969).

Politics: Organizational change may also shift the existing balance of power in the organization. Individuals or groups who hold power under the current arrangement may be threatened with losing these political advantages in the beginning of change.

Cultural assumptions and values: Sometimes cultural assumptions and values can be impediments to change, particularly if the assumptions underlying the change are alien to employees. This form of resistance can be very difficult to overcome, because some cultural assumptions are unconscious. For example some cultures tend to avoid uncertainty (Nelson and Quick, 1997), such as Mexican and Greek cultures, in these cultures change that creates a great deal of uncertainty may be met with great resistance.

The reasons for resistance are as diverse as the workforce itself and vary with individuals and organizations. The challenge for managers is introducing change in a positive manner and managing employee resistance.

2.5.2 Managing Resistance to Change

The traditional view of resistance to change treated it as something to be overcome, and many organizational attempts to reduce the resistance have only served to intensify it. The contemporary view holds that resistance is simply a form of feedback and that this feedback can be used very productively to manage the

change process (Klein, 1969). One key to managing resistance is to plan for it and to be ready with a variety of strategies for using the resistance as feedback and helping employees negotiate the transition. Three key strategies for managing resistance to change are communication, participation, and empathy and support (Cummings and Huse, 1985).

Communication about impending change is essential if employees are to adjust effectively. The details of the change should be provided, but equally important is the rationale behind the change.

Participation is another essential factor in the change process. Participation helps employees become involved in the change and establish a feeling of ownership of the process. When employees are allowed to participate, they are more committed to the change.

Another strategy for managing resistance is providing empathy and support to employees who have trouble dealing with the change. Emotional support and encouragement can help an employee deal with the anxiety that is a natural response to change.

2.5.3 Behavioral Reactions to Change

In spite of attempts to minimize the resistance to change in an organization, some reactions to change are inevitable. Negative reactions may be manifested in overt behavior, or change may be resisted more passively. People show four basic,

identifiable reactions to change: disengagement, disidentification, disenchantment, and disorientation (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979).

Disengagement is psychological withdrawal from change. The employee may appear to lose initiative and interest in the job. The basic managerial strategy for dealing with disengaged individuals is to confront them with their reaction and draw them out so that they can identify the concerns that need to be addressed.

Another reaction to change is disidentification. Individuals reacting in this way feel that their identity has been threatened by the change, and they feel very vulnerable. Because disidentified employees are so vulnerable, they often feel like victims in the change process. Managers can help them through the transition by encouraging them to explore their feelings and helping them transfer their positive feelings into the new situation.

Disenchantment is also a common reaction to change. It is usually expressed as negativity or anger. Disenchanted employees realize that the past is gone, and they are angry about it. The first step in managing this reaction is to bring these employees from their highly negative, emotionally charged state to a more neutral state. The second part of the strategy for dealing with disenchanted employees is to acknowledge that their anger is normal and that you do not hold it against them.

Another reaction to change is disorientation. Disorientated employees are lost and confused, and often they are unsure of their feelings. They waste energy trying to figure out what to do instead of how to do things. The managerial strategy for

dealing with this reaction is to explain the change in a way that minimizes the ambiguity that is present. The information about the change needs to be put into a framework or an overall vision so that the disoriented individual can see where he or she fits into the grand scheme of things.

Managers need to be able to diagnose these four reactions to change. By recognizing each reaction and applying the appropriate strategy, it is possible to help even strong resisters work through a transition successfully (Nelson and Quick, 1997).

2.5.4 Lewin's Change Model

Kurt Lewin developed a model of the change process that many organizations use to manage planned change. Lewin suggests a force field analysis when trying to implement change. Figure 1 shows a force field analysis of a decision to engage in exercise behavior.

This model contends that a person's behavior is the product of two opposing forces; one force pushes toward preserving the status quo, and another force pushes for change. When the two opposing forces are approximately equal, current behavior is maintained. For behavioral change to occur, the forces maintaining status quo must be overcome. This can be accomplished by increasing the forces for change, by weakening the forces for status quo, or by a combination of these actions. The reaction of an organization resembles that of a human being. A similar analysis can be done for companies trying to decide whether there is a need for change or not.

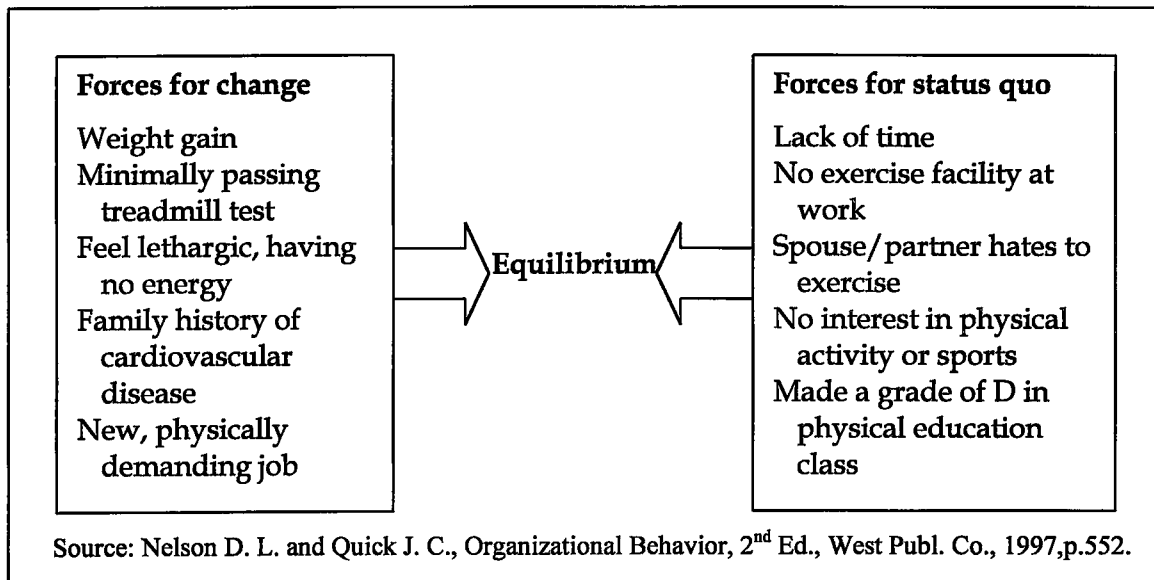


Figure 1- Force Field Analysis of a Decision to Engage in Exercise

Lewin's change model is a three-step process. The process begins with unfreezing, which is a crucial first hurdle in the change process. Unfreezing involves encouraging individuals to discard old behaviors by shaking up the equilibrium state that maintains the status quo.

The second step in the change process is moving. In the moving stage, new attitudes, values, and behaviors are substituted for old ones. Organizations accomplish moving by initiating new options and explaining the rationale for the change, as well as by providing training to help employees develop the new skills they need.

Refreezing is the final step in the change process. In this step, new attitudes, values, and behaviors are established as the new status quo. The new ways of operating are cemented in and reinforced.

For example, a person who is very lazy and gets up late, joins the Army as a recruit. He is taken in a very different environment, he cannot do what he wants to do and he is forced to do everything that he is told to do. The person is shocked and thus the person decreases the resistance to change. Then comes the second phase, the old behaviors can be substituted with new ones by training such as waking up early, moving fast etcetera. Then at the last phase reinforcers such as rewards and punishments are used to refreeze new behavior.

Lewin's model proposes that for change efforts to be successful, the three-stage process must be completed. Failures in efforts to change can be traced back to one of the three stages. Successful change thus requires that old behaviors be discarded, new behaviors be introduced, and these new behaviors be institutionalized and rewarded.

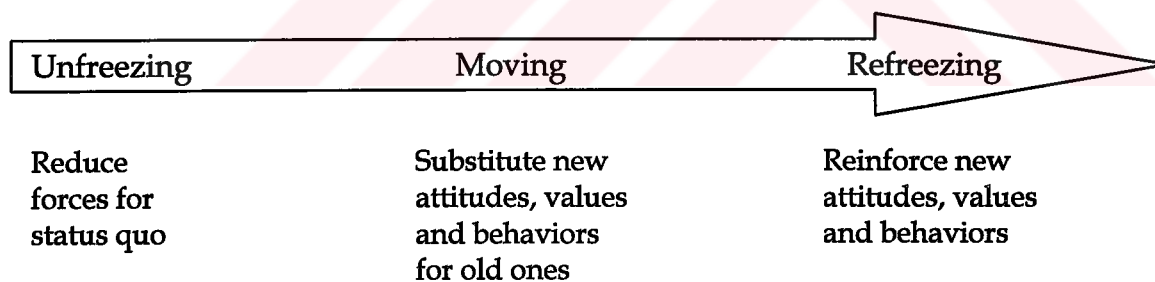


Figure 2- Lewin's change model

2.5.5 A Change Process Model

The model, proposed by Glenn H. Varney (1987), professor of Management and director of The Master in Organization Development program, Bowling Green State University, is laid out in Figure 3. The model is shown below. This model is

basically not different from Lewin's. This is a model for systematic change, and provides a framework for studying organizations.

Stage 1. In stage 1 there have been identified separate segments of change associated with assessing the need for change, and selling change goals within the organization. The steps involve conducting a preliminary scan of the organization to generate a problem statement or hypothesis statement, which results in a series of questions to be answered for a particular problem, or change objective to be accomplished.

STAGES	1	2	3	4
	Assessing Need/ Selling the change goal	Understanding the Goals/ Problems and organizations' Nature	The change strategy	Reinforcement/ Evaluation
STEPS				
1. Preliminary scan		1. Sourcing information	1. The change Goal	1. Reinforcement / Evaluation
2. Unanswered Questions, focus hypothesis		2. Data Collection Method	2. Action Plan	
		3. Processing & Analysis of data	3. Test Action	
		4. Design of Feedback	4. Implement Action	

Figure 3- Change process model.

Stage 2. In Stage 2 an attempt is made to understand the goal problem within the context of this organization's character so that it is understood that the correct targets have been identified, and the problem clearly defined to avoid errors in the implementation of a strategy. This stage involves sourcing information within the organization, in other words, determining where the needed information is located. Second is development of methods and actual collection of the needed information.

Third is processing and analyzing the data, and fourth is designing a feedback process for explaining what the data say and how they answer the specific questions outlined in Stage 1.

Stage 3. Stage 3 represents the actual change strategy for bringing about the desired adjustments within the organization. Four steps are involved:

1. The preparation of the change goal. Here it must be clearly defined what it is that the management is trying to change in terms of behaviors, practices, and new assets.
2. Development of the action plan.
3. Testing the action plan. To make sure that it is the correct action and that it meets the change goals.
4. Implementing the action.

Stage 4. Stage 4 involves reinforcement and evaluation of the change. In this stage the change agent is required to develop reinforcement processes and mechanisms and also to develop some form of evaluation. The purpose of the evaluation is to assess the degree to which the change strategy has actually brought about the desired change. In other words, to what degree has the problem been solved or the goal met?

The model gives an overview of the change process. It is a more detailed model than Lewin's. However, it includes the three phases of Lewin's model. It can

be used as a roadmap for change. Each stage of this change model requires a specific skill for successful implementation of that stage.

2.5.6 Methods of change

How the change is to be made is a critical question to answer in the change process. That is, which method is to be used? Four types of methods have been identified. These are technological, structural, managerial and human methods (Connor and Lake, 1988).

Technological method: The way in which materials, intellectual resources, and production operations are treated may be altered. Changing the technology means changing the way in which the organization's output is produced. The technological method includes job diagnosis, job engineering, job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment and changing job relationships.

Structural method: Modifying certain roles or relationships in the organization—for example, functional, role, or reporting relationships can be modified. The structural method includes changing structural dimensions (complexity, formalization, centralization, coordination) in the organization, and creating structural mechanisms (work groups, separate units) for the organization.

Managerial methods: Administrative actions also can be taken. The organization's reward system can be used to stimulate change, or labor-management cooperation can provide a means for change to occur in a positive and constructive manner.

Human (or “people”) methods: People can be changed; they can be selected, retrained, transferred, replaced and fired. There are two principal methods by which people are the major instrument of change: education/training and organization development interventions.

Education and training refer to the activities that are aimed at upgrading people’s knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs. Education and training programs cover many subjects from managing stress to improving communication skills (Connor and Lake, 1988). Management development is a more general method of education and training programs. It is aimed at preparing senior and middle managers to participate in change. The guiding objective of most management development efforts is to bring managers more fully into the organization's culture. Typically, such efforts attempt to improve management concepts and styles; they can range from classroom courses on decision-making techniques to a program of systematic job rotation among a group of managers. Organization development, as another human method, is a systematic approach to organizational improvement that applies behavioral science theory and research in order to increase individual and organizational well-being and effectiveness (French and Bell, 1990). Human-processual interventions of organization development include individual, group and systemwide approaches (Cummings and Huse, 1985).

2.6 Change Management in Turkish Army

The Turkish Army, as an organization, needs to manage change. It does not have to compete with any other organization in Turkey, but the armies of other countries are its competitors. The Army tries to follow the change in its environment, and tries to keep up with the change. The need to manage the change for the Army results from both internal and external sources. Technological improvements and the economic environment are the external sources of change for the Army. New communication systems, new vehicles, new weapon systems etc. and economic conditions of the country can be given as examples. Professional associations and new organizational goals are the internal sources of change (for example the officers who make master or Ph.D. in different areas at several universities). In our study the source of change is professional associations. These developments in management force The Army to apply new knowledge and develop its managers, also the new organizational goals to have better officers or commanders as managers in The Army forces The Army to manage change.

The Army aims to train or develop its officers in order to have better officers.

By developing and training officers The Army wants to achieve the following:

- Officers who are ready for their jobs
- Officers who will be able to follow the changes in their environment and in their jobs

- Officers who will acquire the knowledge that their position or rank needs
(New knowledge will be taught to the officers)
- Officers who will have better leadership/management skills
- Officers who will be trained and developed to be professionals
- Officers who will have the same knowledge and the skills

The scope of such management development change in the Army is neither small nor strategic. By developing its officers, The Army is not restructuring itself but this is more than fine-tuning.

Presumably because of the Army's closed structure, the change in the Army is generally done by internal change agents.

There may be a resistance to change in the Army because of the fear of unknown. How the change will be implemented, how the personnel will be affected by this change and how the change will affect the jobs in the Army is usually unclear.

To develop its officers or commanders The Army uses human methods of change, by training and developing them.

CHAPTER THREE

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

In today's corporate environment, the success of business is directly tied to its ability to manage change (Nelson and Quick, 1997). Constant change in technology, products, markets, jobs, and competition has brought about an increase in the importance of training, especially a new approach, one of continuous learning (Craig, 1987). Conventional approaches called for a one-time training of a specific skill or piece of equipment, today's more strategic approach is necessary to allow employees to keep up with, and organizations to manage, change.

Today's training demands that everyone in the organization - employees, line managers, supervisors, and technical personnel - become more actively and continuously involved in expanding their skills. Learning becomes an everyday part of the job, rather than being confined to a classroom; employees learn the skills of others in their work unit, as well as those related to their own jobs, and employees teach, and learn from, one another.

Work in America Institute conducted a three year national study, "Training for New Technology", in 1987, which examined organizations that had adopted successful training strategies. The study identified five major forces affecting corporations and their implications for training:

- 1. Increased global and domestic competition** is leading to a greater need for competitive strategies, which often include training as an essential element.

2. Rapid changes in technology result in changes in operations, products, and processes; job design; workflow; and skill requirements. These changes, in turn, create an acute need for people with specialized technical skills.

3. Widespread mergers, acquisitions, and divestitures, which realign corporate structures and functions but not necessarily the ability of people to carry them out, require long-term training plans that are linked to decisions about the business future.

4. A better educated workforce, which values self-development and personal growth, has brought about enormous learning needs plus a growing desire for participation at work.

5. Occupational obsolescence and the emergence of new occupations - resulting from the changing nature of the economy, the shift from manufacturing to service industries, and the impact of research, development, and new technology - require flexible training policies to prevent increased turnover and lower productivity.

Organizations must align their training strategy to the corporate goals, in order to gain quality and results from training. Those who are in the training department must be made aware of the overall goals of the organization, so that their training programs can help meet those goals. Training must assume a more central, strategic role within the organization, and training requirements must be driven by the changing needs of the organization (Carrel, Elbert and Hatfield, 2000).

Training is a part of effective supervision and management. A manager must do many things at once, all of which are important. However, nothing is more important than training. The management of people determines organizational success. Training must receive a high priority from management. The highest levels of management must agree on the importance of training and allocate time and resources for it to be done well. Top management must endorse the value of training and employees must be convinced of what training will do for them.

Some employee benefits from training are:

- Personal knowledge that you are doing a good job
- Higher chances for wage/salary increase and promotion
- Less anxiety about performance evaluations
- Fewer customer complaints
- Feeling of being a "professional"
- Higher respect/esteem from customers, peers, and your boss
- Job enjoyment
- Less on-the-job accidents
- Less on-the-job boredom, less tiresome work
- Improved teamwork

- Reduced work related stress and job related disabilities
- Improved organizational health and ultimately lower health care costs

Training tries to let the employees perform at their highest levels. Since good staffing procedures, useful forms of performance appraisal and good compensation methods are not always enough because of the employees' skill deficiencies. These deficiencies can result from

- Changing jobs
- Changing technologies
- Employees' real deficiency (lack of skills and knowledge), which could not be identified during selection procedure.

These deficiencies in employee skills must be removed and employees must be enabled to perform at desired level. Training and development programs do this.

Training and development is any attempt to improve current or future performance by increasing employee ability (Goldstein, 1980).

3.1 The Purposes of Training and Development

Removing performance deficiencies is the major purpose of training and development, a second purpose is increasing productivity; the productivity gains more than offset the cost of training (Schuler, 1995). Effective training and

development programs enable the current workforce to become more flexible and adaptable especially if the company uses new technologies. Training and development increases employees' commitment to the organization and greater commitment results in less absenteeism and turnover that gives another boost in productivity. Training and development benefits the community; society at large benefits when individuals are productive and contributing members of organizations. Lastly, training is key in implementing the company strategy and thus supports company strategy.

The support of the top management is important for the success of training and development programs (Schuler, 1995). Without top management support and commitment to training, an organization is likely to concentrate on activities other than training, especially when the focus of the organization is short-term goals and immediate results. Management should patiently support the training programs to develop their people and business in order to be effective.

3.2 Management Training and Development

Management training and development is the preparation and education of managers to effectively manage their people while at the same time achieving the strategies and goals of their company. This generally includes those individuals above the first two levels of hierarchical structure of the organization and below senior management, meaning middle managers (Craig, 1987).

Being responsive to organizational goals and alert to changes in the business environment is an important function of the management development professional. It can lead to significant impact on the bottom line (Craig, 1987).

Management development is skilled at helping people and organizations learn and change (Silver, 1991). Understanding how people learn and work together productively in organizations, choosing the most appropriate methods for achieving specific goals, and the cost effectiveness of different development and training methods determine the success of a program.

In fulfilling this element of management development responsibility, choosing the appropriate teaching technique is important. For example, the lecture format is not particularly successful in changing behavior. Lecture methods are effective, however, for communicating specific information and, used appropriately, can be highly beneficial. Similarly, video-aided instruction, computer-aided instruction, business simulations, etc., all have their appropriate function in effective learning and change (Craig, 1987).

3.3 Determining Training and Development Needs

Training and development is a complex and important issue. Training and development program has three phases. These are assessment, implementation and evaluation (Goldstein, 1986).

3.3.1 Needs analysis

Assessment can be done by needs analysis. Needs analysis is a kind of job analysis that determines the training needs.

Needs analysis is the systematic basis for decisions about how to affect exploring strategies, and defining solutions. The key is to seek the gap between the current situation and the desired situation and then to focus resources where they're most needed. The analysis must determine root causes. For example, a question about why something doesn't or won't work is just as critical as what people do and do not know.

Needs assessment then is a study conducted to determine the exact nature of an organizational problem and how it can be resolved. The needs assessment is the basis for wise recommendations about instruction and supporting organizational strategies, and for enlisting support throughout the organization.

According to Rossett (1995) there are two ways to understand if there is a need for training. The first method is the proactive approach. An instructional designer goes into the system and searches for problems or potential problems. The goal is to make the system more efficient and prevent future problems before they occur. The second method is assigning a supervisor or manager to the training department to fix a problem. These problems are usually caused by new hires, promotions, transfers, appraisals, or the introduction of new technologies (Clark, 1998).

Training departments must act rapidly when problems arise that might require a training solution. They must first, investigate the problem. A training need exists when an employee lacks the knowledge or skill to perform an assigned task satisfactorily. It also arises when there is a variation between what the employee is expected to do on the job and the employee's actual job performance.

A needs analysis answers the questions "Who?", "What?", "When?", and "Where?" but not "How?", that is, the target audience (who needs to be trained), the task or content (what needs to be taught) and the context or training environment (where and when the training needs to be conducted) (Clark, 1998). However, needs analysis helps to answer the question "How?".

The answer of "How?" is the training method which is selected give training. Needs analysis determines the people who will be participated in training, the deficiencies of people, meaning the required skills, the level of knowledge required, and the number of people who are to be trained. Thus needs analysis helps the trainer select an appropriate program according to the results provided by the needs analysis.

Dick and Carey (1996) discuss the five essential components of a needs assessment: actuals, optimals, feelings, causes and solutions. The purpose of an assessment is to acquire information on each of these components in order to verify a need and identify possible solutions. "Actuals", refers to the current status, the way things are now. The "optimals" are how the situation should be, not according

to perceived needs or wants. If there is a difference between the actuals and optimal, then a gap exists. This gap is where the need is identified. The “feelings” component calls for the designer to collect additional and more in-depth data as to how users affected by the problem feel. “Causes” are simply translated into “Why?” and could be due to lack of training, the workplace environment, a lack of incentive or a lack of motivation. The final component is “solutions” based on the information collected.

The first step in a needs analysis is to perform a ‘gap’ analysis (Rossett, 1995). To do this, an instructional designer checks the actual performance of the organization against existing standards or current situation: This includes the current state of skills, knowledge, and abilities of the current and/or future employees. Next, the designer looks at the desired or necessary situation identifying the desired or necessary conditions for organizational and personal success. The designer must look for what the organization and people really need. They may not know what they need, but may have strong opinions about what they want. This phase also allows the company to understand the training activity and its purpose.

The instructional designer next needs to identify data sources. The issues to consider are not just who has the data, but where is it located and any constraints there may be in obtaining the data. Once the sources are identified, the data needs to be collected by means of one or more of the following: interviews, observation of employee performance, examination of records, group facilitation, surveys, questionnaires, consultation with persons in key positions with specific knowledge,

review of relevant literature, interviews, focus groups, tests, records and report studies and work samples (Steadham, 1980).

Now comes the analysis phase. This phase is the building block of a training program. It is the basis for who must be trained, what must be trained, when training will occur, and where the training will take place (Clark, 1998). The product of this phase is the foundation for all subsequent development activities. The designer must identify if there is indeed a gap and precisely what is that gap.

The final step in the needs assessment process is to use the findings in order to make sound decisions regarding the next steps in the design process. The information collected is only as good as what we do with it. The designer needs to draw out the implications for training and make recommendations and provide input to the implementation plan. If people are doing their jobs effectively, perhaps it's best leave well enough alone. However, some training or other interventions might be called for if sufficient importance is attached to moving workers and their performance into new directions. But if workers are not doing their jobs effectively, training may be the solution.

If the designer determines that there is a lack of skill or knowledge on the part of the employee, which means there is a need for change, this can be corrected through education and training products and services, which are among the main methods of change.

3.3.1.1 Organizational needs analysis

In organizational needs analysis we view training and development needs from a global perspective. Organization needs are difficult to assess since they emerge from a combination of organization goals, objectives, priorities, and cultural environment (Boydell and Leary, 1996).

Organizational needs analysis is used to assess the short and long term objectives of the organization (Schuler, 1995).

3.3.1.2 Job needs analysis

Depending upon the job being assessed, job needs assessment can be either the easiest or most difficult to define. Operational jobs (i.e. assemblers, tellers, stock clerks, etc.) are relatively easy to analyze in terms of task behaviors. Process oriented jobs (i.e. supervisory and managerial positions), on the other hand, are much more difficult to assess since job requirements are not as observable (Boydell and Leary, 1996).

Since the organizational needs analysis is too broad, job needs analysis provides detailed training and development needs for specific jobs and provides information on tasks performed, skills needed and acceptable standards. The information can be gathered from current employees, the human resources department, or current supervisors.

3.3.1.3 Person needs analysis

This is typically easier to conduct than group needs assessment since you are able to readily identify personal characteristics such as education level, experiences, knowledge and skills, and career desires. Individual needs assessments would take into consideration the job the individual is currently doing, potential future assignments, and individual development goals (Boydell and Leary, 1996).

Person needs analysis is done after necessary skills and their importance and the minimal acceptable standards of proficiency have been detected and identified in two ways by comparing:

- Actual vs. Minimum acceptable standards of performance (to determine the current needs of the current job)
- An evaluation of the employee proficiency on each required skill dimension with level required for each skill (to identify development needs for the future job)

If the assessment is done formally, it allows the firm to find out what skills employees think they need (Schuler, 1995). The assessment can also show whether the managers' views of needed skills are out of date or not.

3.3.1.4 Demographic (group) needs analysis

Demographic need analysis is somewhat easier to conduct than organizational needs assessment, since you are able to more closely relate to specific

jobs and/or classifications of employees. Groups can either be comprised of homogeneous job functions (e.g. secretaries, programmers, etc.) or heterogeneous (e.g. a project team comprised of an engineer, accountant, production supervisor, buyer, and administrator) (Schuler, 1995).

Demographic needs analysis identifies training needs by groups in the organization. Different groups may have different needs. For example, needs can be different for different genders and for different managerial levels.

3.3.2 Methods of Assessment

There exist a wide variety of methods and approaches to conducting needs assessment effectively. The challenge facing the training and development practitioner is to select the method(s) which is(are) most likely to provide reliable and timely data at a reasonable expense to the organization. Some possible methods may include:

- **Attitude Surveys** - Can provide feedback and information relating to broad areas of employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It is important to remember that attitude surveys provide indications of training needs rather than a determination of training needs. For example, when a supervisor get low scores regarding his/her fairness in treatment as compared with other supervisors in the organization, this can indicate that the supervisor needs training in that area (Schuler, 1995).
- **Inventories/Questionnaires** - Involves the use of an inventory or questionnaire that identifies the skills and abilities of a specified homogeneous work group (e.g.

secretaries, supervisors, engineers, etc.). A tabulation of individual scores determines a rank order which reflects the relative importance for training based upon those particular skills and abilities.

- **Interviews** - One-on-one interviews conducted with members of a target population can provide additional information regarding training and development needs. It is also useful to interview superiors and subordinates of the target population for additional insights.
- **Advisory Committees** - Committees comprised of representatives from different organizational levels and functional areas can provide valuable information regarding training needs. In addition, the committee can provide input relating to support and priorities.
- **Reviewing Business Plans** - Meeting department heads and executives within the organization, to review operational and long-range business plans. Linking those plans to training and development plans is very important since programs and activities should support the goals and objectives of the organization.
- **Performance Reviews** - These may provide additional insight into training needs within the organization. It is particularly useful if personal development plans and career aspirations are noted on the performance review forms.
- **Job Descriptions** - Typically, job descriptions identify the skills, knowledge, and abilities required to perform successfully in particular jobs within the organization.

There exist many other possible methods and approaches to assessing training needs within organizations such as assessment centers, group discussions, skills test and direct observations of behavior.

3.4 Setting Up The Training Programs

Successful implementation of training and development programs depends on selecting the right program to the right people under the right conditions. This involves asking three questions:

3.4.1 Who participates in training?

After determining the training needs, the following issues must be determined

- The deficiencies of specific groups
- The group that will be the first to be trained
- The number of people who are to be trained

If the number is large, programmed instruction is better as a training method but if there are only a few employees, on the job training is better (e.g. Coaching).

3.4.2 Who conducts training?

Training and Development programs can be taught by one of the following people:

- The supervisor

- Human resources staff
- A co-worker such as a friend
- An internal or external expert
- The employee that is, self-paced instruction

The selection of the trainer depends on where the program is held and which skill(s) is being taught. The disadvantage of using immediate supervisors as trainers is that, while they may perform the work tasks well, they may not be able to instruct everyone in the procedures because of the limited time. Experts may have specific knowledge on a technical skill but may not be familiar with the culture of a specific organization. Learning at one's own pace is both an advantage and disadvantage of self-paced instruction. Ideally trainers should facilitate learning at a speed that maximizes retention (Boydell and Leary, 1996).

3.4.3 What types of skills are to be acquired?

The types of skills being taught are important as well as the training technique.

Types of skills to be required are (Schuler, 1995):

- Basic literacy skills (BLS): These skills include grammar, mathematics, safety, reading, writing, and statistics.
- Basic technical skills (BTS): These skills include the technical expertise of employees.

- **Interpersonal skills (IPS):** These skills include communication (listening, speaking and using body language), human relationships, performance appraisal, leadership, and negotiations. Especially mid-level managers and employees who deal with public need these skills.
- **Conceptual interrogative skills (CIS):** These skills include strategic and operational planning, organizational design, and policy. Especially top and mid-level managers need these skills.

3.5 Where Is The Training Conducted & How?

The location of the training program needs to be carefully selected. This decision is constrained by the type of learning that is occurring, as well as by cost and time considerations. There are three choices for the place of the training. These are:

- On the job
- On site but not on the job
- Off the job

3.5.1 On-the-job training

On-the-job training is delivered to employees while they perform their regular jobs. In this way, they do not lose time as much as they lose in other training places while they are learning. After a plan is developed for what should be taught, employees should be informed of the details. A timetable should be established with

periodic evaluations to inform employees about their progress. On-the-job techniques include orientations, job instruction training, apprenticeships, internships and assistantships, job rotation and coaching.

The employee is taught a new job under the direct supervision of an experienced worker or trainer.

The trainee learns the job by:

- Observing an experienced employee
- Working with actual materials
- Personnel or machinery that comprises the job

The advantage of on the job training is that the transfer of training is high and trainer gets immediate feedback from the trainee.

On the job training is appropriate if small number of employees are needed to be taught, and the trainer's (manager or employee) skill is important. Some examples of on-the-job training methods are: job instruction training, apprenticeship training, internships, job rotation and mentoring (supervisory assistance).

3.5.2 On the site but not on-the-job training

This is conducting the training at the work site but not on the job. This option is suitable for after hours training programs. This method is to be preferred, if the number of people who will be trained is too large to be trained off-the-job and on-the-job training will be harmful. Some of on the site but not on-the-job training

methods are: programmed instruction, videotapes, videodiscs and interactive video training.

3.5.3 Off-the-job training

Off-the-job training programs that are conducted outside of the work organization. These training methods are suitable if the result of error is high (e.g. pilot training with simulation), if complex skills are needed to be mastered and if the focus is on specific interpersonal skills. In addition, the cost of off the job training is high. Examples of off-the-job training: formal courses, seminars, simulation, assessment centers, role-playing, sensitivity training (lab training), and wilderness trips.

3.6 Maximizing Learning

However appropriate and effective a training technique may be, training must be structured properly to maximize learning. There are three phases for maximizing learning. These are:

Prior to training, the environment must be made ready for the training to occur;

During training, steps need to be taken to increase self-efficacy (to motivate trainees to overcome obstacles) and retention of knowledge; and

After training, the work environment must be monitored to ensure that what was learned is retained.

3.6.1 How people learn

Training works best if it is based on an appreciation of how people learn. The ten conditions required for successful learning are according to Mitchell (1987):

1. The individual must be motivated to learn - and he/she will be motivated if he/she thinks there is something in it for him/her.
2. The learner should gain satisfaction from learning.
3. Standards of performance and targets to be attained should be set for the learner.
4. The learner needs guidance in the shape of a sense of direction and 'feedback' on how he/she is doing.
5. Learning is an active not a passive process. People learn best by doing and getting involved, not just by listening.
6. Training techniques should be used with discrimination to fit the objectives of the training programme and the needs of the individual.
7. Learning methods should be varied to maintain interest.
8. Time should be allowed to absorb the learning.
9. The learner needs reinforcement of correct behavior. In other words, he/she needs to know when he/she is doing well to ensure that he/she retains good habits and skills and is encouraged to learn more.

10. As a process, learning can operate at a number of different levels of complexity, depending on the job. Training programmes and techniques need to be adjusted accordingly.

3.6.2 Setting the stage for learning

Prior to launching the program, the trainer needs to consider how information will be presented. The following matters help the trainer set the stage for learning.

Provide clear task instructions (state the expectancies): Learning will not occur unless task instructions are clear and precise. An employee must know what is expected in order to perform as desired. Giving clear instructions includes establishing appropriate behavioral expectations. Statements of training expectations should be specific, and conditions under which performance is or is not expected should be identified, along with the behavior to be demonstrated.

Model appropriate behavior (demonstration of desired behavior): Even when instructions are clear, desired behavior still may not occur if the trainee does not know how to perform as desired. This problem can be overcome through behavioral modeling. Behavioral modeling is a visual demonstration of desired behavior (Larham, 1991).

3.6.3 Increasing learning during training

While employees should be responsible for their own learning, organizations can do much to facilitate this. The following are the things to be considered to increase learning during training.

Provide active participation (of trainees): Individuals learn better when they are actively involved in the learning process. Through active participation, trainees stay more alert and are more likely to gain confidence (Schuler, 1995).

Increase self-efficacy and match training techniques to trainees' self-efficacy (to motivate trainees to overcome the obstacles): Before choosing training techniques, the level of self-efficacy for each trainee should be determined. If individuals dwell on their personal deficiencies relative to the task, potential difficulties may seem more formidable than they really are. On the other hand, people who have a strong sense of self-efficacy are more likely to be motivated to overcome obstacles (Schuler, 1995).

Provide opportunities for enactive mastery (if the trainee knows what he needs, he pays more attention to the subject): To facilitate task mastery the trainer should arrange the subject matter so that trainees experience success. While this may be easy when tasks are simple, it can be quite difficult when tasks are complex (Schuler, 1995).

Ensure specific, timely, diagnostic and practical feedback (the wrong behaviors should be determined and corrected): In order for individuals to master new concepts and acquire new skills, they must receive accurate diagnostic feedback about their performance. When feedback is either not received or inaccurate, the wrong behaviors may be practiced. While feedback can be provided by a supervisor, co-workers, customers, computers, or the individual performing the task. It must be

specific, timely, behaviorally and not personally based, and practical (Hogan, Hakel and Decker, 1986).

Provide opportunities for trainer to practice new behaviors (the objective of the training: practice, practice, practice): While an individual may be able to perform as desired one time, the goal of training is to ensure that desired behavior occurs consistently. This consistency can be achieved by practicing. More practice makes the learned behavior a consistent one (Schuler, 1995).

3.6.4 Maintaining performance after training

After the training the employees must be monitored to ensure whether they have learned the behavior. The following are the things to be considered to maintain performance after training:

Develop learning points to assist in knowledge retention (learning points summarize key behaviors): If learning points are developed the new skills are more likely to be retained. Learning points summarize key behaviors and serve as cognitive cues back on the job.

Identify & use positive or negative reinforcement: To ensure that trainees continue to demonstrate the skill they have learned, behavior must be linked to positive and negative reinforcers. Reinforcers can be positive (rewards) or negative (punishments).

Set specific goals (challenging but not difficult): Setting specific and challenging goals useful for subsequent performance. Thus, people have the basis

for judging how they are doing and they can decide whether they are on the right track.

Train significant others in how to reinforce behavior (show that positive behavior changes are welcomed): to ensure that reinforcers are appropriately administered, trainers must also train significant others to look for and reinforce desired changes. If a person who has been labeled a problem employee continues to be viewed as a problem employee, there is no incentive for the person to display new behavior. If a supervisor or coworker responds positively to behavior changes, the frequency with which the new behavior will be displayed is likely to increase.

Teach trainees self-management skills (create need for achievement): The long-term objective of training is to teach employees how to set their own goals. When people create self-incentives for their efforts, they are capable of making self-satisfaction contingent on their performance.

Provide follow-up to ensure that the trainee is doing what has been taught: Some trainees do not change their behavior when they get back to work, and this makes the training program ineffective. To prevent this, the management can establish a contract plan. Each trainee writes what is expected from them, the possible benefits of training programs, how could they change their behavior and how will they get the benefit of the training program.

3.7 Selecting The Appropriate Program

Selection of a training and development program is a result of matching needed skills with the needed level of training. The selection is based on the answers of the following questions (Schuler,1995):

1. What skills do the employees need to learn?
2. At what level do these skills need to be learned?
3. What training and development programs are most appropriate for the required skills and level?

Table 3.1 summarizes the selection of the appropriate program. Types of the skills were discussed in section 3.4.3 and result of needs analyses provides the type of skill required. The skills required for a person changes according to the managerial position. Lower level managers require basic literacy and technical skills where the upper level managers need conceptual and integrative skills. The skill level required changes according to the managerial level as well. A lower level manager requires fundamental knowledge of conceptual skills but operational efficiency in basic literacy and technical skills. By matching these requirements, the training method for the training program can be selected.

3.7.1 The skills required

The result of needs analyses provides answers for the first two questions. What skills employees need to learn can be answered by knowing what types of employees need training. If the training will be given at the rank of file employees and supervisors the training will be on technical skills. For the middle management

employees interpersonal skills training is the most appropriate one. In addition, the top-level managers may need conceptual or managerial and administrative skills. Knowing the employee types and the skills needed is useful for the organization to make plans on careers and training programs.

TABLE 3.1 - SELECTING A TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM			
<u>SKILLS REQUIRED</u>			
<u>SKILL LEVEL REQUIRED</u>	BASIC "LITERACY" AND TECHNICAL SKILLS	INTERPERSONAL SKILLS	CONCEPTUAL/ INTEGRATIVE SKILLS
Fundamental knowledge	Job rotation Multiple management Apprenticeship training Job instruction training	Role-playing Sensitivity training Formal courses	Job rotation Multiple management Simulation Case discussion
Skill development	Job rotation Multiple management Simulation Supervisory assistance	Role-playing Sensitivity training Simulation Job rotation Multiple management Wilderness trips	Job rotation Multiple management Simulation Case discussion
Operational efficiency	Job rotation Multiple management Apprenticeship training Job instruction training Simulation Internship and ssistantship Supervisory assistance	Role-playing Job rotation Multiple management Apprenticeship training Job instruction training Simulation	Job rotation Multiple management Simulation Case discussion

Source: T.J. Von der Embse, "Choosing a Management Development Program: A Decision Model", Personnel Journal (Oct. 1973), pp.911.

3.7.2 The level of the skills required

The level of skills needed must be known by the management to match with the skills needed and to select an effective training and development program. The levels needed for future job training is determined by the organizational, job and person needs analyses.

3.7.3 Program selection

This is the final step to determine which training program is the most appropriate for the skill and the level of the employee. Several programs can be chosen by the organizations to train their employees, because there are several roles in the organizations and they need several skills.

The effectiveness of the training program must be evaluated carefully.

3.8 Evaluation Of The Program

Training evaluation is an area on which organizations can focus attention if they are committed to improving employee performance through their training efforts. Evaluation results should be seen as a vehicle for developing and carrying out training program efforts that facilitate improvement in employee performance and the organization in general.

There is no best way of evaluating training efforts. Because of the diversity of training programs, techniques and methods used, the wide range of training circumstances, and the different purposes of evaluation, various evaluation techniques are needed. The best evaluations occur through a systematic identification of the important factors that produce effective training. Some of the factors are (Lynton and Pareek, 1990):

1. Does the training program produce the results intended?

2. Is the program visible and important to the program sponsor and potential sponsors of future programs?
3. Is the trainer credible for conveying knowledge or skills on how to do a better job?
4. Is the program cost effective? Are resources well spent?
5. Do the participants show a strong commitment to the training program? Do they seem to understand the experience more fully, make up for deficiencies, and confirm management's beliefs about the value of the program?
6. Are managers better able to assess the program and make effective determinations on whether to send employees to future programs?
7. Does the training produce quantifiable data for improving future training programs?

3.8.1 Resources Affecting Evaluations

Those responsible for designing and implementing training program evaluations in organizations must also pay particular attention to the availability of resources and constraints for such an endeavour. Resources are needed to evaluate training. Constraints can limit evaluation effectiveness. Both are considerations in selecting evaluation method and procedures. Some resource/constraint issues are (Tracey,1985):

1. **Funding**-This refers to the money allotted to cover training evaluation planning and implementation.
2. **Time**-Evaluation can take place immediately or at periodic intervals after trainees return to the job. A sequence of "milestones" can be used, including completion of pre-test and post-test data collection, data analysis, and dissemination of results to appropriate audiences.
3. **Human resources**-Trained personnel such as statisticians, computer specialists, research methodologists, and other trainers can be resources in evaluation.
4. **Organizational climate**-Evaluation is facilitated or hampered by the level of trust and openness of managers, supervisors, employees, or trainees. Do people seek, and are they receptive to, evaluative feedback?
5. **Availability of data**-Evaluation is improved by the availability and quality of organizational information. Examples are records of individual, group, department, and organizational performance, reports, and personnel training records. Data can also be obtained from surveys, interviews, and observations of employees.
6. **Details of the training evaluation action plan**-A good evaluation plan contains objectives, a timetable, procedures, participants, locations, and possible use of strategies.

7. **Audiences**-The success of evaluations depends partly on the information needs and interests of the key participants in the training process.
8. **Technical ability**-Evaluation requires the availability of standardized instruments, computerized analyses, stored data, logistics in collecting and disseminating results, and the abilities of persons involved.
9. **Ethical concerns**-Evaluations must recognize issues of privacy, employee and organizational confidentiality, obtrusiveness, and other harmful or illegal aspects of data collection and reporting.

3.8.2 Evaluation Checklist

Improvement in employee performance and overall productivity is the goal of the evaluation of training outcomes. A checklist of such a process might include according to Sims (1991):

1. Does the evaluation design fit the objectives of the training program?
2. Does the design address important issues such as trainee needs and expectations? These include learning style, trainee culture, expectations about authority, and performance views.
3. Does the evaluation method reflect the standards incorporated by the developers of the training program and required by the organization?

4. Does the evaluation structure provide a framework in which emergent issues can be addressed? Can the design be modified to address trainees' perceived needs without sacrificing objectives?
5. Can the design be carried out in the time allotted?
6. Does the design provide a mix of activities that appeal to different learning styles such as listening, discussing, and performing?
7. Is the material logically and psychologically sequenced?
8. Is there appropriate redundancy in information presented in training?
9. Does the evaluation design allow for ongoing development of a learning climate?

The training and development of managers and employees is very important. Although it is very costly, companies in the U.S. reserve 3-4% of their annual profits for training and the Japanese do much more than that (Schuller, 1995). However, training of people in the organizations is often cut or reduced in times of financial problems. The reason for cutting the training expenditures during times of financial problems is that the management believes that training is disconnected from the outcome. Therefore, the training programs should be connected to the mission of the organization to overcome this fault of the management (Lynton and Pareek, 1990).

Evaluation of the training program makes the program better over time. In addition, employee performance can be improved by this way. The evaluative data

improves the training programs, thus, organizations will be able to improve employee performance and productivity.

3.9 Training And Development In The Turkish Army

Training and development is one of the methods of change used in Turkish Army. By using training and development The Army expands the skills and knowledge of its personnel and thus has better performing personnel, which includes officers. By training and developing its officers The Army wants to have quality officers (managers). A qualified officer should have some qualifications. These qualifications are basically moral, personal and professional qualifications (Army implementation order published by Personnel Department with No: 4013-25-00, Date: June 2000). Personal qualifications include; problem solving, creative thinking, self-development, self-trust, conflict management, communication, self-criticism, team building, working in a team and having responsibility. Professional qualifications include; creating a unit 'soul', motivating, supporting subordinates and superiors, time management, coordination, controlling subordinates, decision making, organizing, risk taking, having courage and having enthusiasm. A needs analysis should be done to determine whether the officers have these qualifications. This analysis can show whether the officers of the Turkish Army are qualified enough or they need to be trained to be quality officers. Our research aims to do this needs analysis in nine areas of management skills, as mentioned earlier. This needs analysis is the first step of the training and development effort in the Army. Our analysis is a person needs analysis. Since the job requirements of an officer is known,

we need to conduct a person needs analysis and we compared the actual and the minimum acceptable standards of performance to determine the current needs of the current two jobs, company and battalion command. We used a questionnaire as the method of assessment since our population is distributed all over Turkey and cannot be reached and tested with any other method in such a short time.

The Army currently uses both on the job and off the job training to train its personnel, including its officers. Official courses and seminars, which are off the job training methods, are used to develop company and battalion commanders. A person who is assigned to company or battalion command are trained in formal courses before beginning his/her new job.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

4.1 The Participants

The aim of this research is determining the Management Skills Training Needs of the officers who are in managerial positions in The Turkish Army. The levels of the officers who are the subject of this research are the first two levels of management positions which have responsibility and authority. All the responsibility of a company, that has 150 soldiers on average, falls on the company commander, he is responsible for all the things done or not done in the company. The company commander is responsible for the company's discipline, morale of the personnel, training of soldiers, maintenance of equipment, administrative and logistic jobs, command and management of the company, and development of the other officers, NCOs, and privates. These are absolute responsibilities of the company commander, he cannot delegate or share his responsibility with anyone but he can give responsibility and authority to his subordinates and thus get things done. The authorities of the company commander are rewarding, punishing, giving dismissal and appraising the personnel. The battalion commander, who has 3 to 5 company commanders, under his command has the same authorities and responsibilities as the company commander with only one difference; he can delegate or share his responsibility with his immediate subordinates, company commanders.

To determine the needs, we need to determine the actual knowledge and skills of the officers. The findings will be compared with the desired standards. The desired standards were determined by a literature search for each research topic, and the army orders are used: Army implementation order (4013-25-00, June 2000), military instruction (KHO-ÖY-01, 1988) and Company Command Manual (YY-10, 1989).

A questionnaire has been developed to determine the actual level of the skills and knowledge of commanders (See Appendix 3 for the questionnaire).

The questionnaire was distributed to 231 officers, who are now company and battalion commanders, meaning at manager positions. Thus, 7.7% of the whole population, which consists of all company and battalion commanders, are given the questionnaire. The participants are randomly selected from all over Turkey, not only a specific city or region is tested. 43 battalions were selected, 13 from 1st Army Command, 8 from 2nd Army Command, 12 from 3rd Army Command, 4 from Aegean Army Command, 5 from 4th Army Corps Command and 1 from Training and Doctrine (EDOK) Command. Since the questionnaires are distributed officially, all of them returned (i.e. 100% response rate).

We aimed to reach people who are from different ranks, different arms, had different education other than Military Academy, had different courses, i.e. course for company commanders and course for battalion commanders, had different years

of experience in command, and at different positions, i.e. company commander and battalion commander. Table 4.1 shows these data.

RANK			ARMS		
	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
2nd Lieutenant	8	3.5	Air Defense	10	4.3
1st Lieutenant	16	6.9	Engineer	6	2.6
Sen.1st Lieutenant	36	15.6	Army Aviation	3	1.3
Captain	72	31.2	Signal	4	1.7
Sen. Captain	46	19.9	Infantry	103	44.6
Major	30	13	Armor	35	15.2
Lt. Colonel	23	10	Artillery	69	29.9
Total	231	100	Missing data	1	0.4
			Total	231	100

EXPERIENCE OF COMMAND			COURSES TAKEN		
	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
0-2	57	24.7	Course for CoCO*	15	6.1
2-4	50	21.6	Course for BatCO**	5	2.2
4-6	42	18.2	Course for CoCO&BatCO	1	0.4
6-8	44	19	Other Courses	122	52.8
8-10	20	8.7	No Courses	70	30.3
10-12	9	3.9	Missing data	19	8.2
12-14	6	2.6	Total	231	100
Missing data	3	1.3	*CoCO: Company Commander		
Total	231	100	**BatCO: Battalion Commander		

POSITION			EDUCATION AFTER MILITARY ACADEMY		
	Frequency	Percent		Frequency	Percent
Company Commander	176	76.2	Ph.D.	5	2.2
Battalion Commander	55	23.8	Master	7	3
Total	231	100	Staff Officer Academy	9	3.9
			Staff Of. Acad. & Master	1	0.4
			Other	11	4.8
			None	198	85.7
			Total	231	100

Table 4.1 Frequency Tables

4.2 The Research Topics

The management skills which are the subject of this research are the most frequently needed skills according to several studies done by using a variety of kind of respondents. These studies, and results are listed in Table 4-2. These studies show that effective management needs some skills and the skills which we are researching are among these skills. According to the study of Cameron and Tschirhart (1988) effective and successful managers have many of these skills.

- STUDY - PARTICIPANTS - TOPIC OF RESEARCH	SKILLS	
- Prentice (1984) 230 executives in manufacturing, retail, and service firms - Critical skills for managing organizations	Listening Communication Leadership Problem solving Time management	Interpersonal relations Formal presentations Stress management Adaptability to change
- Margerison and Kakabadse (1984) 721 chief executive officers in U.S. corporations - Most important things you've learned in order to be a chief executive	Communication Managing people Delegation Patience Respect Control Understanding people Evaluating personnel Tolerance Team spirit	Strategic planning Decision-making Self-discipline Analytic abilities Hard work Flexibility Financial management Time management Knowledge of the business Clear thinking
- Margerison and Kakabadse (1984) 721 chief executive officers in U.S. corporations - Key management skills to develop in others to help them become senior executives	Human relations Planning and goal setting People management Leadership Communication Teamwork	Decision-making Financial management Broad experience Entrepreneurial skills Delegating
- Cameron (1984) 50 consultants, professors, management development experts, and public administrators - Critical management skills needed by state government managers	Managing conflict Motivating others Managing stress and time Decision-making Delegation	Goal setting Problem solving Design jobs Gaining and using power Career planning
- Hunsicker (1978) 1,854 Air Force officers - Skills that most contribute to successful management	Communication Human relations General management ability	Leadership Knowledge and experience Technical competence
- Luthans, Rosenkranz, and Hennessey (1985) 52 managers in 3 organizations - Participant observation of skills demonstrated by most effective versus least effective managers	Managing conflict Building power and influence Communicating with outsiders Planning and goal setting	Decision making Developing subordinates Communicating with insiders Processing paperwork
- Benson (1983) - A survey of 25 studies in business journals - A summary of the skills needed by students entering many professions	Listening Written communication Oral communication Motivating/persuading	Interpersonal skills Informational interviewing Group problem solving

Table 4.2 Studies of Critical management skills

- STUDY - PARTICIPANTS - TOPIC OF RESEARCH	SKILLS	
- Curtis, Winsor, and Stephens (1989) 428 members of the American Society of Personnel Administrators in the United States (1) Skills needed to obtain employment (2) Skills important for successful job performance (3) Skills needed to move up in the organization	(1) Verbal communication Listening Enthusiasm Written communication Technical competence Appearance (3) Ability to work well in groups Ability to give effective feedback Ability to write effective reports Knowledge of the job/ Ability to listen and give counsel Ability to work well with others one-on-one Ability to gather information and make a decision	(2) Interpersonal skills Verbal communication Written communication Persistence/determination Enthusiasm Technical competence Ability to use computers Knowledge of finance Knowledge of management theory Knowledge of marketing Knowledge of accounting Ability to use business machines Ability to present a good image for the firm
- Cameron and Tschirhart (1988) 402 highly effective managers - Key managerial skills to be successful as a manager	Communication Managing stress Managing individual decisions Recognizing, defining and Solving problems Motivating others	Delegating Setting goals Self-awareness Team building Managing conflict

Table 4.2a Studies of Critical management skills (continued)

On the basis of this survey the main management skills appear to be: problem solving, stress management, organizing/coordinating, conflict management, motivating, coaching and counseling, team building, communication, empowering/delegating. An officer as a manager needs to have these skills.

Problem solving is a skill that is required for every person in our everyday life. The manager's job is basically a problem-solving job and managers are paid for this (Whetten and Cameron, 1998). Thus a manager needs this skill more than others.

Managers get things done through, and with, others in the organization. Managers have to direct and depend on others in the organization and this is stressful. In 1950's and 1960's doctors named ulcer as executive's disease. So managers need to manage their stressful environment and their personal stress.

However, managers should also know that a moderate amount of stress is useful for the organization (Nelson and Quick, 1997). Because a stressless environment creates a comfortable workplace which lets people work with low performance and a very stressful environment creates a very strict and uncomfortable workplace that again decreases the work performance of the people.

Organizing and coordinating is another skill for the manager to have since the manager often tries to set coordination between tasks and people. The limited resources with limited personnel need to finish numerous tasks in the minimum possible time. This of course needs careful organization and coordination by the manager.

Conflict within an organization is inevitable (Nelson and Quick, 1997). Since it is unavoidable a manager should manage conflicts effectively. Moderate amount of conflict creates a moderate amount of stress, which is useful for the organization to perform up to its potential.

Since the managers get things done through and with others, they need to motivate them to get the best result from their work. So knowing the theories of motivation, or at least the basics of the theories, is a need for managers.

Managers need to help their subordinates define and work through personal problems that affect job performance by counseling and need to train and orient their subordinates to the realities of the workplace and to help their subordinates remove barriers to optimum work performance by coaching.

Some tasks need more than one person, that is, many require different skills and thus different people in order to be completed. Getting different people together and letting them do the job together is not an easy task. Especially the army consists of many people working together as teams. The military units from the smallest squad, to the largest army, are all teams. So building a team is important for the manager to get the best result from a group of people.

Communication is among the most frequent skills of managers according to the above listed studies. It includes listening, written and oral communication.

Managers cannot see everything and cannot decide on everything in the organizations so they need to empower their subordinates or delegate to them. Thus they can focus on less frequent or unusual problems and their subordinates can develop themselves.

4.3 The Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed (See appendix 3 for the questionnaire) to assess the knowledge and behavior of the officers on the above nine topics of management skills.

The questions of the questionnaire were either developed by us or taken from the questionnaires which had been already developed, proven to be reliable and being used. We begin with determining the knowledge and skills that an officer needs to have in detail for each research topic. After determining the “should statements”, we researched the questionnaires which had been developed and we

selected the questions matching with our statements. Other should statements were converted to true/false statements to create the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of 162 questions in four parts. In part one (7 questions) the respondents are asked to fill out their personal information, the second part (9 questions) includes questions, which do not need a scaled answer, like multiple-choice questions. The third part (143 questions) consists of questions about knowledge and behavior of the respondents, a five point Likert scale is used in this part of the questionnaire and the respondents are asked to mark the scale according to the level of being in agreement with the statement. The statements were prepared either true or false so either 1 or 5 for the scale is completely true. The fourth part (3 questions) is to see whether they had training on our research topics (one yes/no question for each topic), to understand the perceptions of the participants about their feelings on taking training (a five point Likert scale is used for each topic) and on the priorities they give to the topics of research.

At the beginning of the questionnaire development, the questions of the research topics were developed then the questions of all of the topics were mixed so as not to lead respondents to focus on a topic and answer the questions according to that topic.

The Human Resources Management and Planning Department of the Army distributed the questionnaire to the selected battalions.

We used SPSS statistical software to calculate the reliability of the questionnaire. Cronbach's reliability coefficient turned out to be 'alpha' (α)=0.8262 and Spearman-Brown split half reliability coefficient is r_{sb} =0.7732.

4.4 Evaluation and Results

The questionnaires were evaluated by using two different methods. The first method was grading the respondents and coming to a conclusion by looking at the grades of the respondents (if one gets enough points (60 over 100), he does not need to be trained). The second method was testing the questions by a statistical test (Nonparametric, Sign Test is used) and coming to a conclusion by looking at the number of the questions that were known by the respondents. The methods are explained in detail in the following sections.

4.4.1 Method 1

After collecting all data the answers of certain questions which needed to be answered as '1' were converted as if their answers had been '5'. Meaning, if a person completely disagreed ('1' from the scale) with a statement which required a completely disagree answer (1) that person was counted as if he had answered '5' ('4' for '2' answers, '3' for '3' answers etc.). Thus all the questions of the questionnaire were standardized. Then all '1','2', and '3' answers were graded as zero (0) and '4' and '5' answers were graded as '1'. We graded the answers as described since we wanted to have a measure of how much the respondents know about the research

topics. '3' answers were graded as '0' because indecisiveness does not show a respondent knew about the topic of the statement.

Each of the respondents was given grades for each research topic by counting the correct answers, that is '1's, for each topic. Since the number of statements for different topics were not equal, we graded all of them over 50 (by multiplying the correct proportion by 50) and thus each respondent had grades over 50 for each research topic and the sum of the nine research topics' grades gave us an overall grade for a respondent over 450. The grades for the different groups can be seen at Appendix 2.

According to Turkish Army's performance appraisal instruction 60 over 100 is enough for a person to proceed to an upper rank. So we decided that 60/100 for the research topics (that is, 30 points for each topic and 270 points overall) is enough for a respondent to be counted as a person who does not need to be trained. The number of respondents who do not need to be trained and the percentages are shown in Table 4.3. Although 16 people (6.9%) scored over 60% overall which means the average score of research topics, there is no one who scored over 60% in all research topics.

All of the questions of the questionnaire are evaluated with the grading method described above and the percentages of the people who gave correct answers to the questions are shown in Appendix 1. The means of the percentages are shown in the appendix. In Appendix 1, the percentages above 60% is marked with a (*). The total number of the questions above 60 % limit is also shown in the

second row from the bottom of the table. Finally, for each topic, the percentage of questions known by more than 60% of respondents are shown at the bottom of the appendix.

Research Topic	Number of Respondents scoring over 60%	Percentage
Problem Solving	20	8.70%
Stress Management	56	24.2%
Organizing / Coordinating	115	49.8%
Conflict Management	13	5.60%
Motivating	98	42.4%
Coaching / Counseling	134	58.0%
Team Building	40	17.3%
Communication	40	17.3%
Empowering / Delegating	111	48.1%
OVERALL	16	6.90%

Table 4.3 Number of respondents who do not need training and their percentages.

The mean of the grades of the respondents for each topic are shown in Table

4.4.

Research Topic	Mean	St. Dev.
Problem Solving	23	4
Stress Management	26.20	4.43
Organizing / Coordinating	28.08	7.73
Conflict Management	20	6
Motivating	27.18	5.40
Coaching / Counseling	29.89	4.67
Team Building	23	5
Communication	25.92	4.58
Empowering / Delegating	28.69	6.31

Table 4.4 Mean grades for the topics (Possible range: 0-50).

The above evaluation is for the all sample population. We made comparisons of respondents who are at different ranks, at different positions, had taken different courses and had different years of command experience. Specifically:

- Every rank was compared with the remaining ranks to see whether there is a

difference of knowledge. 1st Lieutenants and 2nd Lieutenants were combined since they are the first two ranks of officers, their sample sizes were small.

- The ranks were compared with each other.
- Company commanders and battalion commanders were compared.
- People who had taken course for company commanders and course for battalion commanders compared with the people who had not taken those courses.
- People who had different years of command experience compared with the rest of the sample. The people who had experience over 8 years were combined since the sample sizes of the groups were too small.
- Lastly, people who had different years of command experience were compared with each other.

T-test with SPSS Statistical software was used to compare the groups. Many of the comparisons showed no significant difference between groups. The comparisons which shows difference between groups are listed in Table 4.5.

We did 63 t-tests and we took $\alpha=0.01$ to have a small Type-I error rate.

Table 4.5 shows that Senior Captains are better than others in Organizing, People who had 0-2 years of command experience are worse than others in Team Building, People who had 0-2 years of command experience are worse than people who had 2-4 and 8+ years of command experience in Team Building.

Group	Topic	t-value	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	99% CI of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Sen.Capt. vs. Others	Organizing	-2.663	0.01	-3.613	1.357	-7.217	-0.009
0-2 Yrs Experience vs. Others	Team Building	2.669	0.009	2.288	0.857	0.029	4.546
0-2 vs. 2-4 yrs. Experience	Team Building	3.127	0.002	3.279	0.989	6.669	0.631
0-2 vs. 8+ yrs. Experience	Team Building	3.192	0.003	3.64	1.096	6.03	0.528

Table 4.5 Differences between groups

4.4.2 Method 2

The second method which we used to evaluate the results was the Non-parametric Sign Test. First we converted the responses as described at the beginning of the first method. Meaning we converted the responses of the questions which needed to be answered as '1' to '5', '4' to '2' and vice versa. After making this standardization, we tested each question with the Sign Test to see whether the questions known by the respondents. To do this, for each question, we gave minus (-) signs to '1', '2' and '3' responses and plus signs to '4' and '5' responses. Then we counted the number of plus signs, meaning positive differences, to calculate the test statistic and the p-value. We wanted to have a small Type-I error rate, so we took $\alpha=0.01$. The questions for which p-value $> \alpha$ are counted as not known by the respondents. Our hypothesis was “ H_0 : The greater proportion of the respondents knew the question,” and alternative hypothesis was “ H_a : The greater proportion of the respondents did not know the question.”

The number of questions that are known for each research topic is shown in Table 4.6.

Topics	Number of known questions	Percentage
Problem Solving	8	47.1%
Stress Management	9	45.0%
Organizing / Coordinating	3	37.5%
Conflict Management	4	30.8%
Motivating	11	50.0%
Coaching / Counseling	11	61.1%
Team Building	5	29.4%
Communication	8	42.1%
Empowering / Delegating	9	47.4%
Mean		43.4%
St. Dev.		9.3%

Table 4.6 Number of known questions and percentages for all respondents.

In Table 4.6, it can be seen that only coaching / counseling topic is above 60%.

We compared the groups in the sample as we did in the first method. Each rank compared with the other ranks and with each other, battalion commanders and company commanders were compared, people who had taken course for company and battalion commanders compared with people who had not taken those courses, people who had different command experience compared with the remaining, and lastly people who had different command experience compared with each other. The known number of questions for each topic for each sample group is shown in the Table 4.7.

The percentages of known questions for each of the 9 topics were used to make comparisons and Mann-Whitney U-test was used to see the significance of differences. We did 63 U-tests and since we did a lot of tests, we took $\alpha=0.01$ to have a small Type-I error rate. The tests showed that there is no significant difference between groups in terms of the number of known questions.

Rank	1 st & 2 nd Lieutenant		Sen. 1 st Lieutenant		Captain		Sen. Captain		Major		Lt. Colonel	
Topic	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age
Problem Solving	9	53%	9	53%	9	53%	8	47%	8	47%	9	53%
Stress Management	11	55%	12	60%	10	50%	10	50%	12	60%	12	60%
Organizing / Coordinating	5	63%	6	75%	5	63%	7	88%	5	63%	6	75%
Conflict Management	8	62%	4	31%	5	38%	5	38%	5	38%	7	54%
Motivating	14	64%	13	59%	13	59%	13	59%	16	73%	14	64%
Coaching / Counseling	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%	12	67%
Team Building	8	47%	8	47%	7	41%	7	41%	11	65%	9	53%
Communication	13	68%	11	58%	9	47%	10	53%	11	58%	11	58%
Empowering / Delegating	13	68%	14	74%	11	58%	10	53%	13	68%	15	79%
MEAN		60%		58%		52%		54%		59%		62%
St. Dev.		7%		13%		8%		14%		10%		9%

Table 4.7a The known number of questions for each topic for ranks

Command Experience	0-2 Years		2-4 Years		4-6 Years		6-8 Years		8+ Years	
Topic	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age	Number of known questions	Percent age
Problem Solving	9	53%	8	47%	9	53%	9	53%	9	53%
Stress Management	10	50%	10	50%	10	50%	9	45%	11	55%
Organizing / Coordinating	4	50%	4	50%	6	75%	7	88%	4	50%
Conflict Management	4	31%	5	38%	5	38%	6	46%	5	38%
Motivating	13	59%	14	64%	13	59%	12	55%	15	68%
Coaching / Counseling	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%
Team Building	6	35%	7	41%	7	41%	7	41%	10	59%
Communication	9	47%	11	58%	9	47%	12	63%	10	53%
Empowering / Delegating	11	58%	11	58%	12	63%	13	68%	14	74%
MEAN		49%		52%		54%		58%		57%
St. Dev.		10%		8%		11%		14%		10%

Table 4.7b The known number of questions for each topic for different years of experience.

Position	Company Commander		Battalion Commander		No course*		Course *	
Topic	Number of known questions	Percentage	Number of known questions	Percentage	Number of known questions	Percentage	Number of known questions	Percentage
Problem Solving	9	53%	8	47%	8	47%	8	47%
Stress Management	12	60%	10	50%	10	50%	10	50%
Organizing / Coordinating	7	88%	3	38%	3	38%	3	38%
Conflict Management	6	46%	4	31%	4	31%	5	38%
Motivating	16	73%	9	41%	9	41%	13	59%
Coaching / Counseling	14	78%	11	61%	11	61%	11	61%
Team Building	12	71%	6	35%	6	35%	6	35%
Communication	11	58%	8	42%	8	42%	10	53%
Empowering / Delegating	14	74%	9	47%	9	47%	12	63%
MEAN		67%		44%		44%		49%
St. Dev.		13%		8%		9%		10%

*People who had and had not taken a course for company or battalion commanders

Table 4.7c The known number of questions for each topic by position and people who had taken course for company or battalion commanders.

4.4.3 Perceptions of Officers

The last part of the questionnaire was about the perceptions of the respondents. They were asked how much they would benefit from taking training on each research topic and which priorities they would give to the research topics if they had a chance to take training.

The responses to the first question (How much would they benefit from taking training on the research topics) are summarized in table 4.8. We can see from the table that the responses are all over 85%, communication, stress management and problem solving take the first place with 92%, motivating is the second with

90%, organizing/coordinating is third with 89%, coaching/counseling is the fifth with 88%, empowering/delegating and conflict management are the sixth with 87% and team building is the seventh with 86%.

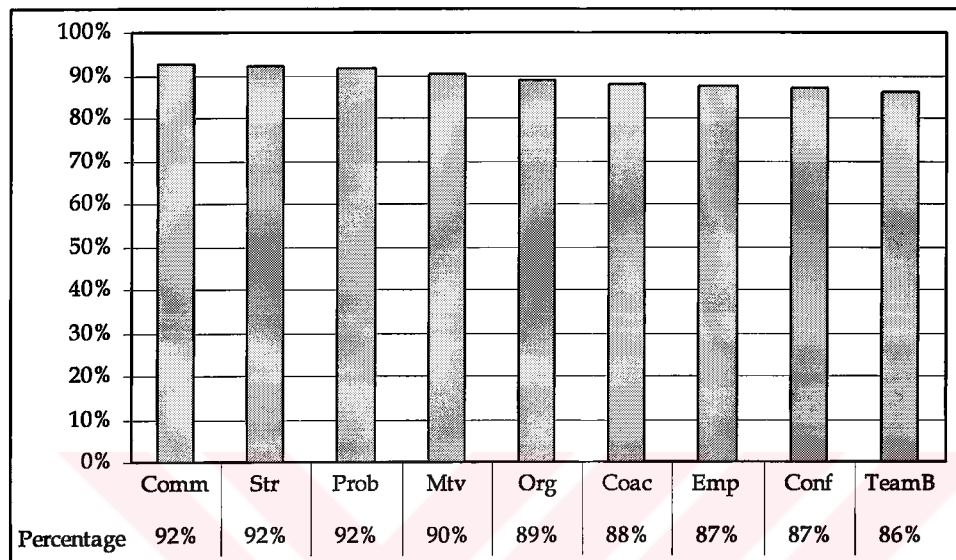


Table 4.8 Percentage of people who says that they would benefit from taking course on the topics.

The responses to the second question (the priorities that the respondents give to the research topics) and the mean priorities of the research topics are shown in Table 4.9 and Table 4.10. The respondents are asked to give a priority (1 for the most wanted topic, 9 for the least wanted topic) for each research topic. Thus each respondent had a rank of priorities for the research topics. We counted these priorities and demonstrated the result in the following table (Table 4.9a). As it can be seen from the table, stress management had first priority from 79 of the respondents, second priority from 27 of the respondents and so on.

Topics	Stress Manage.	Conflict Manage.	Motivatin'	Coaching/ Counseling	Team Building	Organize. Coord.	Commun	Problem solving	Empower. Delegatin'	Total
Priorities										
1	79	8	18	19	10	14	52	25	5	230
2	27	29	27	24	19	33	31	28	9	227
3	28	27	35	19	26	22	24	35	8	224
4	22	26	38	35	24	28	21	18	9	221
5	9	24	37	27	33	29	27	29	10	225
6	23	34	24	38	23	31	21	20	10	224
7	13	32	18	22	49	22	19	22	19	216
8	18	23	18	24	23	30	17	33	33	219
9	10	24	13	17	15	11	9	10	116	225
Total	229	227	228	225	222	220	221	220	219	

Table 4.9a The number of priorities given to the topics by the respondents.

Topics	Stress Manage.	Conflict Manage.	Motivatin'	Coaching/ Counseling	Team Building	Organize. Coord.	Commun	Problem solving	Empower. Delegatin'	Total
Priorities										
1	34%	3%	8%	8%	4%	6%	23%	11%	2%	100%
2	12%	13%	12%	10%	8%	14%	13%	12%	4%	98%
3	12%	12%	15%	8%	11%	10%	10%	15%	3%	97%
4	10%	11%	16%	15%	10%	12%	9%	8%	4%	96%
5	4%	10%	16%	12%	14%	13%	12%	13%	4%	97%
6	10%	15%	10%	16%	10%	13%	9%	9%	4%	97%
7	6%	14%	8%	10%	21%	10%	8%	10%	8%	94%
8	8%	10%	8%	10%	10%	13%	7%	14%	14%	95%
9	4%	10%	6%	7%	6%	5%	4%	4%	50%	97%
Total	99%	98%	99%	97%	96%	95%	96%	95%	95%	

Table 4.9b The percentage of priorities given to the topics by the respondents.

The percentages of the priorities are shown in Table 4.9b. In the tables 4.9a and 4.9b, the total numbers for the topics and the priorities are not equal to 231 and 100% (the total number of respondents) because of the missing responses.

To have a better conclusion about the rank of the topics, we got the means of the priorities given for each research topic. The result is shown in Table 4.10 and the rank of the priorities given by the respondents is: Stress Management, Communication, Motivating, Organizing Coordinating, Problem solving, Team Building, Conflict, Management, Coaching / Counseling, Empowering Delegating.

Topic	Mean	Standard Dev.	Rank
Stress Management	3.55	0.173	1
Communication	3.99	0.169	2
Motivating	4.58	0.148	3
Organizing Coordinating	4.69	0.158	4
Problem solving	4.92	0.168	5
Team Building	5	0.15	6
Conflict Management	5.28	0.157	7
Coaching / Counseling	5.35	0.157	8
Empowering Delegating	7.46	0.153	9

Table 4.10 The means of the priorities and the ranks of the topics.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The Army, as an organization, tries to keep up with the change in its environment. The main forces of change for the Army are technological improvements, economic environment, professional associations and new organizational goals. Training and developing of its managers, in other words its officers, is a method of change used in the Army. Training and developing its officers will provide the Army with better management of its units. Better management requires better managers who have management skills. Are the officers in the Army equipped with management skills? This research tried to answer this question. The survey results help us to decide whether the military officers have the skills.

In this research we aimed to see whether the officers in the Turkish Army need to be trained on management skills, if there is a need for training, on which topics they need to be trained, are there any differences between officers who have different ranks, and different years of command experience, between officers who had taken a course for company and battalion commanders and officers who had not taken a course for company and battalion commanders, and between battalion and company commanders?

When we look at the survey results from a general point of view, we see that the management skills of company and battalion commanders need to be trained

and developed. Since most of the research topics are not known even as much as 60%. In fact we do not think that 60% of knowledge is enough for a manager to be counted as a skilled manager, because all of the management functions are based on these management skills so managers need to have the skills to do their jobs effectively and efficiently. According to Whetten and Cameron (1998), 60 over 100 is a very low grade, a manager needs to have at least 80 over 100 to be counted as a manager who does not need to be trained and developed.

The results of this survey showed that none of the respondents are over 60% limit for all research topics and only an average of 43.4% of the questions are answered correctly. These results show that officers need to be trained. The priorities of the training topics are determined according to the results of the methods described in the previous section. The priorities, established by the analysis of what is known/not known, are shown in the following table.

Training Topic	Rank
Conflict Management	1
Team Building	2
Problem Solving	3
Communication	4
Stress Management	5
Motivating	6
Organizing / Coordinating	7
Empowering / Delegating	8
Coaching / Counseling	9

Table 5.1 The priorities of the training topics.

After determining the priorities of the topic we encounter another question. To whom will these topics be taught? There are two alternatives for the Army to

train its officers: according to the ranks and according to the command experience. The Army's structure is suitable for the training according to the ranks and it would be hard to calculate command experience of officers and collect people according to that. In fact, there is a strong relationship between rank and command experience (correlation coefficient $r=0.807$).

The scores of the different groups shows that coaching/counseling and empowering/delegating scores are slightly below or over 60% limit and senior captains are slightly over 60% limit for organizing/coordinating. Meaning, it is not needed to conduct training on coaching/counseling and empowering/delegating and it is not needed to train Senior Captains on organizing and coordinating, if we set the limit to 60%. However, they are still far below 80%.

The priority ranks of the topics do not show a great difference when we order the topics according to the grades of the groups (ranks, command experience, taken/not taken course, position). The differences between the grades of groups may create differences of the order of the priorities of the topics for groups. These are small and unimportant changes of the priorities of training topics, the thing we call a "difference" is just swapping of two or three adjacent topics in the priorities list.

Although there are small differences between groups, all of the groups had low grades, meaning they all need to be trained.

As mentioned there are some differences between groups. These differences do not show a relationship. So we cannot conclude i.e. younger officers are better, or

experienced officers need less training on the research topics so it is clear that we cannot let the management skills of the officers be learned through experience.

Officers agreed that taking training on the research topics would be beneficial for them. Meaning, they want to be trained on these topics.

The priorities given by the respondents are shown in the following table.

Training Topic	Rank
Stress Management	1
Communication	2
Motivating	3
Organizing Coordinating	4
Problem solving	5
Team Building	6
Conflict Management	7
Coaching / Counseling	8
Empowering Delegating	9

Table 5.2 The priorities given by the respondents.

As we can see from Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 that there is a difference between the topic ranks established by the analysis results and topic ranks of perceived priorities. For example, conflict management is the first topic which should be taught in the analysis results but seventh in the respondents' perceived priorities rank list. Team building is the second in analysis results but sixth in the perceived priorities list, problem solving is the third in the analysis list but fifth in the perceived priorities list. There is not a significant correlation between the topic ranks established by the analysis results and topic ranks of perceived priorities (Spearman's rank correlation coefficient $r=0.20$). This inconsistency maybe an indicator that officers know some of the topics but they don't think that they know and they don't know something but they think that they know or we can say that

their priority could simply show their interest, and even they know the topic, they may still want training on it. However, if we consider that all of the research topics except empowering/delegating and coaching counseling are below the limit (60%) the differences are not very meaningful, but the topics which are over 60% limit are known and thus lastly preferred by the respondents.

We used only a questionnaire to determine the needs and it had some limitations. We wanted to research nine topics and so the questionnaire had become too long. The respondents might have been bored because of questionnaire was too long and we don't think that there would be a high response rate if the questionnaire had not been distributed officially. We do not think that a shorter questionnaire could be prepared for the research but each topic could be researched separately from the others. Thus more questions about each topic could be asked and this would yield more reliable results. The length of the questionnaire forced us to limit the number of questions. The questionnaire could be prepared with some phony questions to see whether the respondents were guessing the required answers. Phony questions could be used in order to ensure validity in the answers from the respondents. If a questionnaire which had more than 50% phony questions answered incorrectly, that questionnaire could be omitted from the final analysis. The research could be widened by preparing different questionnaires for the supervisors and the subordinates of the company and battalion commanders. Some other methods like interviewing could be used along with the questionnaire. Not only the company and battalion commanders but also their superiors and

subordinates could be interviewed and this would yield better decision making about the training needs.

This research showed that there is a gap between the current situation and the standards and Turkish Army needs to train its officers to close this gap. The method of the training may be changed according to the topic which is wanted to be taught. The Army has some training courses which include some of the research topics (communication techniques, stress management and conflict management) of this thesis but they are all in classroom training format.

Although courses for battalion and company commanders include communication techniques, stress management and conflict management, these topics were not scored well enough to be counted as no need for training. So these courses need to be reconsidered and changes maybe made.

Classroom courses or seminars as off-the-job training methods may be not the right way to train officers. Role playing could be one method to train the officers since it very powerful for interpersonal skills like conflict management, motivating and team building, simulation method could be useful for stress management and problem solving. The classroom courses could be given to the officers in their ranking units (i.e. company commanders could be trained in battalions, and battalion commanders could be trained in brigades). Thus they could discuss the topics they learn with their colloquies and they could find the chance to apply what they learn immediately after they learn it. Which training method is the right one to

train the officers on management topics is still to be researched.

The topics for which we conclude that there is a need for training need to be considered carefully as training topics for The Turkish Army. Other training methods should also be considered. There may be a need for more research to decide on the training method and subtopics of the training topics. Company and battalion commanders are not the only managers in The Turkish Army, so other positions (e.g. company NCOs, G1/S1, G2/S2, G3/S3 or G4/S4 staff) and other ranks (e.g. corporals, sergeants, expert corporal and sergeants, NCOs) need to be studied too. Thus, not the same training but an appropriate one could be given to people who are at different ranks and different positions.

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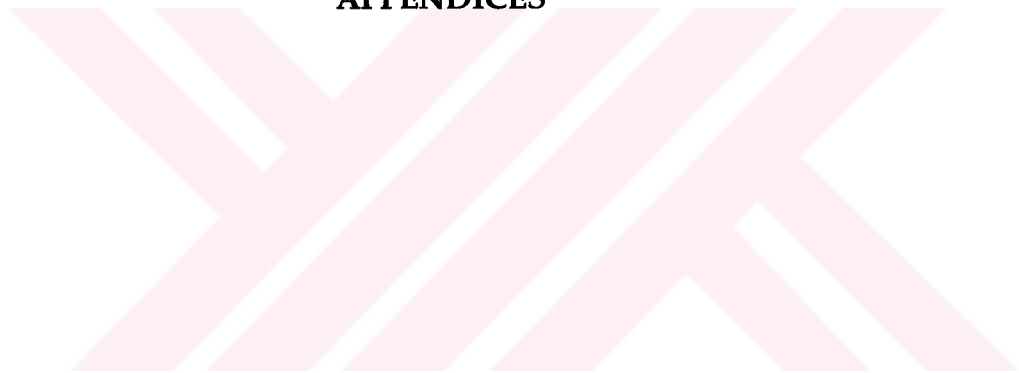
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APPENDICES



APPENDIX 1

**THE PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE WHO GAVE CORRECT ANSWERS TO THE
QUESTIONS.**

PROBLEM SLV.		STRESS M.		ORGANIZIN'		CONFLICT M.		MOTIVATING		COACHING		TEAM BUILD.		COMMUNICA.		EMPOWERIN	
Ques.	C %	Ques	C %	Ques	C %	Ques	C %	Ques	C %	Ques	C %	Que	C %	Ques.	C %	Ques.	C %
P1	90.35 *	S1	97.84 *	O1	50.22	C1	14.29	M1	53.68	CC1	93.91 *	T1	83.04 *	CM1	99.13 *	E1	89.57 *
P2	6.67	S2	73.91 *	O2	73.48 *	C2	27.71	M2	24.68	CC2	21.30	T2	71.43 *	CM2	11.35	E2	59.83
P3	92.54 *	S3	10.87	O3	41.74	C3	54.55	M3	21.65	CC3	17.98	T3	30.43	CM3	3.46	E3	84.35 *
P4	5.29	S4	18.26	O4	71.30 *	C4	95.67 *	M4	69.13 *	CC4	85.96 *	T4	42.54	CM4	90.43 *	E4	94.12 *
P5	12.17	S5	94.74 *	O5	57.75	C5	6.09	M5	16.52	CC5	96.97 *	T5	41.92	CM5	7.02	E5	93.58 *
P6	4.76	S6	63.60 *	O6	23.53	C6	79.48 *	M6	31.14	CC6	87.01 *	T6	34.21	CM6	92.64 *	E6	97.83 *
P7	50.87	S7	3.07	O7	93.91 *	C7	75.55 *	M7	95.58 *	CC7	7.83	T7	60.35 *	CM7	41.74	E7	48.92
P8	93.04 *	S8	96.96 *	O8	55.84	C8	4.87	M8	26.75	CC8	3.91	T8	3.90	CM8	7.39	E8	50.22
P9	5.65	S9	8.23			C9	40.79	M9	45.99	CC9	91.30 *	T9	36.09	CM9	46.09	E9	22.94
P10	85.65 *	S10	38.10			C10	67.98 *	M10	90.37 *	CC10	25.13	T10	96.26 *	CM10	36.96	E10	47.39
P11	17.32	S11	12.12			C11	26.84	M11	3.90	CC11	88.17 *	T11	29.03	CM11	55.61	E11	78.26 *
P12	13.85	S12	81.30 *			C12	3.46	M12	93.94 *	CC12	66.09 *	T12	19.48	CM12	39.78	E12	85.65 *
P13	11.69	S13	5.88			C13	18.18	M13	21.65	CC13	9.96	T13	5.65	CM13	80.95 *	E13	64.71 *
P14	86.52 *	S14	89.84 *					M14	94.81 *	CC14	95.67 *	T14	95.67 *	CM14	75.76 *	E14	81.82 *
P15	87.83 *	S15	37.39					M15	53.48	CC15	30.74	T15	95.67 *	CM15	92.64 *	E15	3.78
P16	96.76 *	S16	91.34 *					M16	83.12 *	CC16	93.07 *	T16	30.30	CM16	82.61 *	E16	98.70 *
P17	67.97	S17	58.44					M17	29.00	CC17	95.63 *	T17	21.21	CM17	35.37	E17	14.29
		S18	32.47					M18	52.38	CC18	91.74			CM18	31.17	E18	31.74
		S19	94.35 *					M19	73.16 *					CM19	76.19 *	E19	10.82
		S20	63.20 *					M20	91.77 *								
								M21	64.19 *								
								M22	91.74 *								
Mean	48.76		51.88		58.47		39.65		50.32		59.45		46.89		52.88		65.64
Number		11		3		4			10		11		6		8		10
Above 60%																	
Percentage of que. above 60%	47%	55%		38%		31%		45%		61%		35%		42%		53%	

APPENDIX 2

GRADES OF ALL SAMPLE AND GROUPS

Group Statistics		ALL		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	231	23.1729	3.9489	0.2598
Stress Management	231	26.2013	4.4284	0.2914
Organizing / Coordinating	231	28.0844	7.7291	0.5085
Conflict Management	231	19.697	5.6288	0.3703
Motivating	231	27.1842	5.4004	0.3553
Coaching / Counseling	231	29.8942	4.6694	0.3072
Team Building	231	22.6254	5.2727	0.3469
Communication	231	25.9171	4.5834	0.3016
Empowering / Delegating	231	28.6853	6.306	0.4149
TOTAL	231	231.437	27.0162	1.7775

Group Statistics		1 st & 2 nd Lieutenant		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	24	23.2843	3.3497	0.6838
Stress Management	24	26.1458	4.422	0.9026
Organizing / Coordinating	24	26.3021	5.2061	1.0627
Conflict Management	24	21.7949	6.0725	1.2395
Motivating	24	28.9773	4.8906	0.9983
Coaching / Counseling	24	29.6296	3.9849	0.8134
Team Building	24	21.3235	5.5704	1.137
Communication	24	27.3026	3.3658	0.687
Empowering / Delegating	24	27.4123	4.3841	0.8949
TOTAL	24	232.083	16.996	3.4693

Group Statistics		Sen. 1 st Lieutenant		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	36	22.549	3.7862	0.631
Stress Management	36	26.25	4.4521	0.742
Organizing / Coordinating	36	27.6042	6.5763	1.0961
Conflict Management	36	19.1239	5.9928	0.9988
Motivating	36	27.7146	5.7706	0.9618
Coaching / Counseling	36	30.2469	4.0269	0.6712
Team Building	36	22.0588	6.2688	1.0448
Communication	36	25.8041	5.4413	0.9069
Empowering / Delegating	36	29.5322	7.2031	1.2005
TOTAL	36	230.806	28.3446	4.7241

Group Statistics		Captain		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	72	23.0801	3.5822	0.4222
Stress Management	72	26.25	4.4007	0.5186
Organizing / Coordinating	72	27.691	8.1811	0.9642
Conflict Management	72	18.9637	5.4899	0.647
Motivating	72	27.2412	5.5735	0.6568
Coaching / Counseling	72	29.591	5.0892	0.5998
Team Building	72	21.9771	4.9848	0.5875
Communication	72	25.9868	4.4811	0.5281
Empowering / Delegating	72	27.9971	6.6882	0.7882
	159	28.997	6.1215	0.4855
TOTAL	72	228.792	27.402	3.2294

Group Statistics		Sen. Captain		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	46	23.0179	3.3566	0.4949
Stress Management	46	26.6848	4.3797	0.6458
Organizing / Coordinating	46	30.9783	8.4324	1.2433
Conflict Management	46	20.4013	5.4916	0.8097
Motivating	46	26.087	4.3052	0.6348
Coaching / Counseling	46	29.8309	4.984	0.7349
Team Building	46	23.4015	4.2939	0.6331
Communication	46	26.3158	4.8682	0.7178
Empowering / Delegating	46	28.5469	6.127	0.9034
TOTAL	46	235.2609	26.5786	3.9188

Group Statistics		Major		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	30	22.7451	4.881	0.8911
Stress Management	30	25.5833	4.9429	0.9024
Organizing / Coordinating	30	25.625	7.031	1.2837
Conflict Management	30	19.2308	3.7793	0.69
Motivating	30	26.8939	5.206	0.9505
Coaching / Counseling	30	29.8148	3.8554	0.7039
Team Building	30	24.6078	4.9145	0.8973
Communication	30	24.386	4.2564	0.7771
Empowering / Delegating	30	29.7368	5.6208	1.0262
TOTAL	30	228.633	26.9706	4.9241

Group Statistics		Lt. Colonel		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	23	25.1918	5.2333	1.0912
Stress Management	23	25.8696	4.2379	0.8837
Organizing / Coordinating	23	29.3478	8.3076	1.7322
Conflict Management	23	19.8997	7.0207	1.4639
Motivating	23	26.8775	6.8062	1.4192
Coaching / Counseling	23	30.7971	5.4865	1.144
Team Building	23	22.7621	5.9632	1.2434
Communication	23	25.6293	4.2148	0.8788
Empowering / Delegating	23	29.7483	6.5638	1.3687
TOTAL	23	236.044	33.7012	7.0272

Group Statistics		Officers who had Course for Company or Battalion Commanders		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	20	23.2353	4.0373	0.9028
Stress Management	20	25.375	3.8281	0.856
Organizing / Coordinating	20	27.1875	7.6614	1.7131
Conflict Management	20	17.5	4.0387	0.9031
Motivating	20	27.1591	4.6328	1.0359
Coaching / Counseling	20	31.6667	3.6497	0.8161
Team Building	20	23.0882	6.1306	1.3708
Communication	20	24.4737	3.4258	0.766
Empowering / Delegating	20	27.2368	7.2585	1.6231
TOTAL	20	226.85	27.4097	6.129

Group Statistics		Battalion Commander		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	55	23.7433	5.0581	0.682
Stress Management	55	25.7273	4.5306	0.6109
Organizing / Coordinating	55	27.5	7.7579	1.0461
Conflict Management	55	19.4406	5.3077	0.7157
Motivating	55	26.8595	5.8205	0.7848
Coaching / Counseling	55	30.3535	4.5629	0.6153
Team Building	55	23.7433	5.3355	0.7194
Communication	55	24.9282	4.1718	0.5625
Empowering / Delegating	55	29.6172	5.9325	0.7999
TOTAL	55	231.891	29.4415	3.9699

Group Statistics		Company Commander		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	176	22.9947	3.5307	0.2661
Stress Management	176	26.3494	4.3985	0.3316
Organizing / Coordinating	176	28.267	7.7331	0.5829
Conflict Management	176	19.7771	5.7376	0.4325
Motivating	176	27.2856	5.2757	0.3977
Coaching / Counseling	176	29.7506	4.7057	0.3547
Team Building	176	22.2761	5.2191	0.3934
Communication	176	26.2261	4.6729	0.3522
Empowering / Delegating	176	28.3941	6.4067	0.4829
TOTAL	176	231.296	26.3003	1.9825

Group Statistics		Officers Who Had 0-2 Years Of Command Experience		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	57	23.2198	3.6737	0.4866
Stress Management	57	25.5263	4.1656	0.5517
Organizing / Coordinating	57	26.864	7.2777	0.964
Conflict Management	57	19.9055	5.8656	0.7769
Motivating	57	27.0734	4.9024	0.6493
Coaching / Counseling	57	29.5809	3.7669	0.4989
Team Building	57	20.8978	5.7946	0.7675
Communication	57	25.6694	4.4836	0.5939
Empowering / Delegating	57	28.3472	5.6489	0.7482
TOTAL	57	227.0175	23.3571	3.0937

Group Statistics		Officers Who Had 2-4 Years Of Command Experience		
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	35	24.2017	5.5753	0.9424
Stress Management	35	26.0714	4.7853	0.8089
Organizing / Coordinating	35	28.2143	8.4903	1.4351
Conflict Management	35	20.3297	5.5636	0.9404
Motivating	35	27.4026	6.062	1.0247
Coaching / Counseling	35	30	4.8488	0.8196
Team Building	35	24.5378	4.9905	0.8435
Communication	35	25.4887	4.365	0.7378
Empowering / Delegating	35	30.7519	5.2543	0.8881
TOTAL	35	236.9429	30.1027	5.0883

Officers Who Had 4-6 Years Of Command Experience				
Group Statistics				
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	42	22.8992	3.2826	0.5065
Stress Management	42	27.619	4.45	0.6867
Organizing / Coordinating	42	28.4226	7.1996	1.1109
Conflict Management	42	18.6813	5.4108	0.8349
Motivating	42	27.1104	5.1776	0.7989
Coaching / Counseling	42	30.754	4.3982	0.6787
Team Building	42	23.1092	4.1377	0.6385
Communication	42	25.5639	4.0804	0.6296
Empowering / Delegating	42	29.01	4.7035	0.7258
TOTAL	42	233.2381	21.8608	3.3732

Officers Who Had 6-8 Years Of Command Experience				
Group Statistics				
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	44	23.3289	3.6104	0.5443
Stress Management	44	25.5114	4.1965	0.6326
Organizing / Coordinating	44	30.1136	9.0694	1.3673
Conflict Management	44	18.7063	5.3494	0.8065
Motivating	44	25.8781	5.0989	0.7687
Coaching / Counseling	44	29.8611	5.2269	0.788
Team Building	44	21.0561	5.1117	0.7706
Communication	44	25.8971	4.8472	0.7307
Empowering / Delegating	44	27.6914	7.4969	1.1302
TOTAL	44	228.0227	30.8586	4.6521

Officers Who Had 8+ Years Of Command Experience				
Group Statistics				
Topic	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Problem Solving	35	24.2017	5.5753	0.9424
Stress Management	35	26.0714	4.7853	0.8089
Organizing / Coordinating	35	28.2143	8.4903	1.4351
Conflict Management	35	20.3297	5.5636	0.9404
Motivating	35	27.4026	6.062	1.0247
Coaching / Counseling	35	30	4.8488	0.8196
Team Building	35	24.5378	4.9905	0.8435
Communication	35	25.4887	4.365	0.7378
Empowering / Delegating	35	30.7519	5.2543	0.8881
TOTAL	35	236.9429	30.1027	5.0883

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APPENDIX 3

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. RANK

☐	1 ST LT.
☐	SEN. 1 ST LT.
☐	CAPT.
☐	SEN. CAPT.
☐	MAJOR
☐	LT. COLONEL

2. ARMS

☐	INFANTRY
☐	ARTILLERY
☐	ARMOR
☐	ENGINEER
☐	SIGNAL
☐	INTELLIGENCE
☐	QUART. MAST.
☐	ORDNANCE

3. HAVE YOU TAKEN ANY EDUCATION AFTER MILITARY ACADEMY?

☐	YES
☐	STAFF ACADEMY
☐	MASTER
☐	PH.D.
☐	OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY.....)
☐	NO

4. HAVE YOU TAKEN ANY MILITARY COURSES?

☐	YES
☐	COURSE FOR COMPANY COMMANDERS
☐	COURSE FOR BATTALION COMMANDERS
☐	OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY.....)
☐	NO

5. POSITION

☐	COMP. COMM.
☐	BAT. COMM.

6. FOR HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN IN THIS POSITION?

☐	0-2 YEARS
☐	2-4 YEARS
☐	4-6 YEARS
☐	MORE THAN 6 YEARS

7. IF YOU ARE A BAT. COMMANDER, HOW LONG DID YOU DO COMP. COMM.? IF YOU ARE NOT A COMPANY OR BATTALION COMMANDER, WHICH ONE(S) OF THESE POSITIONS HAD YOU BEEN IN?

☐	COMP. COMM.	☐	0-2 YEARS
☐		☐	2-4 YEARS
☐		☐	4-6 YEARS
☐		☐	MORE THAN 6 YEARS
☐	BAT. COMM.	☐	0-2 YEARS
☐		☐	2-4 YEARS
☐		☐	4-6 YEARS
☐		☐	MORE THAN 6 YEARS

PART TWO

Please answer the following questions.

1.	Please write 4 of the stress sources that you face in your job or in your personal life (1- most important/ 4 least important).
	I.
	II.
	III.
	IV.

2.	Problem is an unplanned and unwanted change or result. The following process is a tool used in solving the problems. Please specify considering the following process.					
	PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS					
	I. Defining the problem	Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
	II. Generating alternative solutions					
	III. Evaluating alternative solutions					
	IV. Implementing the chosen alternative solution					
	a. I use this process to solve a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
	b. Other matters can be added to this process.	1	2	3	4	5
	c. I have different processes when solving problems. Please specify.....					

3.	Which ones of the followings are possible conflict sources? You may check more than one.	
	☐	Culture differences
	☐	Insufficient knowledge
	☐	Insufficient materials
	☐	Clear authorities
	☐	The problems that appear because of the personalities
	☐	Traditions
	☐	Graduation differences
	☐	Responsibility level
	☐	The jobs, which are tied together
	☐	Personal insufficiencies
	☐	Rewarding
	☐	The need to work together
	☐	Other (please specify).....

4.	Two of your subordinates come to you and say that they had a problem and they could not solve it. One of them often appears in front of you with some problems. In a situation like that which of the followings would you focus on?	
	☐	Personalities
	☐	Problem
	☐	Both

5.	Which one or ones of the followings are important factors for a successful team? You may check more than one statement.	
	☐	There must be trust between individuals.
	☐	Individuals must deal with and try to train each other.
	☐	The team leader should not be changed overtime.
	☐	The team should be formed by independent individuals.
	☐	Teams should be built for a long time.
	☐	Other (please specify).....
6.	Which one or ones of the followings are important factors while building a team? You may choose more than one statement.	
	☐	The skills of the people who form the team.
	☐	Determining the team leader.
	☐	Specifications of the duty.
	☐	Training of the team.
	☐	Other (please specify).....

7.	Which one or ones of the below statements is/are true about active listening? You may check more than one statement.	
	☐	Listener always responds to the other side by saying things like "Uh-uh, yes-yes, or I understand".
	☐	It is important for the managers to follow the rules of active listening when listening other people.
	☐	Listener does not hesitate to tell his/her thoughts and feelings.
	☐	Listener tries to provide a good flow of communication by interrupting when the other side cannot continue.
8.	You have given an order to work at the weekend with your whole unit because of a deficiency seen in your unit by your supervisor. Which of the following statement would you chose when giving the order to your subordinates about coming to work at the weekend?	
	☐	I have given an order to work at the weekend because of deficiency in our unit. I want to see you here then.
	☐	I want all of you to work at the weekend because of deficiency in our unit.

9.	Which of the followings should be considered to empower and delegate to the subordinates? You may check more than one statement.	
	☐	Skills of my subordinates
	☐	The workload
	☐	The relationship of the tasks
	☐	The logical delegation of the tasks

PART THREE

Please specify how much do you agree with the following statements?		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
1	It is not right to leave work without finishing the task that is currently done.	1	2	3	4	5
2	When a conflict is resolved, there is no need to discuss it again and waste time.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Everyone can be motivated according to his level of needs.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Superiors should show their subordinates' deficiencies on personality, knowledge and skill, and subordinates should remove their own deficiencies.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The task that the team is established for should not be known by anyone else.	1	2	3	4	5
6	'Brainstorming' is among the best ways to define the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Making regular exercise reduces the personal stress.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Possible conflicts should be prevented by taking some precautions.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Each superior must motivate his subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The problem must be defined in detail.	1	2	3	4	5
11	The skills and performances of the subordinates should be considered before a task is given to them.	1	2	3	4	5
12	The members who create problems in a team should be changed with new people who have the same skills.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Alternative solutions must be generated.	1	2	3	4	5
14	The best way to reduce personal stress is using techniques like muscle relaxation or deep breathing.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Conflict is created by problem people and by people who try to sabotage something.	1	2	3	4	5
16	People always need to be motivated by other people.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Providing help on every subject that the subordinates need help is a responsibility of the supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The number of people in a team should be as small as possible.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
19	The alternative solutions should be tried on the problem beginning with the most appropriate one.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Something should be done even while waiting for something.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Conflicts make some unwanted changes inevitable.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Rewarding is the most important part of motivation.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Supervisors should talk with their subordinates about their possible deficiencies; even the subordinates do not want help.	1	2	3	4	5
24	The members of the team should get along with each other, so the possible problem areas should be detected and solved beforehand.	1	2	3	4	5
25	While trying to generate alternative solutions, people should think quickly and logically.	1	2	3	4	5
26	There should be a list of tasks, and this list should be followed.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Conflict means problem and causes unnecessary time consumption.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Punishing is the most important part of motivation.	1	2	3	4	5
29	The subordinates who need help but do not want help should be convinced to take help.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Communication is the most important part of management.	1	2	3	4	5
31	'The sources on hand' is the most important thing to consider while trying to decide the implementation of the alternative solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
32	All memos and orders should be read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
33	People intrinsically want to work. Rewarding or punishing does not affect the behavior much.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Coaching, detailed planning and setting the goals are supervisors' jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
35	All information about the unit should be come to th supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
36	After solving the problem, the problem is needed to be discussed again.	1	2	3	4	5
37	The tasks must not be postponed to the next day.	1	2	3	4	5
38	People naturally do not like to work and they try not to work whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Every success should be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
40	People needed to be directed and frightened, if they are wanted to be worked.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Teams help to reduce the conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
42	Communication is a process which is formed by Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver.	1	2	3	4	5
43	Human resources should be used well to finish the tasks in time.	1	2	3	4	5
44	The planned meetings should never be canceled.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Rewards motivate people even they are late.	1	2	3	4	5
46	People want to work; this is as natural as other needs.	1	2	3	4	5
47	It is normal that some people in a team give less effort than others in a team.	1	2	3	4	5
48	People should be careful about whether the communication channel affects the message.	1	2	3	4	5
49	The people who face with a problem should apply to their immediate commander immediately and without hesitation.	1	2	3	4	5
50	There should be a person who controls time during the meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
51	The subordinates who get the same good (or bad) result should be rewarded (or punished) in the same the way.	1	2	3	4	5
52	People want to learn, do not refrain from working or taking responsibility and they can canalize themselves to work.	1	2	3	4	5
53	Teams are built for difficult tasks that should be finished in a short time.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
54	Choosing the right words is the most important part of the communication.	1	2	3	4	5
55	People should finish their tasks in the shortest possible time.	1	2	3	4	5
56	When a task is given to someone, it is his responsibility to finish that task (including finding materials, relative data etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
57	Each person has a difficult time to be understood, different and unchanging way to be motivated.	1	2	3	4	5
58	Supervisors should improve their subordinates' skills.	1	2	3	4	5
59	After finishing a task, teams do not come together until the next task.	1	2	3	4	5
60	The orders taken from the supervisors should be understood by all of the subordinates in the unit.	1	2	3	4	5
61	I try to predict the possible problem areas.	1	2	3	4	5
62	There is no difference in importance among tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
63	I pay attention to my subordinates' talents when giving a task to him.	1	2	3	4	5
64	I try to correct the wrong things and plans that my subordinates do.	1	2	3	4	5
65	There is no need to give detailed feedback; rewards and punishments are enough to tell them whether they are on the right track.	1	2	3	4	5
66	I do not consider personalities of people while establishing a team.	1	2	3	4	5
67	I know using body language while communicating and the meanings of the gestures.	1	2	3	4	5
68	I clearly identify responsibilities and give the same amount of authority.	1	2	3	4	5
69	I provide help to my subordinates after delegating to them, and they do not hesitate to ask for help.	1	2	3	4	5
70	I try to immediately solve the problem when it appears.	1	2	3	4	5
71	I make a deadline for each task.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
72	I use liaison personnel to create coordination between my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
73	I award the good performance of my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
74	I want them to see and solve their own problems themselves (for their skill improvement).	1	2	3	4	5
75	If some individuals in the team are more hardworking than others, I reward them for their effort.	1	2	3	4	5
76	I always make the explanation of my orders to my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
77	I usually do not delegate to my subordinates except when I am overloaded.	1	2	3	4	5
78	Different parts of the difficult tasks should be given to different people.	1	2	3	4	5
79	I have an action plan for solving the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
80	I take the unfinished tasks to home.	1	2	3	4	5
81	I try to create a moderate amount of conflict between my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
82	I imply my subordinates that their jobs are important; their failures are the unit's failure and will be returned to them.	1	2	3	4	5
83	I establish a one to one relationship with all of my subordinates and help them.	1	2	3	4	5
84	I encourage my subordinates to come together and try to solve the problems of my unit.	1	2	3	4	5
85	My subordinates can tell me everything without hesitation.	1	2	3	4	5
86	I set my subordinates free while they are doing their job and do not deal with them until they finish their job because result is important for me.	1	2	3	4	5
87	I take advices of my superiors about which task to delegate and whom to delegate to.	1	2	3	4	5
88	I try to solve all problems without taking any help from others.	1	2	3	4	5
89	I try to make the meetings in my room.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
90	I know how to create conflict between people.	1	2	3	4	5
91	I give regular feedback to my subordinates individually about their performances.	1	2	3	4	5
92	I want my subordinates to set their goals themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
93	I try to train the teams on each possible occasion.	1	2	3	4	5
94	I get informed about the events occurred in my unit without any investigation.	1	2	3	4	5
95	I give strict orders and want them to follow these orders, to get the best result.	1	2	3	4	5
96	When a problem appears, I gather my subordinates together and pay attention to the ideas of the majority.	1	2	3	4	5
97	I do not hesitate making changes and facing with new things.	1	2	3	4	5
98	Each conflict has a winner; I can never make both sides get benefit out of a conflict	1	2	3	4	5
99	I do not give tasks to my subordinates harder than they can perform.	1	2	3	4	5
100	I provide my subordinates suggestions not only about their work performance but also their personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
101	I establish direct eye contact with the other party when he/she is speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
102	I send the formal writings that have a fixed time close to the stated time.	1	2	3	4	5
103	I always leave work right on time.	1	2	3	4	5
104	Rules are always important; I never break the rules while solving a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
105	I only assign the tasks to my subordinates. The rest is their job. The complexity of the tasks makes no difference.	1	2	3	4	5
106	I usually listen each party's statements and try to resolve the conflict with them.	1	2	3	4	5
107	I try to motivate my subordinates whatever their task is.	1	2	3	4	5
108	I try to see and solve the problems of my subordinates together with them.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
109	I usually do not spend much time to written communication instruments.	1	2	3	4	5
110	I provide available sources to my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
111	I want to delegate to my subordinates but they do not accept.	1	2	3	4	5
112	I clearly state to my subordinates the aim of solving the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
113	I always delegate to my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
114	I make action plans for each party and control them whether they follow the plans or not.	1	2	3	4	5
115	I give help to my subordinates whenever they need it.	1	2	3	4	5
116	I make detailed preparation before meeting with my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
117	I try not to interrupt while the other party is speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
118	My subordinates should find the sources about their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
119	I want to delegate to my subordinates but when I delegate to, they either mix everything or take the possession of the success.	1	2	3	4	5
120	I never ask for the ideas of my subordinates when solving problem.	1	2	3	4	5
121	I establish guidelines to coordinate activities between people.	1	2	3	4	5
122	To ensure an important task is done, I give orders to more than one people without letting them know each other.	1	2	3	4	5
123	I try to be a good model for my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
124	I encourage competition rather than cooperation because competition yields good results.	1	2	3	4	5
125	I do not always give orders to my immediate subordinates to have the tasks finished earlier.	1	2	3	4	5
126	I hardly provide any help for my subordinates; they should individually perform their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5

		Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
127	I want to delegate to my subordinates but I need to tell them what to do and how to behave when I delegate to.	1	2	3	4	5
128	I try to create the least stressful environment for my subordinates to make them work efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
129	I encourage informal relationships to provide coordination.	1	2	3	4	5
130	I behave the same way to everyone when trying to motivate my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
131	I never give harder tasks to my subordinates than they can perform.	1	2	3	4	5
132	I try to establish a trusting environment for the team members.	1	2	3	4	5
133	I exactly transmit everything that my subordinates wanted me to transmit to my supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
134	I give support and feedback to my subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
135	I delegate to plan and coordinate important activities.	1	2	3	4	5
136	I make plans and stick to them.	1	2	3	4	5
137	I break all tasks to smaller tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
138	I try to find out my subordinates individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5
139	I give detailed feedback to my subordinates about their performance.	1	2	3	4	5
140	I set and clarify the goals of the team and do not deal with the unless they ask for help.	1	2	3	4	5
141	I do not tell anything about the problems in my unit to my supervisors, even if I need to tell I do not tell many things.	1	2	3	4	5
142	I believe in my subordinates and trust them do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
143	I decide how much to delegate according to my subordinates skills.	1	2	3	4	5

PART FOUR

1. Have you ever taken any training on the following subjects?

	YES	NO
1. Stress Management		
2. Conflict Management		
3. Motivating		
4. Coaching and counseling		
5. Team Building		
6. Organizing / Coordinating		
7. Communication		
8. Problem Solving		
9. Empowering / Delegating		

2 Do you agree with taking training on the following subjects would be beneficial for you?

	Certainly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Indecisive	Somewhat Agree	Certainly Agree
1. Stress Management	1	2	3	4	5
2. Conflict Management	1	2	3	4	5
3. Motivating	1	2	3	4	5
4. Coaching and counseling	1	2	3	4	5
5. Team Building	1	2	3	4	5
6. Organizing / Coordinating	1	2	3	4	5
7. Communication	1	2	3	4	5
8. Problem Solving	1	2	3	4	5
9. Empowering / Delegating	1	2	3	4	5

3 If you had a chance to take training on the following subjects, which would you prefer more? Please specify the priorities that you give the subjects. (1 most wanted / least wanted)

	Subjects \ Priorities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Stress Management									
2.	Conflict Management									
3.	Motivating									
4.	Coaching and counseling									
5.	Team Building									
6.	Organizing / Coordinating									
7.	Communication									
8.	Problem Solving									
9.	Empowering / Delegating									