Job Training Satisfaction: Exploring the Role of Attitudes and Expectations in the Saudi Context

Motheeb Mohammad Albogami
Master in Islamic Foundations of Education and Comparison, Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia

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Faculty of Education
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Abstract

Lifelong learning has become a demand of the work market, as a result it is necessary to optimize the outcomes of job training. Measuring training effectiveness has been shown as a crucial element in human resource research. One of the main components of training evaluation is trainees’ satisfaction – their perceived happiness with the training delivered. In fact, trainees’ satisfaction could be influenced by some aspects such as attitudes and expectations. Attitudes toward work and self-characteristics influence a trainee’s ability to learn and develop and so do expectations of job training. More understanding about these effects from trainees’ perspectives will enhance training literature and help training providers and organisations to develop job training.

A sequential mixed-methods case study research, combining quantitative and qualitative data, was conducted. The influence of trainees’ attitudes toward job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, and learning motivation was investigated, along with trainees’ expectations of job training, on their satisfaction with job training. The case of this study was investigating employees from one religious public organisation in Saudi Arabia. Trainees were nominated to attend a foundational course in an external training provider, which was the training department in Umm Al-Qura University. From 150 trainees in this course 118 participants completed the survey and twelve participants were interviewed. Trainees’ attitudes toward job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, their expectations and training satisfaction were investigated to explain how these attitudes and expectations influence job training and explore if there are any factors that mediate these relationships.

The findings of this study were constant with the previous literature and proved the influence of the selected attitudes and expectations on trainees’ satisfaction. Some demographical factors such as age and experience played a noticeable part. Specifically, the
age factor plays a role in self-efficacy and experience plays a role in learning motivation. It has also been found that some cultural considerations can explain and mediate the relationship between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and their satisfaction with job training. The cultural considerations can be classified into five dimensions, namely: religious dimension; social dimension; employment dimension; educational dimension and economic dimension. The religious dimension concerns some issues such as the religious motivations for seeking knowledge and participation in the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice. The social dimension highlights the nature of social bonds and affiliations in the Saudi society. The employment dimension focus on the attitudes about types of work and the nature of work in Saudi Arabia. Educational dimension concerns a description of the educational system and attitudes toward some specialisations. Finally yet importantly, the economic dimension focus on the issues related to the economic status of Saudi society.

The current study thus designed a cultural model which can be used to explain the relationships found. Although the five cultural dimensions have roles to play in mediating the relationships between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and job training satisfaction, the social dimension appeared to have the significant role. This is to say that the social connections, social affiliations, social commitment and responsibilities significantly influence all selected attitudes and expectations and in turn job training satisfaction. The demographical factors also have shown some differences among the study’s variables, such as the influence of age in self-efficacy and the influence of work experience in learning motivation. These differences were discussed and explained in the light of the cultural model suggested by this study.

Further in depth research about each cultural dimension may enrich job training effectiveness, especially in the public sector. Additionally, studying learning interactions while training could be important to facilitate training effectiveness and ensure training
satisfaction. In spite of this study’s limitations, it has been possible to provide a broad understanding about the case of this study, draw some conclusions, and suggest further research.

**Keywords:** job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, trainees’ expectations, training satisfaction, job training.
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List of abbreviations used in the thesis

**PBUH**: Islamic phrase specifically used to show respect for prophet Mohammad, stands for peace be upon him

**HRDF**: Human Resource Development Fund

**GOTEVT**: General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training
Glossary

**Expatriates**: non-Saudi workers

**Expectations**: refers to what trainees expected of training in regard to three aspects – trainer, content, and training environment.

**Hajj**: is the fifth pillar of Islam, which is performing the pilgrimage ritual to the Holy places in Makkah in a specific time every year.

**Job training**: refers to the training an employee receives in the work environment. Job training focuses on knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to the work to help employees perform their job productively.

**Majlis Al-Shura**: a legislative board similar to Consultative Council in other countries. It is in charge of advising the king on the country’s important issues. Majlis Al-Shura comprises 150 members who are assigned to the board according to their influence and experience.

**Private Sector**: refers to the organisations that are owned and funded by private individuals or associations.

**Public Sector**: refers to the organisations that are owned and funded by the government

**Saudization**: a government policy adopted since 1995 to localise the work force by replacing expatriate workers with nationals.

**Saudi context**: in this study the context is the training department in Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia. This department is providing training to employees from the public sector in topics related to their work to enhance employees’ knowledge, equip them with required skills, and enhance their productivity.

**Sharia**: the Islamic law that is supported by the Holy Book (Qur’an) and the teachings of the prophet Mohammad (PBUH) in all life aspects.
**The General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice:** a government organisation established to carry out the principle of the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice.

**The Higher Institute for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice:** an academic faculty in Umm Al-Qura University that focuses on academic studies and training related to the concept of the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice.

**The Ninth Development Plan:** is the latest available Saudi strategic plan (2010 - 2014). There are five-year plans made by the ministry of planning which start from 1970 and cover all basic needs for the citizens and the country.

**The preparation course for the new committee member:** nine week job training course aimed to prepare and qualify new employees in the committee of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice to optimise performance in their duty.

**The Training Department:** the department that is conducting training on topics related to the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice and other topics under the Higher Institute for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University.

**Trainees’ attitudes:** refers to what employees feel in regard to two aspects. Firstly, organisational attitudes, that means a commitment to the job and the support received from the work, either from the administration or from peers. Secondly, individual attitudes, meaning in this study what trainees feel about themselves in regard to self-efficacy and learning motivation.
Chapter One: Introduction

Globally, effective job training is crucial and trainees’ satisfaction may vary in diverse situations, depending on multiple factors. For instance, there are organisational factors, individual factors, and training provider related factors that all effect the outcomes of training and trainees’ satisfaction. Specifically, job training in the public sector is in urgent need of more investigation. This is because the public sector can be described less productive however improving its quality is a controversial issue among interested scholars. Additionally, the public sector has its unique circumstances that differ from country to country and from one organisation to another. Measuring trainees’ satisfaction of job training in the public sector could help in improving job training and the quality of public sector productivity. More specifically, undertaking a case study in a specific public sector organisation would not only benefit this organisation but also may introduce insightful ideas about improving job training in other organisations the public sector.

There is a lack of training research in Saudi Arabia and so the importance of this study is enhanced. Previous research about job training has described the relationships between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and job training satisfaction. This study goes further to assess trainees’ attitudes toward job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, and learning motivation and how they affect trainees’ expectations of job training. The aim of this study is to investigate the influence of these attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction to help in providing constructive and beneficial training. Although previous studies have been conducted in different contexts and situations, investigating these relationships in the Saudi context in a specific case may enrich the training literature with informative and critical study.
Knowing all of this underlines the need for undertaking a case study investigation that targets the relationships between trainees’ attitudes and expectations, and job training satisfaction in a specific organisation in the Saudi context. There may also be cultural effects that may influence these relationships which will also be investigated.

**Purpose and Rationale**

The purpose of this study is to better understand job training effectiveness and what may improve job training through investigating the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on their job training satisfaction. The attitudes targeted in this study include two types, organisational and individual attitudes. The organisational attitudes investigated in this study were 1) job commitment and 2) work support. Individual attitudes were 3) self-efficacy and 4) learning motivation. Beside these four constructs, the fifth construct is trainees’ expectations, which concerns what trainees were expecting from a course in terms of the trainer, the content, and training environment. Job training satisfaction is the sixth construct of this study. In addition to investigating the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction, it is also one of the purposes of this study to address the interactions among these constructs from the trainees’ perspectives and explore what drives these constructs.

This study was conducted in an academic training department from a public university in Saudi Arabia (Umm Al-Qura University) and the trainees are civil servants from a public organisation (The General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice). The training department in Umm Al-Qura University is striving to develop offered courses, achieve the training goals, and meet employers’ and employees’ expectations. Training effectiveness should be explored from a broad perspective to shed light into embedded areas of established practice. This may influence training outcomes to have broader visions and better understanding. Trainees’ attitudes have crucial roles to play in training effectiveness
and reaction about the course and hence these attitudes can be related to the organisation’s behaviours such as job commitment and work support. Furthermore, issues related to the trainee’s characteristics could influence training outcomes (Cheng & Ho, 2001; Ehrhardt, Miller, Freeman & Hom, 2011; Malik, Ghafoor, Ashar & Arooje, 2013; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008). Trainees’ expectations also were found to have an impact on trainees’ satisfaction with the course (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010; Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1991).

Trainees’ satisfaction is an essential element in evaluating training. I was thus led to the idea of studying the case of the training department in Umm Al-Qura University to explore these constructs by studying trainees’ satisfaction and investigating the influence of trainees’ attitudes (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, and learning motivation) and their expectations about the course offered.

The Statement of the Problem

In the Arab and Saudi context, job training has been insufficiently assessed due to an under-emphasis on critical processes such as, but not limited to, training needs assessment (Jehanzeb, Rasheed & Rasheed, 2013; Shafloot, 2012), training evaluation (Almannie, 2015; Al-hosni, Hoque, Idris & Othman, 2013), training design (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014), and systematic approach of training (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Jehanzeb et al., 2013). The lack of empirical research on training in the Arab context is a barrier that affects the development of effective job training (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Albahussain, 2000; Alzalabani, 2002). Moreover, the government assigned Umm Al-Qura University to train employees of The General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in skills related to their job after identifying inefficiencies in employees’ performance and to lessen tensions with the public in performing their duty. However, this case is typical because the nature of the course is similar to other public job training in its contents and methods. The chosen training department has
conducted training for the committee’s employees for years, however the level of satisfaction with this training and its perceived effectiveness remains unclear. Therefore, this study investigated the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations of their training to better understand how these might influence training satisfaction.

**Research Questions**

This sequential explanatory mixed-methods case study was conducted to explore and explain the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction in the training department of Umm Al-Qura University. Three questions guided this study:

1- What is the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction?

2- What mediates the relationship between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and job training satisfaction?

3- How do these mediators drive trainees’ attitudes and expectations in their job training?

**Significance of the Study**

This study is significant because it contributes to the extant knowledge base while also advancing social change. In relation to improving practice in the field, this study may encourage organisations and training providers to pay more attention to cultural aspects that influence trainees’ attitudes and expectations in order to foster training satisfaction. For example, in this study, the aim was to examine trainees’ individual satisfaction and perspectives about their work, as well as their expectations about what the training course could do for them. The study provided trainees’ perspectives in depth regarding attitudes and expectations. Both training providers and trainees’ organisations can benefit from the findings of this study as it highlights features that trainees would like to have in job training.
Meeting these expectations in the future may ensure more satisfaction and success for job training.

This study aimed to explore and interpret relationships among trainees’ attitudes, expectations, and satisfaction. Taking these relationships into account may help training providers and trainees’ organisations to facilitate valuable training. For instance, the relationship between work support and training satisfaction was proved in this study, and because of this, it was clear that paying more effort to increasing support for trainees from both management and work colleagues that would raise the benefits of job training. The same result may occur with every construct in this study found to have a connection to job training satisfaction.

The study may provide a better understanding of the systematics of training due to the combination of all the effective constructs that play a role in training outcomes. Organisations may benefit from this study as it will show the impact of workplace commitment and support in giving satisfying results. Training providers could find it useful for improving their performance and meeting the beneficiaries’ needs and expectations. Additionally, this study may lead to some further topics for study.

In relation to possible effective social change, the current study may help to maximise the benefits of cultural effects in related to work development and job training in particular. The influence of religion, social factors, culture of employment, education, and economic concerns may positively and/or negatively affect attitudes and expectations about job training. Knowing the positive influences (such as religious values) that urge trainees to seek knowledge and to be dedicated to work and society, may improve job training outcomes. On the other hand, understanding the negative influences (such as favouritism) may help in
reducing these effects on job training outcomes by raising awareness and imposing legislations to stop these violations.

In regard to advances in knowledge, trainers and researchers may benefit from the results of the current study. For instance, training designers and trainers will be aware of the influence of some demographic variables, such as age and experience, which might influence on self-efficacy and learning motivation. With this awareness, trainer and training designer can make the right decisions about the way training should be conducted. In addition, researchers may build on this study to obtain more understanding about job training and use the limits of this study to establish new studies. For example, this study is limited in terms of the type of work and the type of training; therefore different types of work and training may require more investigation.

**Contribution to the Field**

This study contributes to the field of training because it was conducted in a context which lacks empirical research in training which will be discussed broadly in chapter two. This study also investigates constructs that are a valuable addition to the literature. Accordingly, this combination provides new insights into training and may encourage additional research in the context of Saudi Arabia. Also, implementing mixed methods research was useful in providing new knowledge and helped to broaden the scope to the case.

This study provides a model that offers explanations of how trainees’ attitudes and expectations influence job training satisfaction and the role of cultural dimensions in mediating these relationships. This model would draw the researchers’ attention toward investigating these dimensions in depth to enhance job training quality.
Need for the study

Training has become an essential requirement in human resources development and the high demand for training has resulted in an urgent need to investigate related issues (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Albahussain, 2000; Gallagher & Anderson, 2006). One of those crucial issues is the effectiveness of training, as organisations allocate a large part of their budget to training (Harris, Wonjoon, Frye & Chiaburu, 2014) and this investment should be justified. Therefore, it is very important to measure training effectiveness, and one of the criteria that indicates the level of effectiveness is trainees’ satisfaction. Thus, investigating training satisfaction can give important feedback to the service provider and provides information on the usefulness of the service as well.

Additionally, this study, as a typical case of job training in Saudi Arabia, is important because there is a lack of empirical training research conducted in Saudi Arabia (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Albahussain, 2000; Alzalabani, 2002). The case in this study is typical of training courses throughout Saudi Arabia in regard to job training in the public sector. However, in regard to the specific content and target employees it is unique, due to the special aim of this kind of training. Nevertheless, the findings will benefit other institutions that provide training in Saudi Arabia, especially in the public sector.

Design and Scope

This study is a sequential explanatory mixed-methods case study that focused on one particular training department at a specific Saudi University – Umm Al-Qura University. The data collected in this study included quantitative data collection and analysis followed by qualitative data collection and analysis. The quantitative data measured trainees’ attitudes toward job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, expectations, and training satisfaction. The qualitative data provided elaboration of the quantitative data.
Limitations

This sequential explanatory mixed methods case study is limited because it was conducted in a particular context which is the Saudi context. More specifically, the type of training here is job training in the public sector in a specific unique organisation. The training also was provided from outside the General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice which is an independent organisation and the training department in Umm Al-Qura University is an independent academic training institution. Second, the focus in this study is on the interactions among trainees’ attitudes, expectations, and training satisfaction. Therefore other factors, such as trainers’ competency, training design, or trainees’ needs assessment were not investigated. Third, this study is limited in its data as it was designed to collect data from two particular sources, which are the survey and semi-structured interviews and did not include other forms of data collection.

Organisation of the Study

This study is organised into eight chapters. Chapter One is an introduction chapter provides the reader with a brief insight of the purpose of the study, the research questions, design, and limitations. Chapter Two is the first literature review which concerns the Saudi context. It provides a description of the workforce in Saudi Arabia and the two different sectors, an overview of workforce issues such as unemployment, the structure of education, and a brief revision of studies concerning training in the Arab World in general and Saudi Arabia specifically. Chapter Three reviews the literature that focuses on issues related to training that are crucial to the study such as, training challenges, training quality and effectiveness, and systematic approaches of training; this is followed by the presentation of the conceptual framework guiding this study. Chapter Four is the methodology chapter that outlines the design, the methods for selecting the participants, data collection and analysis, ethical considerations, validity, and limitations. Then Chapter Five is the results chapter
which presents the quantitative data and analysis. Chapter Six presents the qualitative findings. Chapter Seven presents the discussion, followed by the conclusion in Chapter Eight that implicates findings in this study and discusses the future research.

**Summary**

This chapter has highlighted the purpose of the study and pinpointed the problem that suggests conducting this project which were the lack of training research in the Saudi context, the need to measure training satisfaction and to know the influencing factors, and exploring the effectiveness and quality of job training in a specific case in Saudi Arabia. Hence, light should be shed on the context of this study which is the Saudi context and the nature of the investigated organisation which is addressed in the following chapter.
Chapter Two: the Saudi Context

As stated in Chapter One the purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction in the case of a religious public organisation in Saudi Arabia. Due to the need to clarify the context of this study, this chapter describes the context of Saudi Arabia through the study’s five cultural dimensions; the religion, social status, employment, education, and economy. This is followed by a brief background of training in Saudi Arabia and the role of the higher education in training. This chapter also presents a background of the case by briefly describing the trainees’ organisation and clarifying some concepts and issues related to it. Lastly, the chapter concludes with an overview of the investigated training department and the training course. In order to give the reader more ideas about the investigated training course I concluded this chapter with a thorough description about the course.

Background

The organisation studied in this research is one of Saudi Arabia’s governmental training institutions. Saudi Arabia is an Arab World country located in the south west of Asia and occupying about 80% of the Arabian Peninsula. The nation is bordered by Jordan and Iraq to the north, Kuwait to the north east, the Arabian Gulf, Qatar, Bahrain, and the United Arab Emirates to the east, Oman to the south east, Yemen to the south, and the Red Sea to the west. It has a land area of 2,150,000 km² and a population of 20,408,362 people with 50.94% of the population male and 49.06 female from the latest statistics (The General Authority for Statistics in Saudi Arabia, 2018).

Saudi Arabia is monarchy and the Custodian of the two Holy Mosques¹, King Salman bin Abdul-Aziz al-Saud, is the ruler of the country. The Council of Ministers and the

¹This is a royal style title that many Islamic rulers for the region used to call themselves. The two holy mosques are (Almasjid Alharam) in Makkah city that includes the Kaaba (which Muslims face toward
Consultative Council (Majlis al-Shura) advise the king concerning ruling the government. Majlis al-Shoura comprise representatives of religion, society, and business. The country is made up of thirteen provinces and the capital city is Riyadh. Jeddah is a main commercial port in the west side and Dammam is the petroleum port on the eastern coastline. The cities Makkah and Al-Madinah are well known as the sites of the two holy Mosques (Almasjid Alharam and Almasjid Alnabawy). These two cities host the annual pilgrimage which receives millions of Muslims from all around the world every year (The Embassy of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 2018).

**Cultural Dimensions in the Saudi Society**

**Religion Dimension**

Islam is the only official religion in Saudi Arabia due to the nation’s unique position as the centre of the Islamic world and including the two Holy Mosques and other holy heritage places for Muslims. Religion plays a significant role in choices of people and life styles in Muslim countries in general and Saudi Arabia in particular (Kassim, 1993). The nature of interactions and behaviours is reflected in the values of Islam. This cultural dimension focused on describing the status of the religion in Saudi society, the influence of Islam in attitudes toward knowledge, Islam as the focus of unity in society, and the purpose of life in the Islamic perspective.

**Islam’s status in the Saudi society.**

It is not surprising that the Saudi society is a Muslim society by nature (Al-Romi, 2001; Albugamy, 2014). Being in the centre of the Islamic world and in a country that includes the most sacred places for Muslims, which are the two Holy Mosques in Makkah and Madinah, may explain the religious tendencies of the Saudi society. Moaddel and De

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in their prayers) and the second mosque is (Almasjid Alnabawy) the mosque of the prophet Mohammad (PBUH) in Al-Madinah city that includes his grave.
Jong (2013) described Saudis as highly religious and strongly committed to their Islamic beliefs and values. On top of that the Saudi government, since its beginning at 1932, decided to instil Islamic law (Sharia\(^2\)) throughout the country. Sharia is derived from Qur’an and Sunnah and is the constitution that rules the country. Therefore, Saudi society can be described as a religious society which values Islamic teachings and strives to follow its instructions. For example, it is common to see life activities stop for the five prayer times and to see people heading to pray in mosques that are located in every neighbourhood. Even in the shopping malls and workplaces there are prayer rooms for the same purpose. Moreover, it is the law to close shops in the time of prayer to let people perform the prayer in the mosque and respect the time of worship.

Another example is that weekdays and weekends in Saudi are influenced by Islam because Friday is the worship day for Muslims to perform the Friday prayer. As a result, Friday and Saturday are the weekend, unlike other countries. In addition, the Islamic calendar (called the Hijri calendar) is followed in Saudi. The Hijri calendar is a lunar calendar that consists of twelve months of either 29 or 30 days depending on the moon cycle, which is determined by the sight of the crescent moon. Hijri calendar started from 622 AD, the year that prophet Mohammad (PBUH) migrated from Makkah to Madinah to establish the Muslim community and spread Islam. In addition, Islamic events such as Ramadan (the month of fast which is one of the five pillars of Islam), Eid Alfitr, and Eid Aladhha (the two Islamic feasts) and Hajj (the pilgrimage to Makkah which is one of the five pillars of Islam) are timed by Hijri calendar. As a result, the Hijri calendar is officially followed across the country and public holidays are synchronised by it.

\(^{2}\) Sharia is the Islamic law derived from the Qur’an and the prophet Mohammad’s (PBUH) teachings
Furthermore, numerous families prefer to enrol their children in religious schools (Alwedinani, 2016) which are part of the governmental education system under the umbrella of the Ministry of Education. This type of education, which is called Tahfezul-Qur’an, mainly focuses on giving more attention to memorising the Qur’an over other curricula. In higher education, students can specialise in Islamic studies, which is available in most of the country’s universities. These Islamic faculties annually graduate thousands of national and international students, who come to Saudi Arabia to specialise in Islamic studies and then go back to their countries (Murphy, MacDonald, Antoine & Smolarski, 2016). As a result, many Muslims around the world follow the Saudi religious school and are influenced by them in their decisions on religion matters (Murphy et al., 2016). Accordingly, the influence of Islam on the Saudi society shapes Saudi life (personal life, social relations, education, economy, and business). The attitudes toward education, social life, and human responsibilities in Islam will be addressed next.

**Islam and encouragement for seeking knowledge.**

Since the beginning of Islam it was made clearly that Islam is the religion of knowledge for many reasons. For example, the first verse of Qur’an that was revealed to the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) was ordering him to read (Iqraa) (96:1). Even though the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) was not able to read because he was illiterate, the order by Allah was to “read by the name of Allah who is the creator for everything” (96:1). Another verse, “Oh Mohammad, ask them, are people who know and people who do not know, the same?” (39:9). As a result, seeking knowledge and lifting ignorance has been one of the high priorities in Islam since the beginning of the Islamic age.

Further, the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) encouraged his companions to learn in many of his speeches. For instance, once he said “whoever travels a path to seek knowledge,
Allah will open for him a way for heaven” (Sahih Muslim, hadith no 2966). He also encouraged his companions to obtain different useful knowledge such as literacy and languages. Third, the heritage of Islam includes numerous Muslim scientists. During the golden age of Islamic civilisation (8\textsuperscript{th} Century – 14\textsuperscript{th} Century CE), Muslims flourished in a variety of sciences, such as Algebra, medicine, astronomy, geography, and chemistry (W. Ahmad & Zulkifle, 2017). Therefore, seeking knowledge in Islam is a valuable feature. The attitudes about social life in Islam are addressed next.

**Islam and aspiration for united and interconnected society.**

Social relations are given a high value in Islam because of the interest in making a united and interconnected society. According to the Qur’an and Sunnah, there are directives on how to organise life for Muslims. For instance, it is common in the Qur’an and Sunnah to find the concept of brotherhood when describing the type of connection among Muslims. In the Holy Quran (9:10) “Muslims are only brothers so mend between your brothers”. The Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) said,

A Muslim is a brother of another Muslim, so he should not oppress him, nor should he hand him over to an oppressor. Whoever fulfilled the needs of his brother, Allah will fulfil his needs; whoever brought his (Muslim) brother out of a discomfort, Allah will bring him out of the discomforts of the Day of Resurrection, and whoever screened a Muslim, Allah will screen him on the Day of Resurrection.

(Albukhari, hadith no 2442)\(^4\)

One of the respected values in Islam is that Muslim societies should be united. Consequently, many practices in Islam inspire Muslim unity, such as the five prayers at Mosques, fasting at the same time, and celebrating the two feasts together. Islam encourages

\(^3\) one of the heritage Islamic textbook that collected the speech of the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH)

\(^4\) one of the heritage Islamic textbook that collected the speech of the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH)
communities to be connected as a sign of strength and caring about each other, especially in
taking care of those in need. More details about Saudi community social relations will be
presented in the social dimension.

**Islam and the human role in the evolving of the planet.**

It is understood from the teachings of Islam that the supreme purpose of creating the
human being on earth is worshiping Allah and constructing, evolving, conserving, and
developing the Earth. In the Holy Qur’an (11:61) “we sent to the people of Thamoud, their
brother Prophet Saleh, who said, oh my people worship Allah, you do not have a God except
him who created you from the earth and ask you to build and evolve it. Ask him for
forgiveness and turn back to him, he is so close and responsive”. Also in the Qur’an, when
Allah spoke to the angels about creating Adam, he said “I am putting in the earth someone as
a Khaleefah the person who is responsible of looking after something for someone” (2:30).
For this reason, the concept of Khaleefah in Islam, rather than its use for the ruler of the
country, means that human beings are responsible for the universe by doing the right things
and serving not only humanity, but nature as well.

One of the Islamic principles is saving the community of Muslims by showing
commitment to Islam through practicing the requirement of worship and reducing faults that
violating Islamic law, what is called in Islam the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice.
This concept hopes to safeguard the Muslim community from losing its Islamic identity, as
will be explained shortly. In the Qur’an, (3:110) it is also stated that, “You are the best nation
produced [as an example] for mankind. You enjoin what is right and forbid what is wrong
and believe in Allah.” The Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) also said, "Whoever amongst you
sees an evil, he must change it with his/her hand if he/she is authorised; if he/she is unable to
do so, then with his/her tongue; and if he/she is unable to do so, then with his/her heart; and
that is the weakest form of Faith."
Virtue then in Islam refers to what is known that one must do, such as declaring monotheism and the prophecy of his messenger Mohammad (PBUH), performing the five daily prayers, fasting the month of Ramadan, giving charity if applicable, and performing pilgrimage, the Hajj, if able. In Saudi Arabia and following Islamic teachings, individuals are encouraged to promote virtue.

On the other hand, vice refers to things that are strictly prohibited such as, dealing with magic, drinking alcohol, doing harm to others, and cheating. Individuals are encouraged where possible to stop others from things that are prohibited by giving advice or at least internal disapproval, as will be explained in detail shortly in this chapter. As Saudi Arabia is governed by Sharia, the government in 1940 established an organisation to promote virtue and prevent vice. This organisation covers the entirety of the country and is known as The Committee of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice. The number of its committee members totals approximately 4000 men (Robson, 1993).

Social Dimension.

After highlighting the interest that Islam takes in Saudi social life, it is interesting to shed light on the Saudi society in term of the relations that guide people’s behaviour and choices. One interesting feature of Saudi society is that it can be described as a homogeneous culture as Alanazi and Rodrigues (2003) claimed: “the Saudi society has a highly homogeneous culture, is tightly observant of Islamic teachings and values, and like most Eastern societies, has a collective culture” (p. 380). People influence each other and many try to avoid what makes them different, which gives social status a considerable role in people’s decisions-making options. In addition, social connections in the Saudi society, as in any of the region’s countries, take several levels such as family, extended family, the tribe, and the region. The nature of relations inside each layer will be addressed next.
Family.

What distinguishes the Saudi family from family in the other Muslim societies is that it takes its status from Islamic background and culture. For instance, Islam is promoting building families under the only right way, which is marriage. To understand the Islamic view on marital life, the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) said “Oh young men, whoever among you can afford to get married let him do so, for it is more effective in lowering the gaze and guarding one's chastity” (Sunan an-Nasa'i, hadith no 2242). It is also preferable to have babies as much as parents can afford. Therefore, it is common for young men from 20-30 to start their marital life once they get proper jobs or sometimes during the university period if they wish and can afford marriage. It is also noticeable that the age of marriage is currently getting higher as some delay their marriage after thirty years old. This is a result of financial issues such as a rise in expenses and unemployment, and a change in youth’s attitudes toward the right age for marriage. However, delaying the age of marriage in a strict society causes some “delinquent behavior” and depression (Sallam, 2013)

In Islamic culture, the family is supported by duties and rights between spouses which are derived from Islamic principles and sometimes from the local culture. For example, in Saudi society, the men have to pay a marriage dowry to the woman before the wedding. Paying dowry is an Islamic order and not particular to Saudi culture. Also, after the wedding the husband is the one who is obligated for sustenance. Even if the wife has a job or is wealthy, the husband still has to pay for expenses for the whole family. Therefore, some female Saudis may prefer not to work to give more attention to looking after the children. It is also common in Saudi society for the small and new families to live with or close to their parents if possible, which leads us to talk about the extended family next.

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5 One of the heritage Islamic textbook that collected the speech of the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH)
**Extended family.**

It is common in Saudi for old people to live with their children. This practice comes from the Islamic background as it is highly recommended to take care of parents after getting older. Taking care of parents is a high value in the society (Albugamy, 2014). In some cases, parents ask their sons after getting married to live with them in the same house; those people who have big houses may give them a separate apartment in the same house. Parents do this to ease life expenses on their married sons and it shows the unity and strength of the family unit (Albugamy, 2014). As a consequence, it is common in Saudi to find two or three brothers with their wives and children living with their parents.

Although living in an extended family seems convenient for some, it has some disadvantages because the influence of the family in Saudi society sometimes extends to effect the individual in choosing the wife, university specialisation, or job (Al-Romi, 2001; Al-Shammari, 2009). As an example, the social duties can become heavy as living with parents requires attention to their social events and support in finance issues for the extended family. Some marriages may face crises and end with divorce due to interference from parents that is a result of close long-term interactions (Al-Zamil, Hejjazi, Alshargawi, Al-Meshaal, & Soliman, 2016). Not only the extended family require duties but also there are other responsibilities such as tribal affiliations, which will be addressed next.

**Tribe.**

As the family is considered the first unit of the tribal system, Arab culture gives the tribe a high value. Since before Islam people lived in communities of kinship and used the tribe name to identify themselves (Kassim, 1993). Tribal affiliations are still valued in Saudi as a sign of showing their history (Aldossry & Varul, 2016). Before the Saudi government was established people lived in tribes because of the need for security and protection.
Although security and protection are less an issue currently, tribes still have their status in the Saudi society (Kassim, 1993).

Being part of a tribal community requires attending to social events and financial obligation if able. For example, sometimes the tribe members need to pay for someone from their tribe who is facing a financial crisis. Additionally, the tribe needs to pay the ransom if one of the tribe members has caused the death of someone. In addition to the financial and physical obligations, tribal affiliations sometimes cause some discriminations, clashes, and conflicts among tribes against the instructions of Islam that support the Islamic bonds regardless of differences. However, many people feel proud of their tribes and choose to live and work near to their relatives. Not all Saudis belong to a specific tribe or at least some prefer not to have a tribal name or affiliations. Nevertheless, they belong to a particular region from the country, and will have affiliations with that place.

Region.

Due to the size of Saudi Arabia there are some cultural differences among regions such as Hijaz (the western part of the country), Najd (the central area), Janoob (the Southern west area), and Al-Qassim (the north of the central area). Moreover, not all Saudis descend from known tribes as some may classify Saudis into tribal and non-tribal communities, rural people and urbanised city dwellers, nomads (Badu), semi-nomads and the settled (Hadr) (Alsarhani, 2005). However, it is common for people who share the same geographical area to share the same traditions and accent. Therefore, people’s affiliations to their region foster social bonds. As a result of these affiliations, favouritism based on origin can occur in the workplace.

Effects of the multi-social layers of Saudi society

The literature emphasises the influence of culture on individuals’ behaviours and choices (Alhamoudi, 2010). Understanding the influence of social affiliations in Saudi
society is crucial in explaining phenomena related to work behaviours. There are two effects of social status in Saudi Arabia that can be noticed in workplace practices; the preference of public sector and the contradiction between job interests and social obligations. First, as a result of the strong commitment to the family, extended family, the tribe, and the region, Saudi employees prefer public sector jobs because they have fewer demands along with the convenience of being located close to family. Some argue that Saudis choose jobs based on the social status of the job (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010). Social status in the Saudi society is determined by three factors: the type of the job, the sector of employment, and to what extent the job has an influence and interactions with the society (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010).

First, the type of the job is vital because there is a negative attitude toward some manual labour and blue collar occupations (Achoui, 2009; Idris, 2007). Due to social influence, job seekers may avoid many opportunities while waiting for the desired job that will honour the family and the tribe (Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1989). Second, there is the distinction between the private and public sector, as the tendency is for preferring the public sector because of certain advantages that will be addressed shortly. Finally, people prefer a position that involves effective social interactions. For example, the position that gives interchanged relations with others is highly preferred because there is chance for an employee to serve the relatives. In this way, prioritising relatives in job opportunities, promotion, and training chances sometimes occurs due to the effect of social relations. Consequently, individuals in positions where they can serve the tribe are highly respected across the tribe and serve as role models for the tribe’s young members (Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1989). Moreover, Ali and Al-Shakhis (1989) asserted that due to the reciprocal relationship between tribe status and an individual’s status, individuals may choose high status jobs to honour the family and tribe’s reputation. For this reason, some criticised that Saudis are looking to be employed in
administrative positions, even when it is too early and they have little experience (Achoui, 2009; Idris, 2007).

The other effect of social status on work practice in the Saudi context is that an individual’s commitment to his or her job is sometimes compromised when social commitments arise (Albugamy, 2014; Kassim, 1993; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Consequently, favouritism and nepotism are practiced in organisations (Albugamy, 2014; Kassim, 1993). Nevertheless, Altassan (2017) claims that Arab employees are committed to their organisations due to the cultural influence. He stated: “The strong associations between employees and organizational perceptions in the Arab region arguably relate to the Islamic social ethic that permeates all Arab decisions and actions, thus organizational goals must align to social goals” (p. 30). Thus, regardless of job commitment, it is noticeable that social relations have a strong commitment which in turn influences work behaviours and may cause unjust decisions, especially from the management level (Barnett, Yandle, & Naufal, 2013).

Work and Employment Dimension.

The culture of any society influences the work and its implications (Kassim, 1993). Therefore, one cultural dimension that influences Saudi society’s attitudes and choices is work and employment issues. Currently, and as introduced earlier about the influence of social status on work issues, Saudis’ attitudes toward work are shifting, especially in terms of their attitudes toward work and employment. The two types of employment, and the issues related to mobility in employment will be addressed in this section.

Shifting in attitude toward work.

In Saudi Arabian society, attitudes toward work have dramatically developed in the last few decades due to the rapid growth in the economy after the discovery of oil (Al-Shammari, 2009). Oil was discovered in Saudi Arabia in 1938. Before this discovery, Saudis typically worked in traditional types of employment, such as farming, fishing, or husbandry,
or they worked for themselves (Al-Shammari, 2009; Alogla, 1990). The discovery of oil made the country rapidly prosper economically and is currently the main driver of the economic system (Altassan, 2017). The formation of the country’s ministries, educational system, and services continue to develop to meet the economic needs of the country (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2013; Al-Shammari, 2009; Albugamy, 2014; Altassan, 2017).

As a result of the prosperity of the country, handcrafting and some physical jobs started to vanish because people relied on working as employees in the public or private sectors. Consequently, foreign workers took over the labour sector. Accordingly, negative attitudes toward manual jobs across the region have been raised, which in turn makes the majority look down on blue collar jobs, thus giving white collar employment higher status (Al-Asmari, 2008).

**Attitude toward employment.**

Saudis value being an employee, not only because of the salary but also because of the high social status (Achoui, 2009; Alghamedi, 2014; Ali & Al-Shakhis, 1989; Idris, 2007). This explains the increased trend in seeking employment rather than being self-employed. Some Saudis, even if they are in the upper-middle class and have other sources of income such as real estate and investments, prefer to get official jobs for two reasons. First is the social status for the employment as mentioned earlier. Second, there is a widespread notion that a job is a security from poverty. Saudis value being an employee because of the frustration experienced during unemployment, not only for the unemployed person but also for his/her family and relatives.
Types of employment.

As mentioned earlier, social status in Saudi society depends largely on the type of employment: private sector and public sector. Identifying the differences between the two sectors and Saudis’ attitudes toward each will be addressed next.

Attitudes toward public sector.

Public sector refers to organisations that are owned and operated, and rely financially, on the government. Examples of these organisations are the military sectors, health, education, and various other ministries. Not to mention that there are some private agencies for some of these sectors such as, private health organisations and private education. It is noticeable that Saudis prefer the public sector (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2013; Al-Shammari, 2009; Altassan, 2017; Harry, 2007; Hertog, 2012).

There are some reasons behind the tendency of preferring public sector employment. First, public sector organisations are distributed across the country which make it convenient to job seekers to find a job near their hometown as most Saudis prefer (Bosbait & Wilson, 2005). Second, working in the public sector may provide access to higher ranking positions, which is important to some people. For example, Al-Asfour and Khan (2013) claim that many Saudis desire middle to high levels of administrative position just after they enter the job, which is quite impossible in the private sector, but could be a possibility in the public sectors.

Third, the educational and training considerations are different between private and public sectors. In the public sector, the opportunity of completing education is much better due to the high cost of educational or training courses that private sectors tend to avoid. In addition, the public sector provides scholarships and job training courses from time to time (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2013). On the other hand, the private sector assumes that new employees
are well trained and highly skilled. For this reason, the private sector usually complains that Saudis are lacking required skills (Al-Asmari, 2008; Harry, 2007; Hertog, 2012). Harry (2007) asserts that most of Saudis’ qualifications are not adequate because there is a gap between the educational system’s outcomes and what the work force requires in terms of practical skills.

Policy and regulation considerations also make some issues that widen the gap between public and private sectors in regard to salaries, rights, and obligations (Hertog, 2012). Employees’ rights are not aligned between the two sectors, which makes the majority feel that the public sector is a much better workplace than the private sector because of job security (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2013). By job security they mean that it is easy for the private employer to fire employees, whereas employees feel safe in the public sector (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2013). With regard to the salary, the wages in the private sector are much lower compared with the public sector (Harry, 2007; Hertog, 2012). However, for the high skilled and qualified employees, the private sector sometimes pays higher salaries and has increased incentives (Hertog, 2012). It is worth noting that according to Hertog (2012), the private sector pays less because the expatriate employees are far cheaper than national employees. In addition to the wages, the work time is different between the two sectors as the public sector has longer holidays. In other words, the work hours and days in the public sector are less than private sector, which means employees in the public sector have more free time to spend with their families and other social activities than those who work in the private sector. This reason fosters the perception that public sector has more rewards and demands less in skills, efforts, and productivity (Hertog, 2012; Ramady, 2010).

**Attitudes toward private sector.**

Although Saudis mostly do not prefer the private sector due to the reasons mentioned earlier, the government is working on privatising some sectors gradually to lighten the burden
on the government budget. It is noticeable that graduates apply for jobs in the private sector as a temporary solution for the unemployment issue. Hence, leaving the private sector after one or two years in favour of the public sector is common for the sake of the advantages that the public sector provides. Social bonds that Saudis are proud of play a significant role in avoiding working for the private sector because family obligations – such as youth looking after their parents – make job seekers less mobile and they prefer to wait for an opportunity in the public sector that meets the desire of working near the family in the home town (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2013).

Employment localization and mobility.

As mentioned before, one of the reasons that the public sector is more attractive is that it can provide work near where the employee lives. By contrast the private sector jobs are usually located in the major cities, making things difficult for people from the rural areas, especially with the social commitments and duties mentioned earlier. When Saudis work in a different city many of them are still looking to transfer their job to their home town (Bosbait & Wilson, 2005). For example, thousands of new teachers every year are sent to rural towns and villages and once they start their jobs, they start applying for transfers to be at least close to their cities. As a result of the social commitments and affiliations it is hard to settle down in different regions for those new employees.

Bureaucracy in Saudi Arabia.

What distinguishes the workforce in Saudi Arabia, especially the public sector, is that it is centralised and bureaucratic since its formation after the discovery of oil (Alogla, 1990; Kassim, 1993). Alogla (1990) stated:

Discovery of oil brought with it three major factors that influenced the old occupational setting: settlement of nomadic people; growth of a complex
government bureaucracy; and creation of new private-sector organizations. These major shifts in occupational settings placed Saudi society on a new frontier (p. 32)

It is understandable that the creation of new workforce in such a developing country encouraged the use of a bureaucratic system. Hofstede (1984) claimed that the systems in Saudi Arabia are highly controlled, highly centralised, and bureaucratic. Additionally, Alhamoudi (2010) explained that:

This can be seen as a reflection of the high uncertainty avoidance identified as a part of Arab culture, meaning that managers are not willing to be involved in situations where outcomes are not clearly determined and which involve high risks. (p. 22)

Therefore, Hofstede (1984) asserted that the cultural effect in Saudi Arabia enhanced organisations which are centralised, strictly hierarchical and bureaucratic.

Relying on the bureaucratic system in the public sector brought some disadvantages such as low productivity, mismanagement, and corruption (Al-Awaji, 1971; Kassim, 1993). Kassim (1993) stated:

Once we move to very concrete examples of the use of bureaucracy, especially in a developing country such as Saudi Arabia, we find that in the public sector it is often associated in reality with inefficiency, mismanagement, the provision of poor service, and a low level of rationalization. Bureaucrats can be a very conservative force, resisting change, and reluctant to try new ways and ideas in order to improve productivity. (p. 3)

Furthermore, Al-Awaji (1971) explained:

The public bureaucracy in Saudi Arabia exists in a traditional society whose role conception is primarily particularistic, meaning that public servants have the
obligation to serve the interests of their special social units first. Consequently, favouritism and corruption have become not only commonplace in the daily activities of the bureaucracy, but also a socially accepted, and in some situations, a respected form of bureaucratic behaviour. (p. 23)

Thus, based on the cultural settings as mentioned in the social dimension and work regulations, phenomena such as favouritism found an appropriate environment to grow, spread and gain acceptance, which will explain some of the findings in this study.

**Educational Dimension**

As mentioned above, the Muslim society values the seeking and acquiring of knowledge because of its emphasis in Islam. In practice the picture may differ. In this dimension, Saudis’ attitudes to education, student preferences at universities, and education for employment will be addressed.

**Attitudes to education.**

The general and higher public education (but not private) in Saudi are free. In public education, there are religious schools that focus on memorising Qur’an, as mentioned earlier. As a religious community, there is an interest in religious education after school, as some families send their children and early teens to mosques at evening time – from 4 pm to 7 pm – to study Qur’an and some Islamic sciences.

**Attitudes about specialisation.**

After students finish the twelve years of general education, most of them go to university. Their choices for the university majors depend on their attitudes and family influences (Al-Shammari, 2009). For example, people who value religious education prefer to continue at one of the Islamic faculties to specialise in one of Islamic sciences. Some people prefer to enrol in majors that ensure a job at one of the public sectors they desire (Tsagala &
Kordaki, 2007). Also, it is noticeable that some may choose a major because it is the only choice in their local university, because they prefer not to travel to a remote city to pursue a specific major even if they like it.

**Education in Saudi Arabia.**

After addressing some attitudes about education in Saudi Arabia, it is important to shed light on the status of education in Saudi Arabia in its two sections, general and higher education. There are private and public schools in Saudi Arabia and both of them are under the supervision of the ministry of Education. Students go to primary school from the age of six for six years. Next, comes elementary school for three years, followed by secondary school for three years as well. According to the official website of the Ministry of Education 2018, a total of 6,412,128 people were enrolled, which equals more than a quarter of the country's population. This indicates the huge portion of young people in the country and reflects how much the government spends in the Educational field. Even though there are private and international schools, the vast majority, 5,835,501 students, are enrolled in public education, which is fully covered by the government and free for all even non-Saudi students.

The main goals of general education Saudi Arabia is to construct a coordinated understanding of Islam: implant the ideology of Islam; instil in students the qualities, lessons and standards of Islam; encourage students to get different information and abilities; support productive behaviour and practices; build up the society in aspects of economy, culture and societal advancement; and qualify the person as an useful individual for his/her general public (The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia, 2018)

These educational goals for general education in Saudi Arabia reflect Islamic character, balancing between the individual and society and between religion and science. However, Harry (2007) criticised all the Arabian gulf countries in their educational objectives
because these objectives concern developing the national identity for students whereas in other countries, the focus is on equipping young people with useful knowledge and skills to work toward the betterment of their own countries. Furthermore, Harry (2007) found that the educational system in the Arabian gulf countries produced a shortage of skilled workforce, resulting in a reliance on expatriates due to the system not developing in its citizens the relevant skills, knowledge, talents that fit the new job openings.

Higher education in Saudi Arabia.

The country has paid more attention in the last decade to the higher education sector. Before 2004 there were only eleven universities. Between 2004 and 2007, fourteen new universities have been established. These new universities required hiring staff and lecturers and gave opportunities to individuals holding higher degrees to work as lecturers after completing their post graduate studies, either nationally or internationally.

In the country’s Ninth Development Plan (2010-2014), the objectives for higher education included:

- Raising internal and external efficiency in order to meet the requirements of development;
- Optimum use of information and communications technology;
- Expansion and diversification of graduate programmes;
- Supporting and strengthening scientific research and furthering knowledge production;
- Putting into effect the principle of partnership with local communities; and
• Develop cooperation and coordination with scientific institutions at home and abroad in order to achieve development goals. (Ministry of Planning, 2010, pp. 40-41)

According to the latest statistics, 1.6 million students are enrolled in higher education in various disciplines (The General Authority for Statistics in Saudi Arabia, 2018). Sending students to study abroad is one of the government initiatives to enhance the employment market (Al-Shammari, 2009; Albugamy, 2014). The investment in human resource reduces the reliance on expatriate workers and oil industries.

**Challenges for higher education in Saudi Arabia.**

Flowing from the brief overview of higher education in Saudi Arabia I must discuss challenges facing this field. In The Ninth Development Plan (2010-2014), three challenges have been declared. First is the quality of Education. Regardless of the huge expansion of universities across the Kingdom, assuring the quality of education is the number one priority for decision makers in Saudi Arabia. New universities were necessitated because of the increase of population and the long distance between cities in the Kingdom. However, educational operations in these universities are challenged due to the lack of qualified lecturers, and poor infrastructures. For the old universities the challenge is to achieve a high rank in the global academic classification. Two Saudi universities have been ranked as the first and second-best universities among Arab universities (King Saud University and King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals) (Ministry of Planning, 2010).

The second challenge according the Ninth Development Plan is the quality absorptive of higher education. There is a high demand every year from secondary graduates on certain majors with higher perceived employability prospects after graduation. To ensure the quality in universities admission, The National Centre for Assessment in Higher Education has been established in 2000 which, according to The Ninth Development Plan, helped in designing
criteria for admission to universities. The aim was to manage the gap between the demand and supply for admission by utilising a modernised system for admission. However, the need of reviewing the system is urgent, as is the need for providing useful information to help students in selecting their majors from the available options (Ministry of Planning, 2010).

The third challenge is how to identify the shifting needs of the labour market. Due to the global tendency of studying humanities and poor desire in important majors, such as natural science and engineering (Ministry of Planning, 2010), higher education is required to give balance among disciplines, taking into account the continuously changing labour market demand to avoid increasing the unemployment rate in the country.

**Economic Dimension.**

The influence of economic status in society and individual is crucial. Saudi society is like other countries; even if there are rich people, it also includes poor people. Financial issues reflect on individual and social life and in turn on employment issues. This dimension will introduce Saudi society attitudes about income sources and address the poverty issue in the country.

**Variating the income sources.**

As mentioned earlier, Saudis tend to rely on employment as a main source of income. However, many Saudis prefer to vary their income sources. For instance, it is common to find people working part time in the evening time at jobs such as real estate, in car sales, agriculture, and the stock market. Varying the income sources may also affect the official job as individuals pay less attention to the official one especially if it is in the public sector. Moreover, employees with another business activity will be less readily available for duties such as remote training or after hours work-related tasks.
Poverty and living status for society.

The common belief about Saudis is that they are all rich due to the oil exportation that the country is heavily dependent on. In fact, this notion is incorrect as statistics indicate that around 10% of the nation is under the line of poverty (Sullivan, 2012). In addition, the government has started imposing the added value-tax on many products and services. The prices for electricity, houses gas, and fuel are rising and they are expected to reach the global level in the coming years after being significantly cheaper. Many employees, not to mention the unemployed, find it difficult to cover all their needs and their social duties due to the increase of prices and insufficient salary. This increase in prices may also explain the above-mentioned increase in marriage age.

Unemployment in Saudi Arabia.

Like other countries in the region, Saudi Arabia is facing the problem of unemployment (Albugamy, 2014). Unemployed people in Saudi, according to the official statistics in the last quarter of 2017, were 773,218 people, with 347,417 male and 425,801 female – 44.9% male and 55.1% female (General Authority Statistics). Unemployed people vary in their qualification level, but the biggest group is 392,505 citizens with bachelor degrees. The next biggest group was people with a secondary certificate, totalling 239,229 citizens. The smallest group is the 484 illiterate who have no qualification and cannot read and write; at the other end of the scale were 542 citizens with PhD degrees.

According to General Authority Statistics, the most frequent major among graduates is Humanities and Arts with 28.4% of the unemployed Saudis. Humanities comprises: religious studies, Arabic language studies, Foreign languages, History, Philosophy, and Morals. While, Arts comprises: Fine arts, Applied arts, Music, Acting, Graphic arts, Audio and visual arts, Artistic design, and Handicrafts. This result comes from the massive tendency
to do these majors regardless of the work force demands as discussed above. The smallest percentage of unemployed people were the major of agricultural and veterinary with 0.1%.

*Privatisation as a solution for unemployment.*

After realising the rising number of unemployment, the intention of the government is to privatise some public sectors gradually. Some services that were under public sector have been privatised already such as: Saudi Electricity company, Saudi Arabian Airlines, and the telecommunication sector. According to Alhogail (2017), these sectors have shown a significant improvement after privatisation. However, there are still some obstacles that need to be solved as Alhogail (2017) states:

The main obstacles for these companies as earlier highlighted are unemployment concerns, reduction or elimination of government subsidies, rigid payment processes and frameworks of regulations that are still being reviewed, all of which are indicative of a major lag in structural reforms necessary and which should have preceded the privatization campaigns (p. 74)

Alhogail (2017) asserts that unemployment is the first obstacle in privatisation due to Saudis avoiding the private sector for the reasons discussed above (see Job preferences for Saudis section). This supports the importance of effective training that can change attitudes and equip employees with the skills required in the work force in Saudi Arabia.

*Saudization as a solution for unemployment.*

In 2011, the government introduced a new policy called Netaqat that aims to bring the private sector in line with the public sector by minimising the gap between them in privileges to attract Saudis to the private sector, reducing the percentage of non-Saudi workers, and lowering the rate of unemployment. Therefore, government took progressive steps to force private sectors to employ Saudis and reduce the number of non-Saudi workers gradually. The
Ninth Development Plan emphasised that to enhance Saudization, training for Saudi workers to match the needs for the labour market is considered the main challenge (Ministry of Planning, 2010).

Another challenge confronting Saudization is that the productivity of Saudi manpower is still low according to various studies (Ministry of Planning, 2010). The Ninth Development Plan stated that “compared with the labour productivity in the 26 nations of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, productivity of the Saudi worker ranked towards the bottom, just before Mexico, Poland and Turkey” (Ministry of Planning, 2010, p. 175). Therefore, qualifying Saudi manpower and improving productivity requires continuous training that offers knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Objectives of development strategy were built upon this conclusion, insisting this need for training and knowledge acquisition, as the Ninth Development Plan stated:

- Raising the skill level of Saudi manpower scientifically and practically to meet requirements of the transition to a knowledge society
- Improving productivity of Saudi workers to increase their ability to compete in the labour market.
- Achieving relative balance in the structure of wages and employment in the labour market.
- Increasing labour force participation rates and supporting economic empowerment of Saudi women.
- Controlling and rationalizing recruitment of expatriate labour so as to reduce Saudi unemployment.
- Improving and expanding labour market services to meet requirements of globalization and enhance Gulf integration opportunities. (Ministry of Planning, 2010, pp. 177-178)
The Ninth Development Plan expected steady growth in national and expatriate employment until 2024. Conversely, the unemployment rate will gradually decrease until then. Saudization rate will gradually increase to reach 56.7% by 2024. In addition, according to the same plan the expected number of people in the national work force will be 7,895,200 by 2024. These numbers are promising and proving the government intention to solve the employment issue for the good of citizens’ interests. But one of the problems facing applying these plans is the lack of work skills that are required to compete with the foreign labour force (Altassan, 2017). Even after these initiatives from the government 30% of people who work in the private sector will leave within three months to find jobs in government sector military or education (Altassan, 2017; Fakeeh, 2009).

According to a study on people who left their jobs, done by the General Authority for Statistics, 28.5% of them left because their salary was low; 21.8 % left because they were discharged by the employer. This study also contradicted the notion that Saudis prefer working in offices and avoid tough conditions as only 7.5% left their jobs because of “Work requires physical and mental fitness”. Moreover, only 1.7% left their job because they had two daily working shifts which is widely not preferable. By contrast, more than half of them left their jobs because the employer gave low wages or discharged them from the work. Employers’ reasons for firing employees were not mentioned and could be due to the deficiency of work skills or productivity or anything else. In addition, social conditions were significant too and caused losing jobs for 12.9% of unemployed. This needs more investigation because it implies negative attitudes toward some job conditions or negative attitudes about the private sector. Nevertheless, training could be a viable solution for these two reasons.

Although the obstacles facing the government initiatives, the government insists on its plan about privatisation and enhancing the private sector to recruit Saudis, especially after the
drop of oil price in 2014 that halved in four months (Altassan, 2017). To resolve the unemployment issue, providing high quality training and education is one of the main solutions. Therefore, the Ninth Development Plan states:

With the projected economic growth rates, implementation of the policies designed to increase investment by the private sector and diversify its activities, implementation of educational and training policies aimed at improving skills as a basic factor of human development, and giving priority in employment to the national labour force, it is envisaged that 1.22 million job opportunities would be provided under the Ninth Plan. Of these, the share of Saudi labour is projected to be about 1.12 million jobs; about 91.8% of total job opportunities, while expatriate labour would take about 100.8 thousand jobs, i.e. 8.2% of the total (Ministry of Planning, 2010, p. 80).

It is clear that the government is supporting the plans for the human resource development when we see the allocated budget and plans to spend in human resource activities all across the country. The Ninth Development Plan stated:

The Ninth Development Plan aims to expend about SR731.5 billion on human resources development, including education, science and technology, and training. Thus, the amounts allocated to this sector in the Ninth Plan exceed those allocated under the Eighth Development Plan by 52.4%, and account for about 50.6% of total allocations for development sectors, which reflects the exceptional importance attached to human resources development programmes. (Ministry of Planning, 2010) (p. 78)

The fact that 735.5 billion SAR (USD 195 billion), will be spent on human resource development activities during five years, reflects how much the Saudi government is investing in training and developing the national work force. However, there is debate around
the effectiveness of human resources activities, not only in Saudi but also in the neighbouring countries (Al-hosni et al., 2013; Jehanzeb et al., 2013).

After addressing the five cultural dimensions, the reader should have a proper understanding about the Saudi context. The following sections of this chapter will address the training in the context of Saudi Arabia and a brief background about the religious public organisations in Saudi Arabia.

**Training in Arab Countries**

The Arab World is a term that refers to the countries that share the Arabic language as an original language. According to the official website of the League of Arab States there are twenty two member countries (States, 2018). These countries are located in Asia and Africa as is shown in the map below. The Arab world consists of: Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Oman, The United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, Qatar, Kuwait, Iraq, Syria, Jordan, Lebanon, Palestine, Egypt, Sudan, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco, Mauritania, Djibouti, Somalia, and the Republic of the Comoros.
Figure 2.1. The Arab World’s Map (Source: the official website of the League of Arab States)

Despite the lack of training research in the Arab World context (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Albahussain, 2000), there are some studies which indicate aspects that are worthwhile mentioning here. According to Schwalje (2011) the World Bank Enterprise Arab World has recorded the highest skill gap percentage, with 24% of firms reporting a skill gap compared to 20% in the Caribbean and Latin America, 20% in Central Asia and Europe, 18% in Africa, 17% in the Pacific and East Asia, and 15% in South Asia. Therefore, it has been suggested that Arab organisations and other developing countries need to pay considerable attention to human resources development in general, and training in particular, to cope with accelerated world development (Jehanzeb et al., 2013). As a result, some Arabian countries have invested in human resources and spent billions of dollars with unsatisfactory results (Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Schwalje, 2011). Schwalje (2011) argued that a mismatch between educational
outcomes and employer needs, deficiencies in soft skills (such as communication, teamwork and innovative thinking), and the failure of training to meet workplace requirements are the most obvious problems for Arab organisations. Moreover, Jehanzeb et al. (2013) indicate two noticeable problems in most Arab organisations. Firstly, employees consider training to be a holiday, or a fun activity for the managers and their friends. This suggests the need for increased attention to trainees’ attitudes toward training. Secondly, job training is usually not conducted in a professional manner. Therefore, there is a need for sound planning, assessment of the trainees’ needs, and evaluation.

Training in Saudi Arabia.

Distinguishing features of training in the Arab World context are to some extent applicable in the Saudi context. However, the Saudi Government began to focus on training due to the changes in the workplace after the discovery of oil in 1939 (Al-Shammari, 2009). In the early 20th century, the government relied on foreign workers due to a lack of education and training preparation in the country at that time (Baqadir, Patrick & Burns, 2011; Schwalje, 2011). As with any country feeling the consequences of a heavy reliance on foreign workers (Schwalje, 2011), the Saudi Government is currently paying attention to distributing knowledge and skills by job training with the aim of qualifying Saudis to occupy these positions and reduce reliance on a foreign workforce (Al-Shammari, 2009).

According to the Ninth Development Plan, human resource development faces two challenges. First, there is a high demand on training programs in Saudi Arabia in all national fields. To overcome this challenge, the government expanded training institutions and established new institutions and colleges to meet these increased demands. Second, there is a lack of valid data about employees’ needs which causes problems in identifying training needs. With regard to the inadequacy of educational outcomes in Saudi, The Ninth Development Plan states:
In recent years, the growing incompatibility between outputs of the education and training system and the needs of the labour market have led to structural unemployment among Saudi citizens. Hence, there is a need to address the issue of compatibility, in an effort to endow national human resources with the skill levels needed to meet demands of the labour market, as well as to correct the imbalances that hinder substitution of expatriates with national labour. (Ministry of Planning, 2010, p. 45)

To accomplish this aim and with hope that the outcomes will result in a high improvement in organisational performance, the government has spent billions of dollars on training and human resources development (Almannie, 2015).

Consequently, job training has garnered a respectful budget due to the increased attention the government has paid to training and development. The latest Five-Year plan included a SR731.5 billion allocated to human resource development. According to the Ninth Development Plan, the objectives for training include the following:

- Accommodating the largest possible number of those interested in technical and vocational training.
- Technical and vocational development of human resources to meet the needs of the labour market.
- Providing training programmes that would qualify the trainee for an appropriate job in the labour market or enable the trainee to become self-employed.
- Building strategic partnerships with the business sector to implement technical and vocational programmes.
- Expanding advanced training in support of national plans and participation in technology transfer and development.
• Providing the needs of the various regions of vocational training centres in disciplines and specializations appropriate to their development projects, particularly in the new economic cities and technology zones.

• Linking the incentives provided for private investment (national and foreign) to the extent of contribution to training and preparation of national manpower. (Ministry of Planning, 2010, p. 41)

These goals are applied the both private and public sectors. The Ninth Development Plan provides two types of training that may satisfy trainees’ needs. The first is employee training in government organisations and the second is vocational and technical training to meet the needs of the labour market.

**Overview of training in Saudi Arabia.**

Ten years after the discovery of oil in Saudi Arabia, the first intermediate industrial school in Jeddah was established in 1949. This was the beginning of industrial vocational education and the directorate of Education Ministry (Al-Shammari, 2009). In 1980 the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) was established as an independent government organisation, but under the supervision of the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs (Al-Shammari, 2009; Alharbi, 2014; Alzalabani, 2002). The responsibility of GOTEVT was to provide training to public employees and to supervise private training centres (Alzalabani, 2002). Developments that have occurred since include GOTEVT becoming fully independent and changing its name in 2006 to the Technical and Vocational Education Training Corporation, and developing the curricula to meet international standards (Alharbi, 2014).

For non-practical skills the government established The Institute of Public Administration in 1961 with training for government employees as one of its main responsibilities (Al-Kahtani, 2004). According to Al-Kahtani (2004):
The administrative training policy of the Kingdom seeks to accomplish these objectives: (1) providing the needed training or preparation of an employee so he can take over a vacant position or one held by a non-Saudi; (2) improving employee work habits and practices in order to increase productivity, or further develop the administrative environment of various governmental entities; (3) introducing new approaches and modern technology to governmental employees; and (4) retraining employees who must be transferred to new departments as dictated by current organizational interests or by employee circumstance. (p. 38)

From these goals, The Institute of Public Administration took the responsibility to plan and conduct various training courses to employees from different levels and organisations. The training program provided by The Institute of Public Administration focused on work skills such as, improving employees’ productivity and raising administrative efficacy for civil servants (Al-Kahtani, 2004).

In parallel, private organisations tended to have their own in-house training centres, especially the largest organisations, such as those that work in the oil or petrochemicals industry, like Saudi Aramco, Samaref, and Yanpet (Alzalabani, 2002; Jehanzeb et al., 2013). Private training in these organisations includes technical and vocational training, academic job-related training, on-the-job training programs, and continuous training (Alzalabani, 2002; Jehanzeb et al., 2013). In order to help small private organisations, the government established the Human Resources Development Fund (HRDF) in 2000 to address the shortage of Saudi employees and to coordinate the relationship between private sector and job seekers (Shafloot, 2012). The HRDF provides training courses to job seekers, shares the expense of training and employing the nation’s workforce, and also promotes and encourages the development of different training programs (Shafloot, 2012).
Training in Saudi Arabia has experienced a massive revolution and not only the business field cares about training but also the education field has stepped in and makes contributions. The following section will shed the light on the role of higher education in training in Saudi Arabia.

The contribution of higher education in training.

In the academic field, higher education in Saudi Arabia has had an impact on the development of training in several ways. Each university has a variety of training centres that offer training to students and staff. Universities in Saudi Arabia are encouraged to contribute and serve the community by distributing knowledge and raising awareness. The training department in Umm Al-Qura University opened in 2008. The main aims focus on equipping employees with the skills and knowledge needed in the workplace, increasing workers’ ability to deal appropriately with work difficulties, and helping trainees to improve themselves and their productivity. The training department has also formed partnerships with some public sectors to provide training to their employees, typically in offices.

The training provided focuses on soft skills such as time management, planning, and communication skills. This training is provided by a variety of trainers. These trainers are university lecturers with an interest in providing training and who have the required training skills. Despite the government’s support for training and human resources development, there are some issues that require investigation. Yavas (1999) argued that lack of qualified employees is a major problem in Saudi organisations. Furthermore, the failure of educational outcomes to meet the labour force needs is an undeniable problem (Al-Asmari, 2008; Ramady, 2010). Alsarhani (2005) attributes this problem to the lack of development in education and training sectors and the problem remain unresolved (Baqadir et al., 2011).
Islamic foundations for the trainees’ organisation

In an effort to meet the government’s expectations for a well trained and productive workforce, Umm Al-Qura University developed a training course to provide training to employees from one government organisation, The General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice. Promotion of virtue and prevention of vice is an Islamic expression that refers to instructions in the Qur’an and instructions that were given by the prophet Mohammad (PBUH) as mentioned earlier in the religious dimension (see page 28).

The General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice.

Because the country was built on the law of Sharia, the government gave the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice legitimacy and established a specific organisation to carry out this mission since 1940. The sectors of this organisation are distributed across the country and there are now about 4000 committee members (Robson, 1993).

Since the establishment of the General Presidency, the members’ tasks are to patrol the streets, markets and public places to ensure that Islamic teachings and ethics are applied and obeyed (Robson, 1993).

The job duties of the committee are five-fold:

1- To ensure the obligation of Islamic ethics are applied and prevent what opposes it, such as drinking alcohol, prostitution and homosexuality;
2- To ensure the commitment of closure of shops during prayer time;
3- To ensure that women are wearing a required hijab;
4- To combat extortion and harassment between the two genders; and
5- To combat conjuration. (The General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Saudi Arabia, 2016)
The committee of the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice can use its authority to chase, arrest and investigate wrongdoers. However, after some violations and mistakes made by some of its members, there has been a vast campaign demanding that the employees of the committee be appropriately trained and qualified to properly carry out their mission (Khal, 2013). This led to the establishment of a training institute at Umm Al-Qura University dedicated to training and providing the employees with essential skills and knowledge to avoid violations, assaults and angering others while fulfilling their duties.

**Umm Al-Qura University’s Higher Institution for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice.**

During the era of late King, Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Al Saud, the country witnessed reforms to all government sectors seeking the development and stability for the society and the individual (Almuraykhy, 2005). These reforms included the committee’s eligibility to carry out the duty of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice, so that members would be qualified to apply the system based on knowledge and wisdom and in such a manner that people would want to comply with Islamic requirements. In order to develop this Islamic practice and qualify to be the employees of The Presidency, the Higher Institution for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice was established at Umm Al-Qura University as an academic faculty according to the supreme decision No 28958 on 23 June 2004.

The Higher Institution, therefore, specialises in Islamic studies and educational applications of virtue promotion and vice prevention. In addition to academic responsibility of Islamic and educational studies on the topic of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice, the institute trains members of the committee to carry out their duties in the correct way, based on knowledge of Islamic law, and to consider the social, psychological and educational conditions to help a member carry out his duty in an acceptable way.
The Higher Institution for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice is a higher studies academy that combines both training and education to improve employees’ performance in knowledge, skills and behaviour in the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015e). Within the larger university, the Institute was established to achieve the following goals:

1- To offer programs of higher studies, Islamic legal sciences, and social service, rooted in the Islamic law of jurisprudence of the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice;

2- To prepare effective individuals who are qualified to carry out the duties of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice;

3- To train those who work for promoting the virtue and preventing the vice to improve their performance;

4- To present consultation and awareness programs in promotion of virtue and prevention of vice; and,

5- To prepare Islamic scientific research specialised in issues related to promotion of virtue and prevention of vice (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015e).

The Higher Institute for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice is divided into two departments. One department focuses on academics while the other focuses on training. The training department offers training courses and workshops for all students who belong to the General Presidency of the Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice and employees from other sectors as well. The department is also responsible for improving and upgrading practical skills for the beneficiaries of the program throughout the use of existing expertise from both within the university and outside (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015e).
The training department was established by approval of specialised councils at Umm Al-Qura University and with approval for a central training institution for religious programs from the Ministry of Civil Service (number 445/998 on 21/10/2008). As a result of this approval, the training department started expanding its target and made some partnerships with other government sectors in various topics.

The Training Course Description

The case of the study is one of the courses offered by the training department in the Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University. This course is considered the most famous and important course offered by the Institution for the members of the Committee of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice. The course is called the Preparation of the Committee Member because it focuses mainly on the general skills and knowledge that employees in this organisation need to know and be aware of.

The training department started its training courses for committee members at the beginning of the academic year 2009-2010. Its specialised educational training targets field staff of the Committee of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice, seeking to update and improve their knowledge to suit the demands of the times. It is considered to be one of the strategic partnering principles between the General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice and the Higher Institute (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015e).

This overview about the training course will highlight the objectives of the course, the duration and the content of the course, and features and incentives of the course.

Objectives.

The course was developed since the establishment of the institute to fulfil the demand for developing the skills of employees and equipping them with the required knowledge.
According to the higher institute’s manual, the objectives of the Preparation of the Committee Members are:

1- To contribute in supporting the process of reform adopted by the king of the country by providing training and improvement of one of the most important organisations, the General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice

2- To provide committee personnel an array of concepts, values, bases in sharia, systematic regulations and educational, administrative and procedural basics, and link them to the methodology of Islamic law in a way that would clarify the legitimate wisdom and the total framework of the balanced and moderate Islamic methodology

3- To provide basic knowledge to trainees on the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice so they can practise that rite based on knowledge and insight

4- To train the members of committee on these rules and bases in a way that allow them to practise in their field of work and improve their performances in real life (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015e).

It is noticeable that the course cares much about revising practices and values depending on the main source which is Sharia law. The course seeks agreement on what is wise and what is not and creates discussions between members and the trainer on issues that face employees in the field. This is most valuable as the main purpose of the course is to lessen overreacting from members or making mistakes when dealing with incidents in the field.

**Duration, outlines, and the content of the course.**

This course lasts for nine weeks and every week has forty hours of specialised training sessions. Therefore, there are 360 hours of training for the entire program. The outlines of the content of this course mostly concern three aspects. First, the aspect of laws,
legislations, and implementations as allocated for weeks number one, two, and nine. Week
one covers the topic of jurisprudence. The general goal for this week is to provide the trainee
with a proper understanding of the jurisprudence of promotion of virtue and prevention of
vice and to gain improvement based on insight and knowledge. There are also detailed goals
as by the end of the program the trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Clarify the rule of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice
2- Understand the importance of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice knowledge
   in keeping the five Islamic necessities (religion, life, the mind, progeny and property)
3- Provide evidence of the disadvantages of leaving the promotion of virtue and
   prevention of vice (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of
   Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015d).

Week number two concerns the legitimate law concerning the promotion of virtue and
prevention of vice. The main goal for this week is allowing the trainee to acquire basic
knowledge on the science of legitimate rules and develop his skills concerning the promotion
of virtue and prevention of vice using sharia-based legal rules. By the end of the program, the
trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Determine concepts of sharia-based legal rules that relate to his work and distinguish
   between them
2- Acquire key abilities of jurisprudence that help him carry out his duty
3- Apply the legal rules needed in his work field (The Higher Institute of Promotion of
   Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015b).

Additionally, week nine focuses on systems and criminal procedures. The general
goal for this week is the development of skills in dealing with systems and instructions
needed at work, which the trainee is able to apply in an appropriate way and with the correct
methodology. The detailed goals in this week are that by the end of the week the trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Recognise legislation related to his job
2- Demand his job rights according to the system
3- Handle his job responsibily and perform his duties
4- Determine his job specialisation and the limits of his authority
5- Determine concepts of criminal work and their terminologies and basic rules

The second theme of the course is the aspect of educational and academic skills such as the topic of week three which concerns psychological counselling in the field of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice. The main goal is that the committee member is to acquire new knowledge about human behaviours, as well as gain psychological counselling skills that could be integrated into his work in order to give a better result. There are also detailed goals as by the end of the week the trainee is expected to have:

1- A general framework of knowledge concerning psychological counselling (its concept, goals, basics, fields, styles and roles)
2- Comprehensive knowledge about the psychological characteristics of the nature of human formation
3- The ability to deal perfectly with people according to their psychological conditions at different growth stages
4- Basic knowledge about the most important ways of psychological counselling
5- The ability to apply these methods in the field (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015a).

Additionally, week number five is about Islamic educational methodology for dealing with faults. The general goal for this topic is that the trainee is to acquire skills in dealing
with faults in the public. The detailed goals for this week are that the trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Determine the basic concepts in Islamic education when dealing with faults
2- Distinguish the types of faults and types of people who committed them and the impact of different treatment
3- Gain educational skills in confronting faults according to various situations
4- Gain educational skills in dealing with persons who commit a fault, in a way that does not alienate them from the religion
5- Present a good role model and an ideal model such that the trainee would be able to deal with faults through the Islamic methodology (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015f)

Third is the aspect of personal development regarding critical thinking, planning and communication. For instance, week four is specialised in strategic planning and setting goals. The general goal is that the trainee is to acquire basic knowledge about strategic administration with its different dimensions and primary skills of strategic planning. The detailed goals in this topic are that by the end of the week the trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Determine basic concepts in the field of strategic administration
2- Formulate values, vision, message and goals in the strategic plans
3- Analyse the environment of the institution where he works for setting strategic plans
4- Apply the stages of strategic plans according to the given knowledge
5- Build strategic plans (experimental) in the field of work (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015c).
Week six concerns the issues of critical thinking and its applications in the field of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice. The general goal is to provide the trainee with practical skills for thinking and its application in issues related to the committee staff, and pursuing performance improvement based on knowledge and sight in a masterful and skilful way. The detailed goals are that by the end of the week, the trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Define thinking and its tools and differentiate between similar terminology
2- Show evidence from the Holy Quran and Sunnah of Prophet Mohammed, peace be upon him, about the Islamic call for thinking and reasoning to infer religious constants and deal with variables in life
3- Know the divisions of thinking and their categories and levels
4- Apply brain-storming and tackle problems in the work environment
5- Apply critical thinking skills on work issues (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015b).

In addition, week seven is about communication skills and the general goal is to provide the trainee with effective communication skills so that he can benefit from it and apply it in his life. The detailed goals are that by the end of the week, the trainee is expected to be able to:

1- Determine the importance of communication in order to apply it effectively in his life
2- Determine the positive communication factors and how to build positive and constructive relations with others
3- Apply basic treatment skills in his daily field work
4- Write messages, and reports, and maintain records
5- Carry out his role as an effective team member in order to apply what he has learned from experience and skills acquisition (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015a).
Finally, week eight concerns dialogue skills. The general goal is to provide the trainee with rules and practical skills for dialogue in order to improve the performance of his work with knowledge, skill and mastery. The detailed goals are that by the end of the week the trainee is expected to be able to:

1. Define dialogue, determine its categories, and differentiate between it and other similar terminologies
2. Determine the basics of effective dialogue and its fundamentals, morals and barriers
3. Apply effective dialogue strategies and skills
4. Properly use dialogue skills in the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice enforcement (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015c).

After finishing these nine weeks there is a practical week and trainees need to do field work under the supervision of the trainers on what they learnt and get feedback from the supervisors (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015f).

**Features of attaining a committee member preparation course.**

At the beginning, incentives were required to interest students to enrol in the course, and to make them more interested in mastering the skills offered. Therefore, a monetary incentive equal to two months’ salary was provided for students who passed the final exam with an excellent grade. Within the recent amendments, the course became compulsory for all new employees; however, the financial reward is still provided to students who achieve excellent grades in the final exams. Employees are required to take this course in order to be qualified and accepted to work in the field; those who have not taken the course must do office and administrative work only, where they are not dealing with the public. They are not
allowed to carry out fieldwork, so they do not earn the financial allowance allocated to fieldwork staff (The Higher Institute of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice in Umm Al-Qura University, 2015e).

Summary

Highlighting the background of the Saudi context in term of the five cultural dimensions (religion, social status, employment, education, and economy) was addressed in this chapter. The status of job training in the Arab World and Saudi Arabia in specific was discussed to show the urgent need of studying job training. In addition, providing brief information about the organisation of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice, and its training department, gave the reader an insight into the context of this study. The following chapter will review the literature of training that is related to training satisfaction, the quality, and evaluation of training.
Chapter Three: Review of Job Training Literature

The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction, uniquely within the Saudi context and for a specific group of employees from one of the public sector’s organisations. This chapter discusses training benefits and challenges, training quality and effectiveness, systematic approaches of training, trainees’ organisational attitudes toward job commitment and work support, trainees’ individual attitudes toward self-efficacy and learning motivation, trainees’ expectations of training, and training satisfaction. In order to address job training, a section about training benefits will be introduced next.

Training Benefits

There are various ways in which training benefits individuals, organisations, and society through maximising potential for individuals through the acquisition of information, knowledge, attitudes, and skills (Goad, 2010; Shenge, 2014). Furthermore, since training is expected to facilitate positive development in knowledge, attitudes, and skills Albahussain (2000) claimed that training must have a valuable role in the organisation. Shenge (2014) summarised the benefits of training:

Some of the purposes that training serves may include focusing energy on issues, making work and issues visible, supporting other interventions, legitimizing issues, promoting change, reducing risk, creating a community based on some shared experience, building teams, indoctrinating new staff, communicating and disseminating knowledge and information. Others are certifying and licensing, rewarding past performance, flagging "fast trackers," and developing skills. (p. 51)

In this quote, benefits were mentioned which can be categorised into: benefits for individuals and teams, benefits for organisations, benefits for society, and benefits for economy.
Benefits for individuals and teams.

Training can be beneficial for individuals and teams from various aspects. Some key benefits for training in relation to work experience will be discussed. The first benefit of training for individuals and teams is that training is a beneficial source of acquiring new skills (Hill & Lent, 2006). Second, training can help in enhancing and developing the skills required due to the continuous growth in workforce (Arthur, Bennett, Edens & Bell, 2003). Arthur et al. (2003) generated a meta-analysis study to examine the linkage between training design used and the effectiveness of organisational training. Arthur et al. (2003) found that the effect size was medium to large in the term of the effectiveness for organisational training and concluded that the most effective training targets cognitive and interpersonal skills.

Moreover, training was found a significant role player in enhancing job performance for employees (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008; Fu, Yang, & Chu, 2014). Investigating the relationship between training perceived and employees’ outcomes was the purpose of the study generated by Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008) who found that the relationship between training opportunity and task performance was significantly high. Similarly, Fu et al. (2014) found that high satisfaction with training would enhance employees’ job performance. Furthermore, Cohen (1985) asserts that trainees after training are more disciplined as a result of perceived training.

Third, training enhances self-efficacy. As self-efficacy is crucial in both self and work skills (Li, 2013; Tai, 2006; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991), training is believed to enhance self-efficacy which in turn positively influences job performance (S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Frayne and Geringer (2000) conducted an experimental study on thirty salespeople in self-management training to examine the impact on work performance. The study continued for twelve months after training to monitor trainees’ performance and the result of this study
indicated that self-management training significantly optimised their job performance as well as self-efficacy.

Fourth, training assists in acquiring and managing knowledge. One of the benefits of training in the level of individuals is that training enhances the ability of gaining and managing knowledge – what can be called strategic knowledge (Em, 1997; Kozlowski et al., 2001; Kraiger, Ford, & Salas, 1993). Strategic knowledge is when a person knows when to use a particular knowledge or skill (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Fifth, training empowers leadership skills as is not only limited to employees but also extends to managers (Shenge, 2014). Kirkpatrick (1983) claims that supervisory training is beneficial for supervisors from many aspects as it increases their knowledge of the best and latest philosophies about management, improves their management skills, and increases their chance for promotion, rewards, and salary increase. Leaders and managers are in an urgent need of training as it empowers them with the skills needed in leading others (Mailick & Stumpf, 1998). In other words, Collins and Holton (2004) in their meta-analysis study assert the crucial factor for training of leaders and managers and cited “Managers who participate in training programs differ greatly, and for programs to be effective they must accommodate individual managers' abilities, learning styles, and preferences” (p. 237).

Training leaders additionally enhances leaders’ capacity in certain kind of leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002). In an empirical study Dvir et al. (2002) conducted a Transformational Leadership training for military leaders and found that the leaders who receive the training have more impact on followers’ development in skills such as self-actualisation, morality (internationally or their organisation’s moral value), empowerment (i.e. active engagement in the task, critical independent approach, and particular self-efficacy). This finding supports the idea that training is a crucial way to develop leaders and managers.
Sixth, training is a means for increasing self-actualisation. Training has been seen as fruitful in increasing self-actualisation as studies suggested (Darou, 1982; Goddard, 1981; N. Johnson, Russo & Bundrick, 1982). The result of a study by Goddard (1981) suggests that dedicated training in both Rogerian theory and assertiveness has a significant increase of self-actualisation. In a study conducted on supervisors who received Rational Behavioural training, N. Johnson et al. (1982) found that trainees noticeably became more self-actualised. Self-actualisation as a result of training, has also been reported as a mediator between training adequacy and work motivation (Ngai, Cheung & Yuan, 2016).

**Benefits for organisations.**

In regard to training benefits for organisations, the literature discussed many ways training can be beneficial for organisations. First, training can be beneficial in improving organisational performance. It is crucial to the organisation to identify the effectiveness of training especially on the level of performance (effectiveness and profitability) (Aragón-Sánchez, Barba-Aragón, & Sanz-Valle, 2003; García, 2005). Kirkpatrick emphasises that training can be beneficial for organisation in improving employees’ attitudes, knowledge, and skills, and increasing the quality of the work force, especially when training supervisors. Therefore Aragón-Sánchez et al. (2003) studied empirically the impact of training on organisations considering this issue investigating 457 European companies and concluding that the evidence from this study shows the significant relation between training and organisational performance. Performance of organisation can also be observed in different outcomes such as profitability, productivity effectiveness, and operating income per employee.

Likewise García (2005) emphasised the crucial role training plays in improving an organisation’s performance with more attention to setting objectives of training very well. García (2005) observed:
training programmes oriented towards human capital development (whose objectives are to enhance the multipurpose character, to motivate and increase satisfaction at work, to have a better knowledge of the organization’s culture and aims, to increase employee participation and finally, to transfer and share the new knowledge that will progressively be generated) will have a positive impact on organizational performance and, more specifically, will help to keep all stakeholders involved in the organization more satisfied. (p. 1704)

Planning for training and setting goals and objectives will be discussed later in more detail in the systematic approaches of training.

Second, training improves direct outcomes. Direct outcomes such as reducing cost and improving quality and quantity are also benefits expected from training (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Kirkpatrick (1983) asserts that improvement of management after supervisory training resulted in increased profitability. After training, it has been observed that employees acquire work skills effectively, quickly and cost-effectively (Albahussain, 2000). Another way of reducing costs is that training helped in reducing mistakes which meant spending less time in correcting these mistakes. The saved time would go for planning and development activities (Albahussain, 2000).

Moreover, Knoke and Kalleberg (1994) demonstrated a considerable relationship between training and financial performance. Likewise, Cohen (1985) claims that training has a tangible effect in reducing cost for organisations. Conversely, Guerrero and Barraud-Didier (2004) conducted an empirical study in France to investigate training as one of Human Resources Practices and its relationship to the financial performance of an organisation. The researchers found that training, empowerment, and communication are indirectly linked to financial performance by social performance moderating the relationship.
Improving the quality and quantity of performance is seen as one of the benefits of training (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Reducing mistakes and speeding tasks are benefits of training that increase employees’ expertise which in turn increases their output (Albahussain, 2000). Additionally, employees after training come with positive attitudes and valuable ideas and suggestions that help in improving an organisation’s performance and productivity (Pfeifer, Janssen, Yang & Backes-Gellner, 2013). In their research Pfeifer et al. (2013) evaluated the influence of training and found that employees are more likely to provide suggestions for productivity after having formal training. In addition, training increases the good reputation of an organisation, which attracts higher profile of employees to the firm (Albahussain, 2000).

Third, training also improves indirect outcomes. There are also indirect outcomes such as employees’ turnover, optimising employees’ commitment, and social capital (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Training is also found to be a crucial factor in turnover intention (Cohen, 1985; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008). In their study, Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008) concluded that the relationship between perceived training opportunity and turnover intention is mediated by intrinsic motivation for the employee.

In addition, increasing employees’ commitment was discussed in training literature and several studies assert the positive relationship between perceived training opportunities and high job commitment (Bartlett, 2001; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008; Yap, Holmes, Hannan, & Cukier, 2010). When employees perceive formal training, they are likely to develop the connection with the organisation and make strong commitment due to the feeling of self-development and skills improvement (Bartlett, 2001; Yap et al., 2010). Fourth, training improves image of the organisation. One of the benefits of training for the organisations is that training optimises the organisation’s reputation by attracting the best staff for its positions at all levels (Kirkpatrick, 1983).
Benefits for society and economy.

On a national level training can provide sustainable benefits due to the increase of labour skills and organisations’ performance which in turn positively influences the standard of the society’s life (Albahussain, 2000). Taylor (1996) for example, claimed that "a country's international competitiveness and economic performance is significantly influenced by its skilled work force and, as a result, its standard of living” (p. 277).

Making social bonds is a benefit because training plays a role in creating community based on shared knowledge and perspectives (Shenge, 2014). This also helps in building a good team because of relationships built upon shared experience and based on tolerance and acceptance resulting from training (Shenge, 2014).

Training plays a considerable role in economic advancement all around the world (Reid, 1994). According to Reid (1994), training is the best method to deal with an economy’s challenges as training can boost a nation’s decreasing economic performance by balancing between skills and qualifications to fulfil the workforce demands. Besides, according to Reid (1994) training assists with the crises of unemployment by equipping job seekers with the up-to-date required skills.

After this brief review of the literature regarding training benefit it is concluded that training plays a significant role in the advancement of individual, organisation, and society. Subsequently, light should be shed on challenges facing training in a global set or in a specific context.

Training challenges

Job training also has challenges and it is crucial to highlight these challenges in order to facilitate proper training (Masa’deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). The challenges facing training can be classified into five types namely; time challenges, cost
challenges, quality challenges, attitudes challenges, and planning challenges as discussed below.

**Time.**

For most job training, an obstacle is choosing the proper time for training and avoiding the effect of training on work time and employees’ productivity (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011; Zhao et al., 2014). For instance, training departments need to work hard to allocate training time because sometimes there is an effect on work which will make managers refuse to let employees attend training (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014). However, when training is located after work it may also affect employees’ personal life as they have their own duties. For example, Zhao et al. (2014) illustrate how much medical staff feel stressed about training as they are required, besides providing medical care, to do other profit or non-profit tasks. Therefore, Zhao et al. (2014) suggest that training time should be flexible to fix the contradiction between training and work.

Masa'deh and Obeidat (2014) reported that timing in operating training courses for bank employees and managers in Jordan was a serious issue because when the training course is too long it affects work time. Some managers refuse to assign employees to training for this reason (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014). The same issue with the small and medium enterprises was reported by Panagiotakopoulos (2011). His study highlighted some barriers that face training and development practices in small and medium firms and cite that “Market forces highlight the problems of organizational constraints such as lack of time and limited financial resources available for training provision” (p. 15). Nevertheless, well designed training is worth the time and effort exerted at least in the long term.

**Cost.**

Training in specific and human resource practices in general cost organisations a huge amount of money around the world every year (Harris et al., 2014). The cost of training is
thus a concerning issue to organisations and may prevent some from providing their employees from training (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011; Zhao et al., 2014). Sometimes the limited fund for training provision can be a serious obstacle to training (Panagiotakopoulos, 2011; Zhao et al., 2014). The low fund allocated for training and human resource practices can be a result of the absence of awareness about the effect of training in an enterprises’ success (Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). According to Panagiotakopoulos (2011), lacking empirical research about training’s effect on small organisations’ success, can be the reason of this absence of awareness especially for managers and owners in small and medium firms.

In other situations, the high cost of training is regarded as the reason for the shortage of training provided (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). Some organisations in developing countries need to hire high profile trainers from abroad, which makes it more expensive (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014). Even in the developed countries external training is considerably expensive to small businesses (Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). It can be concluded that with low funds for training the solution is to raise awareness among management and decision makers about the real benefits of training for the good of the organisation. On the other hand, about the high cost of external training, this issue can be tackled by paying more attention to internal training and trying to optimise quality by recruiting all possible potentials.

**Quality.**

In terms of training quality there are challenges regarding the quality of training. Some studies reported poor quality as one of training barriers facing job training (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011; Zhao et al., 2014). Poor quality of training can be seen in different shapes, for example, when the trainer is lacking competency with up to date technology advances which may affect the outcomes of training (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014).
Further, training programs can fail to meet specific needs such as, when the trainer deals with generic issues without touching on real matters that trainees face in their work experience (Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). Moreover, Panagiotakopoulos (2011) reported the poor quality of external training providers as a barrier in providing job training. Due to the significance of training quality the whole section following addresses this aspect.

**Attitudes.**

Attitudes toward training can vary from one organisation to another and training impact can depend on internal or external factors that determine attitudes. People at the top of organisations need to have a clear vision about the effectiveness of training to give training the right priority. Serious obstacle are caused if managers have negative attitudes about the importance of training (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). Even employees’ attitudes are important. Panagiotakopoulos (2011) reported that in small and medium businesses, one of training barriers is when employees lacking the desire to train and learn.

According to Masa'deh and Obeidat (2014) the lack support by top management caused an obstacle for training in the banking field in Jordan. The lack of management support is a result of lack of awareness of training effectiveness (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). The negative attitudes towards training can also be a problem for training departments when seeking approval for training time or budget, as Masa'deh and Obeidat (2014) reported. For example, sometimes managers with negative attitudes about training try to reduce training expenses by shrinking training time and putting employees in one training course, regardless of their position and experience, which make it difficult for trainers to provide the right training and improve training outcomes (Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014). Regarding importance, there will be a separate section next to discuss awareness about training effectiveness.
Planning.

Some training challenges arise due to poor design and planning of training. For instance, lacking training evaluation and needs assessment have been observed as challenges that face job training (Al-hosni et al., 2013; Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). Ignoring the significance of training needs assessment seems to be a widespread problem that has a negative impact on training outcomes (Arthur et al., 2003; Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011). Moreover, underemphasising training evaluation has its negative results as well (Al-hosni et al., 2013; Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014). Rae (1999) therefore, highlighted some reasons for negative attitudes about the importance of evaluation: uncertainty of the person who is responsible of the evaluation, the absence of evaluation planning in the time of designing training, the time challenge as evaluation consumes time, and assuming that evaluation is just questionnaires to be filled at the end of the course.

As training evaluation and training needs assessment are so important they will be discussed in detail in the following sections. After highlighting some challenges that confront job training, there is an urgent need to explore the context of Saudi in terms of training challenges and barriers. Therefore, the following section will highlight some training barriers in the Saudi context in specific and Arab World countries in general.

Training barriers in Saudi Arabia

In addition to training barriers in general, it is worthwhile to shed light on the obstacles of the Saudi context of this study.

Lack of support.

There are some barriers that decrease training effectiveness and training transfer. For instance, some organisations are not giving the required support for Human Resource initiatives and innovation, ignoring the crucial role of work support in developing employees
and facilitating training transfer (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Masa'deh & Obeidat, 2014; Shafloot, 2012). Therefore, Almannie (2015) recommended that managers and supervisors should be “receptive to changes in workplace practice, to be accountable for providing better environments, and to be active in giving feedback on training lessons to employees” (p. 10). Furthermore, Almannie (2015) indicates some factors that reduce training effectiveness in Saudi Arabia such as: the absence of managers’ role in supporting employees for training and applying the new skills into workplace; facilitating an encouraging environment for transferring skills; and failure to assess employees’ training needs prior to participation in training programs. However much the lack of support for training is a global problem due to the absence of awareness of its value (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Schindler & Burkholder, 2014), it is an even more serious issue in the context of Saudi Arabia (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Shafloot, 2012).

**Lack of planning.**

There are some barriers related to planning, organising and operating training, for example, the lack of planning and deficiency in systematic approaches have been reported as a major problem impeding human resource development in the Arab World (Al-Sayyed, 2014). In addition, it has been reported that training evaluation is not conducted in a professional way (Jehanzeb et al., 2013). The shortcoming in training evaluation was also reported in a study by Al-hosni et al. (2013) in Oman, and it was recommended to focus to follow scientific methods for collecting and analysing data for evaluation purposes.

Another obstacle is the lack of training needs assessment (Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Shafloot, 2012). According to Shafloot (2012) in Arab organisations allocating training can be hard because there is no system for identifying training needs as managers overall are lacking ability to assess employees’ needs. However, this problem has been reported in other
contexts as Arthur et al. (2003) found only 6% of organisations studied were conducting a needs analysis in developing and operating training.

**Noticeable use of nepotism.**

In the absence of strict legislation some managers who are responsible for training may give privilege to their friends or family. Some studies reported that training can be influenced by the managers’ social circle that family and friends have impact. Jehanzeb et al. (2013) cited that: “training and development programs are largely influenced by personnel relations, favoritism, ideological relationships and acquaintances that imitate cultural forces” (p. 81). This kind of misuse of power can affect the nomination of employees to training and cause injustice and discrimination among employees. Further, selecting and nominating trainees has occurred without any systematic approach to needs assessment (Shafloot, 2012).

**Cost barriers.**

Some studies reported that in the Arab World there are poor budgets specified for training (Al-Sayyed, 2014). This may not be applicable for some rich countries like Arabian Gulf countries which spend a generous share for education and training, as stated in the introduction chapter. Nevertheless, Jehanzeb et al. (2013) argue that Arab organisations that spend a respectable amount on training their employees still achieve unsatisfactory results.

**Issues of quality.**

It can be seen that low training quality may be a result of barriers such as low funds, negative attitudes, poor planning, and lacking management support. Studies in the Arab world context confirmed the poorness of quality in training that required paying more attention, money, and effort to optimize training in these countries (Almannie, 2015; Al-hosni et al., 2013; Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Masa’deh & Obeidat, 2014). After highlighting training challenges and barriers globally the following section will address a systematic training approach to broaden the vision about conducting training in an ideal way.
**Negative attitudes.**

Considering trainees’ perceptions, it has been reported that in the Arab World there are some negative perceptions about training. For example, Jehanzeb et al. (2013) stated:

Basically in most of the Arab organisations training and development are not acknowledged as a vital strategic organizational function which can contribute highly in the success of the organization. However, employee training and development in Arab organizations have been observed as a holiday and leisure activity which is provided to senior managers and their friends. (pp. 80-81)

Attitudes toward training have been found to have a role in the effectiveness of training (Cheng & Ho, 2001; Ehrhardt et al., 2011; Malik et al., 2013; R. Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008) Attitudes should be taken into account in terms of the importance of training for the individual and organisation equally. When trainees have negative attitudes about training then training should be designed to identify the reasons and focus on changing these negative attitudes.

After addressing training benefits and challenges, training quality and effectiveness will be discussed in the following section.

**Training Quality and Effectiveness**

**The quality of training.**

Training is a service and the quality of the service should be ensured to gain costumer’s satisfaction. Therefore, the service’s quality assessment is an important issue for organisations all around the world (Haksik, Yongki, & Dongkeun, 2000). Also, because billions of dollars are spent annually on training (Harris et al., 2014), and there is strong competition in the training field, so there must be a great effort put into achieving training quality to ensure beneficiaries’ satisfaction (Rogala, Batko, & Wawak, 2017). Therefore, training institutions and organisations need to ensure that high quality training is their
ultimate goal. Training quality has been investigated in many studies (Artino, 2008; Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1992; Haksik et al., 2000; Negrini, Forsblom, Gurtner, & Schumann, 2016; Zumrah, Boyle, & Fein, 2013). However, the concept of perceived training quality is still ambiguous and requires more clarification (Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1992; Haksik et al., 2000).

In terms of higher education quality, Harvey and Green (1993) discussed the various ways that quality can be understood. They stated:

Quality is 'stakeholder-relative'. For example, the focus of attention for students and lecturers might be on the process of education while the focus of employers might be on the outputs of higher education. It is not possible, therefore to talk about quality as a unitary concept; quality must be defined in terms of a range of qualities… We should define as clearly as possible the criteria that each stakeholder uses when judging quality and for these competing views to be taken into account when assessments of quality are undertaken. (p. 28)

Harvey and Green (1993) emphasised the multi-dimensional aspects of quality Education as an example. Due to the multiple beneficiaries the quality cannot be taken from just one dimension but must take all stakeholders into account to ensure a fair judgement of the program.

According to Haksik et al. (2000), service quality is the overall attitude or judgement of the perfection of the service. Similarly, Zumrah et al. (2013) cite that “service quality is generally viewed as a customer’s overall evaluation of the service provided to them” (p. 281). Whereas, Misko (2015) says “We can define quality in VET [Vocational Education and Training] as the level of excellence in training delivered by public and private training and assessment providers” (p. 12). Harvey and Green (1993) point out an overview of how quality concepts can vary depending on circumstances; they can be categorised into five
types. First, the concept of quality can be recognised as something distinct and exceptional which most others cannot attain. Second, quality can relate to the meaning of perfection, such as when you describe something as high quality that means it is perfect or has no mistakes. Third, quality can be seen as the properness in achieving the goals. In other words, the quality in this category concerns achieving the customers’ requirements, desires, or needs. Fourth, quality also can be identified as value for money, when we can get the best outcomes out of the lowest cost. The final category is that quality can be understood as the ability to effectively transform a situation from one state to a different one.

It is necessary to distinguish between quality and satisfaction, so Cronin Jr and Taylor (1992) stated “[T]he most common explanation of the difference between the two is that perceived service quality is a form of attitude, a long-run overall evaluation, whereas satisfaction is a transaction-specific measure” (p. 56). While training satisfaction concerns beneficiaries’ perception, the quality of the program depends on the final decision after generating evaluation from all aspects. When looking for training quality studies it is noticed that there is a lack of empirical research in this regard (Negrini et al., 2016). These few studies vary in their objectives and take training quality from various dimensions. For example, some studies took trainers’ perspectives as a source of assessing training quality. Conversely, other studies investigated this issue from the perspectives of trainees. It has been rarely found that studies include both parties’ opinion in assessing training quality. Regarding training inputs and outputs, some studies focus on inputs such as trainers’ skills whereas some focus on outputs (e.g., trainee satisfaction rates), and some studies are concerned processes such as training methods (Negrini et al., 2016).

To ensure training integrity Misko (2015) argues that the effective and efficient aspects are crucial in proving training quality. Meanwhile, effective regulation guarantees the delivery of knowledge and skills required, efficient system stimulates self-competency.
accomplishing quality assurance (Misko, 2015). Training quality plays a significant role in trainees’ satisfaction (Chiang, Back, & Canter, 2005; Choo & Bowley, 2007). In their study, Choo and Bowley (2007) found that the quality of training plays an important role in the efficacy and effectiveness of training overall, as well as the course design and learning experience. In addition, work environment, organisational values and job responsibilities affect employee satisfaction considerably. Likewise, Chiang et al. (2005) conducted a study in the hotel industry to determine the perceptions of hotel managers and employees in order to improve the quality of training, and to investigate the impact of training quality on training satisfaction and job satisfaction at hotels, and on employees’ intention to stay in the job. They found that training quality has a significant association with training satisfaction, which positively influences job satisfaction and, in turn, significantly impacts on the intention to stay. To sum up, there are significant relationships among training quality, trainee’s satisfaction, training effectiveness, and job satisfaction. To explore the association of training quality, training transfer, and job satisfaction, Zumrah et al. (2013) studied these relationships and found that transfer of training is significantly linked with both the quality of training and job satisfaction.

Rogala et al. (2017) divide the quality of training to two parts: the quality of the service (product) and the quality of management. The quality of product corresponds to the costumer’s benefits such as broadened knowledge, attitude alteration, and attaining new skills. On the other hand, the quality of management refers to the process of management, the structure of organisation, and culture. According to Galetto (1999) most training quality research was dedicated into the quality of management and because this kind of study was not directly linked to the products and services, they were often overlooked. However the same thing happened with the studies that concerned training service quality (Rogala et al., 2017).
In terms of the management of training organisations, it seems that this issue has been neglected in the training literature. There is a knowledge gap and few studies have attempted to fill the void (Rogala et al., 2017). Although managers of training organisations have a significant role in training effectiveness, Rogala et al. (2017) argue that they have little information about how to direct the organisation to achieve a training service with high quality. Thus researchers suggest that “the managers of the learning providers need to focus on employing qualified trainers and providing a curriculum which is unique and adjusted to their customers’ needs” (p. 357).

**Training effectiveness.**

Training quality is considered the key factor of training effectiveness and this has been investigated in several studies. Due to the multiple levels of training benefits, training effectiveness may be seen from various dimensions and sometimes these benefits are intangible as Phillips and Stone (2002) have observed that “Most successful training programs result in some intangible benefits. Intangible benefits are those positive results that either cannot be converted to monetary values” (p. 210). Mostly, training benefits can be categorised into three types: (a) benefits on the employee’s level, (b) benefits on the job level, and (c) career benefits (Noe & Wilk, 1993). Additionally, Nordhaug (1989) claims there are also three types of outcomes of training: developing in learning motivation (e.g., more desire to learn); developing in career (e.g., more chances in promotion); and developing in psychosocial abilities (e.g., improving self-actualisation).

Clarifying training benefits seems to have a crucial influence on many aspects that fulfil training effectiveness. First, employees faith in training outcomes enhances their participation in training and other development activities (R. A. Noe & Wilk, 1993). Second, employees come to training highly motivated when they are fully aware of the positive result they will gain from the course (Tharenou, 2001). Third, participation in training enhances the

Research on training effectiveness tends to study training design and how to build a successful training course. Regardless of the importance of training design to the quality of training and the large amount of research that highlights good methods, training design though does not address all the training quality aspects (Rogala et al., 2017). Hughey and Mussnug (1997) described some key factors that help to make on-the-job training more beneficial. First, the training course should be thoughtful and well planned to be successful. Second, more attention should be given to thorough detail about desired training outcomes prior to designing course. Third, there should be a coherent vision about what training is expected to achieve and how to measure and reward these achievements.

In addition, Khan and Ramsey (2013) claim that training involves complex relationships between trainee, trainer, content, the environment of work, and organisational goals. Therefore, they proposed a model to evaluate training based on this perspective of connections. They also assert that even though these factors seem to exist outside the training course, a broad vision of them plays a significant role in the training effectiveness. In regard to the size of the organisation, Lee (2012) found that the effectiveness of on-the-job training increases relatively depending on the size of the firm. In other words, employees from a large organisation are more likely to have effective training in comparison with trainees from a small firm. Trainees’ perception of training effectiveness has also been investigated in the literature. For instance, Giangreco, Sebastiano, and Peccei (2009) assessed over 3000 trainees from different companies in Italy, and 300 training courses, and revealed that trainees’ perceptions significantly impact their satisfaction with training, especially regarding the perceived usefulness of training (perceived efficiency and perceived trainer performance).
Some studies reported barriers that diminish training quality. For instance, in Australia it has been found that some organisations provide workplace training without well-trained staff as trainers. Small organisations are more likely to have untrained training staff, and unplanned training (Hawke, 1998; Hoeckel, Field, Simon, Justesen, Troy, & Kim, 2008). In many European countries Ryan (2000) has reviewed VET applications and suggested that, lacking the external regulations for on-the-job training causes low training quality. Considering the context of this study, some researchers believe that training outcomes in the organisations in the Arab World are not even close to being worth the budget allocated, to the barriers discussed earlier (Jehanzeb et al., 2013). Although, training quality is undoubtedly crucial, it is complicated due to the many variables involved. Also, according to Cronin Jr and Taylor (1992), “the nature of the relationship between consumer satisfaction and service quality appears to be an area in great need of additional exploration” (p. 65).

With the importance of assuring training quality and effectiveness the question raised here is: what determines training quality and effectiveness? And what standards of training should be adopted? The following section will discuss the systematic approaches of training that ensure providing a suitable and effective training program.

**What is well structured training?**

In order to develop successful training programs, there is an urgent need to understand well how training should be structured. To do this, scholars discussed the systematic approach of training to ensure that training is designed on a proper structure. Swanson and Dobbs (2006) explained that “being systematic is characterized by, based on, or constituting a system; carried on using step-by-step procedure; purposefully regular; methodical […] systematic training refers to the internal state of the training process” (p. 549). Systematic training approaches are regarded as a key factor in smoothing the transition from the current state to the organisation that is meant to be in the future. According to Armstrong (2006),
systematic training approaches can be seen as a sequential training procedure employed by organisations to enhance employees’ learning to accomplish organisational goals. Moreover, Onimole and Zekeri (2012) concurred and emphasized the importance of employing a well-developed systematic training approach. They state “the systems approach is designed to aid a training manager's understanding of his organisation's training needs and to modify same if the traditional system does not yield the predicted results or meet the established goals” (p. 122). However, in the context of this study, there is a lack of establishing organisational goals and using systematic approaches to training (Almannie, 2015).

Therefore, scholars consider the approach of systems as a tool of understanding and developing training. According to Reid (1994), there are three reasons that give the systems approach a considerable value in terms of its benefits to the service providers. First, it cultivates a more extensive viewpoint in the examination of goals. It provides a reasonable assessment of alternatives, methodologies, and their degrees of achievability in connection to the overall conditions. Second, it urges providers to consider all the pertinent factors associated with the current issue and the connections between them. Third, it is an adaptable model that connects different levels such as individuals, organisations, and even nations.

**Different approaches in systematic training.**

Scholars have various ways to elaborate the systematic approach of training. Warren (1979) suggested that the training sub-system, which can be operated at any organisation, should consist of six components. First, research should be undertaken and aimed at gathering data to improve the effectiveness of training. Second, analysis to specify training needs and determine training costs. Third, development or designing and producing specific required training actions. Fourth, establish the operation which is responsible for managing training operations. Fifth comes the delivery, which is focused on the instructions given to
trainees. Last is evaluation, which ensures training effectiveness and training system efficiency.

To help training providers in designing a well-developed training, McClelland (1993) presented a four-phase productivity improvement model. In the first phase, an operational audit takes place in two sections, (1) job or task analysis, and (2) determining knowledge or skills deficiencies. Second, the design phase defines training goals related to the skills and knowledge deficiencies and determines target group in terms of the size, knowledge, and the level of experience; all of these components determine the training design. The third phase is the implementation phase. This phase focuses on measuring individual skills and knowledge levels. This can occur via surveys, general observations, interviews, and focus groups. The last phase, the analysis and summary phase, analyses data and feedback, draws conclusions and makes recommendations to improve employees’ performance.

One of the well-known design in training systematic approaches is the so-called ADDIE (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation) which was designed by Swanson (1994). Swanson (1994) designed this approach to improving performance at organisations which go through the five phases. According to Swanson (1994) the main purpose of the first component (analysis), is to ensure that training is needed. Then the design is to identify learning objectives, learning content and methods, and assessment plan. For the development phase, the aim is to design training material for both trainees and trainers. The Implementation phase is to conduct training, learning, and examining. Finally, evaluation is to assure training quality in all phases and even after training when trainees are back and performing their jobs.
After highlighting these three examples of different approaches in systematic training, it can be concluded that the components of all approaches can be categorised into three main phases: Assessment phase, development phase, and evaluation phase as discussed below.

**The three phases approach.**

There is consensus in the literature that any successful training should address three phases: assessment phase, development phase, and evaluation phase (Carrell, 1995; Cascio, 2006; Robbins, 1982; Sherman, 1988). Briefly, and according to Albahussain (2000) the assessment phase centres consideration on the training needs and the objectives of the training. The training development phase focuses on how to achieve training objectives. The evaluation phase is usually meant to answer the two main questions: To what extent training has fulfilled the training objectives, and, how valid were these objectives for the organisation’s needs?

**Assessment phase.**

According to Cascio (2006) the aim of the assessment phase is to identify what employees should learn to perform their job satisfactorily. In this phase, there are two aspects to be assessed; training needs and identifying training objectives.

**Training needs assessment.**

Mabey (1995) defined training needs assessment as a “process of collecting data which allows an organisation to identify and compare its actual level with its desired level of performance” (p. 158). Training needs analysis can be defined as Brown (2002) cites: “an ongoing process of gathering data to determine what training needs exist so that training can be developed to help the organisation accomplish its objectives” (p. 569). Furthermore, according to Armstrong (2006) the gap between the current situation and the desired situation is what we need to fill with training which we may call training needs assessment.
Studies conducted in training needs analysis assert its crucial role in training effectiveness (Al-omrani, 2014; Devi & Shaik, 2013; Muya, Mulenga, Bwalya, Edum-Fotwe & Price, 2003). In addition, Pineda (2010) believes that pedagogical analysis ensures training quality because it can specify the weaknesses such as employee needs. On the other hand, training without proper needs analysis can result in negative outcomes (Schmidt, 2009) or could result in poor and irrelevant training design (Anderson, 1994; Bowman & Wilson, 2008). Nevertheless, training in the Arab World generally and in Saudi context specifically has been described as lacking a professional use of training needs assessment (Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Shafloot, 2012). Although needs assessment has a major role in training operation, there is a noticeable lack of empirical studies which may cause some barriers to applying it precisely (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992).

In terms of training satisfaction correlations, Noe and Schmitt (1986) claim that trainees who fulfill the training needs assessment positively are more likely to be satisfied with a training course. Studies conducted in training needs analysis assert its crucial role in training effectiveness (Al-omrani, 2014; Devi & Shaik, 2013; Muya et al., 2003).

It is worth noting that there is a difference between training wants and training needs. Nowack (1991) states that distinguishing between training wants and true needs is an essential step and in order to achieve that he explained:

- a true training need exists when specific job tasks or behaviours are important and an employee's proficiency in them is low. A training want may arise when specific job tasks or behaviours are not important and an employee's proficiency in them is low.

(p. 69)

Therefore, the difference depends on the importance of the need to a specific task or behaviour and to whom it is important. If it is important to the organisation, then it is a training need. Otherwise, if it is not too important to the organisation, then it is training want.
Generating training needs assessment should go through three levels: organisation analysis level, task analysis level, and personal needs analysis level (Cascio, 2006; Goldstein, 2002; Wexley, 1991). The scholars agreed in these three levels mentioned by Wexley (1991) who emphasise three questions which need to be answered when assessing training needs: “(1) Where is training needed in the organization? (2) What must a trainee learn in order to perform the job effectively? (3) Who needs training and of what kinds?” (p. 36). The first question indicates the first level of the assessment (organisation level). The second question concerns the task which should be learnt (task level). The last question highlights the role of analysing trainee’s needs (personal level).

Organisation analysis level:

To identify training needs through the organisational level the focus is to identify the exact place within the organisation where training is required and in order to determine that there should be examination of the organisation’s objectives either short or long-term (Cascio, 2006; Goldstein, 2002). Therefore, Cascio (2006) insists that the goal is to make sure that training is going to change an employee in a way that will help in attaining the organisation’s goals.

Wexley (1991) suggests that to analyse organisations on this level there are four factors that should be examined: 1) the interaction between the organisation and the external environment to identify the relationship between the need for training and the external variables, 2) the status of the organisation in regard to reaching set up goals, 3) assessing training requirements 4) identifying the problems that can be solved by training from the problems that are hard to solve via training. Significant effort should by undertaken to address these factors as the external and internal environment should be examined, organisation’s goals stated, and training requirements included in the analysis. The
responsibility in conducting this level of analysis lies on managers who set the goals of the organisation (Cascio, 2006; Goldstein, 2002).

Task analysis level:

After finishing the organisational level, the next task should be to identify and analyse training needs properly. In this level the contents of training are elaborated based on an employee’s duty or task (Sherman, 1988). The information obtained in this level of analysis according to Armstrong (1996) should include: problems faced by employees in learning basic skills or applying them; performance weaknesses caused by lack of knowledge, skills or motivation any areas with poor competence level; areas that future changes suggest a learning need; and the effectiveness of current training.

Collecting and analysing all this information about employees’ tasks will provide a great deal of input to the main phase (training needs analysis) (Cascio, 2006). Moreover, Cascio (2006) indicates that managers who set up organisation goals are also responsible for the analysis of task needs.

Personal needs analysis level:

Personal needs should be analysed to determine if there is a need for training for the employee and what type of training is suitable if there is a need (McGehee, 1961). According to Wexley (1991), the personal analysis consists of two parts. The first part is the effectiveness of performance, which can be assessed by utilising any of these three methods: 1) the observation of employee’s behaviour, 2) monitoring the production rate in a specific time, and 3) conducting a proficiency test to measure the performance of employees. Second, is identifying the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to do the job effectively. Ellis, Bell, Ployhart, Hollenbeck, and Ilgen (2005) claim that it is fundamental to recognise the skills that employees require. These skills may incorporate the essential knowledge, skills, practices, or attitudes important to enhance performance. After identifying a performance deficiency the
next step is to determine whether the training is going to cure this problem or not due to other causes (Scarpello & Ledvinka, 1988). Like the other levels, personal needs analysis has to be carried out by managers because of their obligation for assessing employees’ performance (Cascio, 2006).

*Training objectives.*

After assessing training needs the second part of the assessment phase is identifying training objectives (Werther, 1985; Wexley, 1991). Werther (1985), claims that assessing training needs is the base of setting training objectives. Werther (1985) states: “These objectives should state the desired behaviour and the conditions under which it is to occur and should serve as the standard against which individual performance and the program can be measured” (p. 237). Cascio (2006) therefore, suggests that to ensure a well-set of training objectives that motivate trainees first, training objectives should be clear. The second objective is to set up challenging goals (not so easy or so difficult) that make trainees feel satisfaction when achieving them. Finally, make sub-goals in addition to the ultimate goal to help trainees increase their confidence after each hurdle.

Some scholars suggest that to formulate precise training objectives there are three steps or stages which should be accomplished (Reid, 1994; Scarpello & Ledvinka, 1988):

1- Determine the skill, knowledge, or attitude the trainee is required to perform towards the objective to be accomplished. Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988) suggest to ask this question: What should the trainee be able to do after training?
2- Specify the required conditions in which the trainee has to demonstrate the skill, knowledge, or attitude to be achieved. Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988) suggest to ask: Under what conditions should the trainee be able to perform the trained behaviour?
3- Identify the standard that the trainee must demonstrate. Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988) suggest to ask this question: How well should the trainee perform the trained behaviour?

Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988) selected these three stages and questions to make it clear to the training specialist that training should contain clear objectives because they help in making criteria that are used in training evaluation (Scarpello & Ledvinka, 1988). Based on the concept of continuous development that asserts the importance for adults to have responsibility for their own learning, Reid suggested that trainees should be participate in formulating their own objectives.

Even though training objectives are based on a training needs assessment that identifies employees skills, knowledge and attitudes, some may confuse these two processes (Wexley, 1991). According to Wexley (1991), training objectives and knowledge, skills, and attitudes identification are different in two ways. First, training objectives do not include every skill employees have which they are not required to improve in the course, whereas the training assessment includes a detailed prescription about employees’ skills, knowledge, and attitudes. The second difference is that the skills, knowledge and attitudes identification process describes the job as it is done by an experienced employee; nevertheless training objectives are more realistic by describing the reasonable level of performance an employee will be able to perform by the end of the course.

Formulating clear training objectives can be beneficial for the trainee from different aspects (Cascio, 2006; Haque, 2008). Therefore, Haque (2008) states:

Trainees benefit from training objectives in a number of ways. First, by seeing these objectives at the beginning of training, the trainee understands exactly what will be required at the end of training. Knowing what is expected up front can serve to reduce
the stress of the training. It also provides a context for focusing trainee's attention, and attention is the first step in the learning process. (p. 94)

Furthermore, trainees’ motivation to learn and transfer skills to the workplace is influenced by having clear training objectives (Cascio, 2006; Reid, 1994; Wexley, 1991). For these reasons scholars assert the urgent need to clearly set up learning objectives for training before developing the training program as it helps in designing the proper methods that match and accomplish these objectives.

**Development phase.**

After assessing the needs of the organisation and employees, and after specifying training objectives, developing the appropriate training that can achieve training objectives is the next step. This phase heavily relies on the assessment phase and if this phase is not carefully conducted then the program will not achieve its goals as desired (Cascio, 2006). Developing the proper training that matches training objectives can be hard though it is crucial as Haque (2008) asserts “the linkage between the design and the objectives must be carefully thought through by the trainer before announcing a program” (p. 94). Rostron (1993) suggests that developing successful training needs to be based on four variables: training objectives, trainer’s skills and expertise, training materials and facilities, and trainees’ readiness and learning ability.

**Understanding the importance of learning principles in developing training.**

It is crucial in developing training to bear in mind the principles of learning for adults, because job training is directed to employees who are different from school students; the way adults learn should be well understood (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2014; Laird, 2003; Werther, 1985). Laird (2003) argues that understanding the learning process can determine success or failure in training. Nevertheless, some administrators and trainers are frequently neglectful of the fundamental ideas of learning theories. In Werther’s (1985) view, “learning
principles are the guidelines to the ways in which people learn most effectively. The more these principles are included in training, the more effective training is likely to be" (p. 239). Werther (1985), highlighted the learning curve and asserted that trainers should understand the learning process through the use of the learning curve to reach a satisfactory level of performance. The author demonstrated that learning principles are participation, repetition, transference, relevance, and feedback.

I will now address the five principles. According to Werther (1985) the first principle of Participation indicates that learning becomes quicker and lasts longer when trainees actively participate. Second is Repetition, meaning that in the key ideas or knowledge people learn when they repeat the point so the memory stores it and can recall it easily (Werther, 1985). Third, Relevance explains how learning becomes more effective when the knowledge learned is meaningful. Explanation of the key ideas in training allows trainees to see its relevance (Werther, 1985). Fourth, Transference is the act of transferring skills and knowledge from training to the workplace, when trainees see the match between the training demands and the job demands (Werther, 1985). Fifth, Feedback gives the trainee the courage and motivation to perform better after knowing their progress (Werther, 1985).

When talking about adult learning, Knowles’ theory must be mentioned. According to Knowles (1990) there are four assumptions determining the Andragogical Theory which differs from child learning theories: self-directedness is the primary aim of the adult self-concept; when people grow up they tend to seek more knowledge; adults’ evolving social entities form and determine their need to learn; and problem-centred orientation to learning is more favourable than subject orientation for adult. On the light of andragogy theory, Knowles et al. (2014) suggested six factors that could increase learning potentiality for adults: the need for knowledge, the learner self-concept, the impact of learner experience, learning readiness, learning orientation, and learning motivation.
Some scholars have distinguished some key learning principles (Armstrong, 2006; Cascio, 2006; Werther, 1985). Additionally, Pigors and Myers (1981) identify the principles of learning for adults and emphasised five points. First, the learner should not be under any kind of pressure to take training. Second, to learn new skills or enhancing existing skills there must be high inspiration to smooth the process of acquiring skills and changing attitudes. Third, rewards are important to motivate learners and enhance training outcomes. Fourth, the process of learning and the outcomes should be monitored by the educator or trainer, who can explain in what regard learning is right or not. Fifth, the learning contents ought to be produced in stages, with continual feedback correction at each level, if needed. When training designer takes these principles into account, after identifying training objectives and training needs, the next step should be to form a suitable training method.

Choosing Training methods.

After assessing the training need and training objectives, the training specialist is required to design a training system employing one or more training methods. To wisely choose the suitable method, Cascio asserts that the training method used should motivate trainees to improve performance, illustrate clearly the skills desired, give chance to trainees to practice, and allow effective participation from all the trainees. Cascio (2006) states:

To choose the training method (or combination of methods) that best fits a given situation, first define carefully what you wish to teach. That is the purpose of the need assessment phase. Only then can you choose a method that best fits these requirements (p. 305)

Defining the desired skills or attitudes is a crucial step and training specialists should remind themselves before determining the training method used. Although it is hard to cover all training methods, the most widely used methods are expressed next. On-the-job training is one of the methods that is used when teaching workers how to perform the present job. The
instructor in this method is a trainer, supervisor, or workmate. Werther (1985) noted that the
trainer in this method should focus on producing a good product not a good training technique.

Job rotation is a method used. This can help the organisation in the time of vacation or
other absence of employees. The trainer in this method will move the trainee from job to
another after giving job instruction training. Lecture and video presentation can be used in
this method as the reliance is on communication rather than modelling. Training through
lecture is suitable for large numbers of trainees, especially when participation is not
importantly required. According to Werther (1985) this method is cheaper, however the
participation, feedback, and learning transfer are relatively low. Nevertheless, participation
and feedback can be improved when allowing discussion while the lecture is proceeding
(Werther, 1985).

Role playing is a technique which is mainly suitable in practicing face-to-face skills
such as selling. It is also applied to change attitudes because trainees are required to assume
another identity. For instance a trainer may ask the trainee to be in his/her co-worker’s
position and see how to respond to a situation. This method helps peers to tolerate and
understand each other and improve their performance by having others’ feedback (Werther,
1985). Although, this provides useful feedback and critiques, it can embarrass some
individuals (Reid, 1994). Behavioural modelling is a method built on the idea that learning
can be attained not only by experience but also by observing and imagining experience for
others. The new module can be observed via video tape so trainees can learn through
observing the positive and negative consequences, and criticising the situation which
reinforces and encourages the right behaviours.

Case study technique is a method where a trainee is able to learn making decisions by
studying certain situations and seeing others’ actions under these circumstances. According to
Werther (1985) the benefit will be great when the case is wisely selected and is similar to trainees’ work so the level of skills transferred will be high. It is also beneficial in problem-solving skills and recommended for statistical data and analysing financial problems (Reid, 1994). Simulation can also be used through mechanical or computer simulators that allow trainees to perform virtual-tasks to learn the skill and get the feedback to apply in real work situations. According to Reid (1994) this method is beneficial in practising management-observations, decision making, and judgment.

Self-study and e-learning are methods which are recommended to train employees with high motivation, especially when in a distance situation via well-developed material like a booklet or computer. Discussion method is a technique used when developing or adjusting attitudes or opinions by exchanging information and discussing opinions through a planned path. According to Reid (1994) this method benefits in promoting group cohesion though it can be time consuming if the controller does not lead the discussion as planned. The instruction method used here involves introducing new skills through telling then showing trainees the practice. After that, giving the trainees their turn to do the task and supervising them while practising, then giving them a final review for the process.

There are also many methods which can be used in training such as games, action learning, and intelligent tutoring. However, some scholars classified these many methods to groups. For example, Wexley (1991) classifies training methods to two types – on-site training methods and off-site training methods. For on-site methods Wexley (1991) listed: orientation training and the socialisation of new employees, on-the-job training (OJT), apprenticeship training, job aids, coaching, mentoring, computer-based training, job rotation, and career development method. Whereas, off-site methods include: lecture, audio-visual techniques, teleconferencing, corporate classrooms, programmed instruction, computer-assisted instruction, and equipment simulators.
On the other hand, Cascio (2006) suggested that: “Training methods can be classified in three ways: information presentation, simulation methods, or on-the-job training” (p. 305). Cascio (2006) explains that Information presentation methods include conferences, lectures, correspondence courses, distance learning, multimedia (CDs/DVDs), intelligent tutoring, internet, and long-range organisational improvement programs. Simulation techniques include role playing, the case method, behaviour modelling, business simulation, and virtual reality. On-the-job training techniques include apprenticeships, orientation training, near-the-job and on-the-job training, performance management, and job rotation. After all these steps – from assessing training needs, training objectives, and developing and conducting the course – it is the time to evaluate the project.

*Evaluation phase.*

After assessing training needs effectively and developing the program depending on the needs assessment, the next step is to evaluate training course. Evaluations are making judgments about something in terms of values, tangible changes, and statistical differences (Grubb & Ryan, 1999). Joint Committee Standards (1994) cites that “evaluation is the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of an object” (p. 3). Stake (2004) claims that “evaluation is always a determination of merit and shortcoming. Sometimes it is a lot more, but the essential function is the determination of merit” (p. 20). Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) explain that evaluation is giving a decision about reliability, performance, cost-worthiness, safety, qualifications, convenience, and integrity of the object. It can be inferred that the main aspects of evaluation are: making an assessment and judgment about the object that needs to be evaluated, articulating the advantages of the object, and identifying the disadvantages and weaknesses of the project.
Evaluation importance.

Training evaluation is an important part of the training operation because of the valuable advantages gained from it for all parties (organisation, training provider, and trainees) (Al-hosni et al., 2013). Stake (2004) claims that the main aim of training evaluation is to give proof whether training objectives have been accomplished or not. In order to make this judgment, the range of training outcomes needs to be kept in mind. For instance, if the training course is not only designed to benefit the trainee, but also the employer and the organisation, there should also be advantages for the public (Stake, 2004). Thus, professional evaluation should highlight the merits of the course from all potential perspectives. Otherwise, the benefits of evaluation can be limited and training will not get the useful feedback.

Additionally, Grubb and Ryan (1999) claim that the purpose of training evaluation should be to improve public and employer decisions about the effectiveness of the training, to explicitly tell individuals about their options, to improve the quality of the program, and to present the evaluation as an operation of public debate about the training. Additionally, Stake (2004) suggests six purposes are common in any training evaluation: measuring goal accomplishment, helping the development of organisation, enhancing contextual competency, investigating policy, encouraging social participation, and proving the worthiness of the program to avoid criticism. Keeping all these purposes in mind helps in raising awareness about the importance of training evaluation as studies especially in Arab World context, show noticeable neglect in training evaluation (Al-hosni et al., 2013; Jehanzeb et al., 2013) due to negative attitudes from management and training departments (Rae, 1999). Additionally, Rae (1999) illustrates some reasons behind underemphasising training evaluation such as: low awareness of the importance of evaluation, unclear vision about who or what department should undertake responsibility for training evaluation, time and effort consumption while
uncertain about evaluation benefits due to the awareness, the notion that some have that sees
evaluation as just a distributed questionnaire at the end of the program.

To emphasise the importance of training evaluation and the significant role in training
effectiveness Rae (1999) listed some consequences for ignoring training evaluation; 1) it will
be impossible for trainer to do trainer self-assessment, 2) It will be also impossible for doing
trainers’ assessment, 3) Training design will not be able to be assessed, 4) Learners’ reactions
will not be identified, 5) Trainees will not be able to see learning changes, 6) It will be
impossible to assess training transfer. These effects of ignoring training evaluation can be the
diminution of many training benefits. The following section will illustrate some approaches
to evaluating training.

Approaches to evaluation.

Grubb and Ryan (1999) emphasise that many factors can shape a precise training
evaluation. Firstly, distinguishing between general education, vocational training, and other
training is one factor that should be taken into account because misunderstanding in this area
can lead to inappropriate evaluation. The most important difference between them is in terms
of what is more general and what is more specific; for example, training is more specific than
vocational training and general education, whereas, general education is the most general of
the three. Secondly, Grubb and Ryan (1999) highlight the importance of identifying the
sponsor of the training, which could be the employer, the individual, or the government. Each
of them provides training with specific aims and targets specific people. Keeping this in mind
can explain the need for different evaluation methods. Thirdly, the nature of the targeted
trainees is one of the determining factors in the type of evaluation. Grubb and Ryan (1999)
identify four different types of training: pre-employment training, upgrade training,
retraining, and remedial training. Pre-employment training is specified for employees who
have just started work, upgrade training is designed to increase employees’ knowledge and
skills, retraining is aimed at employees who have lost their jobs and need some training to qualify them for new jobs, and remedial training is for people who have been jobless for a long period of time and who sometimes depend on public support. Lastly, Grubb and Ryan (1999) insist that multiple training outcomes are crucial, because ignoring this aspect will provide misleading results and incomplete evaluation reports. For example, “the emphasis on employment outcomes reflects the relatively specific goals of training (as compared to education), but that has in turn reinforced the notion that training programmes should be relatively unconcerned with non-economic outcomes” (p. 39). Training outcomes could not only be for individuals, as they would benefit from training in different areas, such as economics, learning, and skills, but could also be for other agents; for instance, increases in productivity, welfare and social programs, and social outcomes can be noticeably impacted by training (Grubb & Ryan, 1999).

As long as training evaluation includes all potential factors and measures any outcomes, there will be a strong impact and a broad coverage of what evaluation is expected to show. On the other hand, neglecting any of these factors and outcomes undermines the value of the evaluation and misrepresents the program. Also, as the purposes of training may differ, the type of evaluation will depend on the aim that training was designed to attain. According to Grubb and Ryan (1999), “the type and purpose of a particular VET programme may influence the kind of evaluation that should be undertaken” (p. 8). There are many approaches to determining the evaluation methods. One approach is that evaluation is combined of two types: formative evaluation and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation is distinct by its aim to develop the program and the evaluators are mostly from the inside of the organisation. On the other hand, summative evaluation focuses on how well the program worked in the specific situation (Stake, 2004). Accountability in terms of quality, cost suitability, and productivity are the main purposes of summative evaluation. In other
words, the aim of summative evaluation is to assess the effectiveness of the program and usually the evaluators are from outside of the organisation. Quite often, individuals use this method of evaluation to compare between products to choose the best product.

Another approach to evaluation is to look for the final benefit or for evaluation criteria which Stake (2004) named criterial and interpretive evaluation. Criterial evaluation concentrates on the use of measurements and is utilised for evaluation criteria and scales, while the interpretive method focuses on the continuous development of the program from the evaluator’s perspective. Another distinguishing point is that in criterial evaluation, being explicit is very important, but interpretive evaluation is much more implicit due to the difficulty in identifying the value standards in the design and final reports (Stake, 2004). It is necessary to talk about evaluation approaches quite broadly, as there are a variety of ways to approach the performance of evaluation. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) identified twenty three different approaches to evaluating any program, and each of them takes a unique position. For example, the approach can be objectives based, experimental design, consumer oriented, responsive and client centred, constructivist, or utilisation focused. One of the well-known ways to evaluate training is to utilise the hierarchical four-level model developed by Kirkpatrick (1983). Kirkpatrick (1983) suggests the following four levels for evaluating training:

1. Measuring training reaction e.g. trainees’ satisfaction and feeling.
2. Measuring learning change e.g. knowledge, skills, and abilities.
3. Measuring behaviour change e.g. skills and knowledge transfer due to training.
4. Measuring the result e.g. increase in production and quality improvement.

What is applicable to this study is the first level of this model; measuring trainees’ reaction due to the reciprocal benefits for both trainees and the training organisation, as
Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2005) stated that “reactions of participants should be measured on all programs for two reasons: to let the participants know the value of their reaction, and to measure their reactions and obtain suggestions for improvement.’’ (p 5)

Thus, it is important to recognise that due to the variation in training purposes, targets, and sponsors adding to the variation in training outcomes, there is not one specific way to evaluate training. However, an evaluator who is well aware of the program can design their evaluation to achieve optimal evaluation.

**Trainees’ Attitudes and Expectations Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework for the present study was developed through the review of the literature, which identified six constructs: job commitment, work support (organisational attitudes), self-efficacy, learning motivation (individual attitudes), trainees’ expectations, and training satisfaction. Additionally, as the aim of this study concerns the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction, the conceptual framework is the following:
The framework guiding this study begins with the trainee in job training. Trainees undergoing training have attitudes and expectations. Attitudes were divided into organisational attitudes and individual characteristics attitudes. For the organisational attitudes the focus is on two types of attitudes due to their significant role in regard to Job training as will be addressed soon in this chapter. These two attitudes are examined in this study. The other type of attitudes are individual attitudes such as the two main attitudes examined in this study, self-efficacy and learning motivation. These two individual attitudes were selected due to their importance in training effectiveness, as will be highlighted soon in this chapter. Expectations of training also play a role in training operation, such as trainees’ expectations of trainers, training content, and training environment. All these constructs (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, and trainees’ expectation of
training) according to the literature, have an influence on training satisfaction. Therefore, the last construct of the conceptual framework in this study is job training satisfaction.

**Trainees’ attitudes.**

I now move to the right of the conceptual framework and focus on the trainee. The trainee has an important role in the training operation because the trainee is the recipient of the training procedure. Training outcomes may vary because of individual differences among trainees. The focus in this study was on two types of attitudes: workplace attitudes and individual characteristics’ attitudes. Many studies have been done on trainees’ attitudes due to the significant role they play in the training field (Cheng & Ho, 2001; Ehrhardt et al., 2011; Malik et al., 2013; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008). Regarding the influence of job training on trainees’ attitudes, Al-Kassem (2014) emphasises that job training not only enhances productivity for the benefit of the business, but also helps to shape a trainee’s attitudes. Both organisational climate and individual attitudes will be addressed in the following sections.

**Organisational attitudes.**

Organisational surroundings play a significant role in training success. According to Lim and Morris (2006) “[O]rganizational climate variables are the work and environmental factors that inhibit, reduce, or promote training transfer” (p. 90). Moreover, Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, and Schmitt (2001) claim that the climate of the organisation mediates the interaction between human resource practice and organisational outcomes. Among organisational practices and according to the literature, to investigate their influence on job training satisfaction I selected for this study two types of attitudes: job commitment attitude and work support.
Job commitment.

Due to its influence on an employee’s productivity and human resource practices’ effectiveness, job commitment attitude is considered one of the crucial aspects in this field (Cohen, 2007). Job commitment, according to Porter and Steers (1974), refers to: “individual’s belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in an organization” (p. 603). Another description of organizational commitment is provided by Meyer and Allen (1997): “a committed employee is . . . one who stays with the organization through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full day (and maybe more), protects [the] company’s assets [as well as the goals of the] company” (p. 3). Job commitment can also be defined, according to Bartlett (2001) as “a person’s type and strength of attachment to his or her organization” (p. 336). From these definitions commitment is a strong feeling of attachment and belonging to the organisation, based on accepting the work’s values and protecting the establishment.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), there are three considerations to divide commitment into three categories: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) define affective commitment as “an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization”, continuance commitment as “commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization”, and normative commitment as “an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization” (p. 67).

Furthermore, Mowday and Porter (1982) claim that three factors can identify worker commitment: belief and acceptance of workplace values and goals, the ability to perform well on behalf of the organisation, and a high desire to belong to the organisation. In the study by Chen et al. (2015) researchers found that organisational trust and identification positively and significantly influence job commitment. Top, Akdere, and Tarcan (2015) in their study that
was conducted to compare the public and private sectors in term of job commitment, the study found that trust in the organisation, communication, and operating procedures are the significant predictors of organisational commitment in the public servant.

Organisational commitment is believed to be an antecedent factor in training operation, as it encourages employees to participate in training courses, but it can also be an outcome of training courses (S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). In addition, many studies assert the significant link between training and enhancing job commitment (Bartlett, 2001; Cheng & Ho, 2001; Lowry, Simon, & Kimberley, 2002; McGuire, Yap, Holmes, Hannan, & Cukier, 2010; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008; Tansky & Cohen, 2001; von Treuer, McHardy, & Earl, 2013). For instance, the development of the strong corporate culture is influenced by the probability of getting access to training through work which in turn positively affects job commitment (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Ehrhardt et al., 2011).

Similarly, Ismail (2016) in his study proved the influence of training on job commitment. He also found that learning goal orientation has a significant role in moderating this relationship meaning that employees who have a high level of learning goal orientation are likely to increase their job commitment after training. Moreover, a study by Bulut and Culha (2010) found that all the investigated training components (motivation for training, benefits from training, access to training, and support for training) were positively affecting employees’ commitment. Hence, paying more attention to employees’ training can significantly benefit an organisation because it enhances the loyalty and commitment of employees.

In addition, the level of job commitment can affect training outcomes. According to Cheng and Ho (2001) “[T]rainees with high commitment to their career or work are likely to exert considerable effort towards learning the training content, because these trainees have the intention of improving their job performance” (p. 21), therefore, it is worth further
investigation. Job commitment can be seen in employees’ behaviour in many ways; for example, the level of job involvement can reflect an employee’s job commitment. Therefore, some scholars have studied the role of job involvement in training outcomes (Arasanmi, 2013; Nikandrou, Brinia, & Bereri, 2009; Shen-Miller et al., 2014), and assert that there is a considerable linkage between job involvement and training motivation (Cheng & Ho, 2001; von Treuer et al., 2013). Moreover, Cheng and Ho (2001) studied the correlation between job involvement and pre-training motivation and found some barriers like the suppressor effect may prevent a significant relationship. The same result was found by Tepper (2000) who claims that abusive behaviour by managers leads to decrease normative and affective commitment.

One of the barriers that reduce job commitment is unjust behaviours inside the organisation. Qureshi, Frank, Lambert, Klahm, and Smith (2017) investigated the relationship between two perceptions of justice inside the organisation: distributive which could be known as ‘fairness in outcomes’ and procedural which could be known as ‘fairness in procedures/processes’, with job satisfaction and commitment of Indian police officers. Qureshi et al. (2017) found the significant association between those factors stated that: “perceptions of distributive and procedural justice are positively associated with satisfaction from the job and affective commitment” (p. 18). In addition, R. Noe and Schmitt (1986) consider trainees’ involvement in their job as an important antecedent of learning and behaviour change. These barriers may be some of the causes of poor job commitment in Arab World contexts as Al-Sayyed (2014) claimed.

Work support.

Another important organisational factor that is associated with training success is work support. Work support is divided into two types depending on the source of the support as Bulut and Culha (2010) explained:
The directions of support are either vertical or horizontal; vertical support is perceived support from superiors or tenured co-workers; horizontal support is the degree to which peers are willing to help their colleagues in good faith by, for example, solving problems or implementing an improved way of working (p. 313).

Regardless of the source of the support some employees consider the need for praise and approval as the type of work support they need (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Work support creates benefits in various ways such as workers’ motivation, productivity, training transfer, and job commitment (Bartlett, 2001; Facteau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, & Kudisch, 1995). Employees need a sufficient amount of support to be motivated to acquire new skills and knowledge and to transfer what they have gained into their workplace (Guan, 2012). Motivation to both learn and transfer is crucial, and there is a strong relationship between employees’ motivation and organisational support (Bhatti, Ali, Mohd Isa, & Mohamed Battour, 2014; Ravichandran, Cichy, Powers, & Kirby, 2015; Shariff & Al-Makhadmah, 2012). Although, these benefits of work support help to develop both employee and organisation it has been reported there is a lack of management support in some studies in the Arab World and Saudi context (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Shafloot, 2012).

Regarding the increase in employees’ productivity, work support also has a role to play. For example, when an organisation supports its employees to develop skills, and conducts new means in practicing their works, this will encourage employees to establish behavioural obligations to evolve themselves in doing their jobs (Butcher, Sparks, & McColl-Kennedy, 2009; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Another benefit of supporting employees for training is that it influences employees’ attitudes and behaviours toward training (Ja Colquitt, Lepine, & Noe, 2000).

One example of organisational support is promoting job training and making training courses accessible to employees. In their study, Dhamodharan, Daniel, and Ms (2010)
suggest that organisations can increase their employees’ commitment by facilitating training to employees. Similarly, Bartlett (2001) found that having support for training positively affects job commitment and this relationship is moderated by job satisfaction. Although, lacking work support makes employees feel betrayed and less committed to the job, they feel obligated to the organisation when they perceive proper support (Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

As workplace incentives are considered a sort of work support to training they seem to play a crucial role in pre-training motivation. For instance, one of the incentives is a monetary incentive; Koffarnus, DeFulio, Sigurdsson, and Silverman (2013) claim that monetary incentives can develop employees’ performance during a training program. Furthermore, the researchers suggest that the payment should be linked to the trainee’s performance, not just to attendance, as this strategy would encourage the trainee to interact with the program. Eisenberger et al. (1986) explained how material rewards can vary and asserted their effect in the perception of work support: “Material rewards such as pay, rank, job enrichment, and influence over policy would increase perceived support to the extent that they signified positive evaluations” (p. 504).

Conversely, Chiaburu and Marinova (2005) questioned 186 employees to investigate the predictors of training transfer and found no relationship between supervisory support and both transfer and pre-training motivation. This contradiction can be justified by the missing role of the personal impact, because the influence of organisational support for career development on employees’ satisfaction relies on employee proactivity and motivation; Barnett and Bradley (2007) assert that there is a strong relationship between personal proactivity and employees’ satisfaction being moderated by career management behaviours. In other words, work support affects employees’ behaviours under certain circumstances depending on their personal attitudes toward management.
Individual characteristics.

Trainees’ individual characteristics and attitudes have been shown to have a big role in training satisfaction (Cheng & Ho, 2001; Lundgren & Knight, 1977; R. Noe & Schmitt, 1986). Both self-efficacy and learning motivation will be discussed in the following two sections.

Self-efficacy.

One of the individual differences that may affect the outcomes of training is a trainee’s belief in their own capacity and ability (Tai, 2006). A trainee’s self-efficacy plays a crucial role in the training operation and has been investigated in training research (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Li, 2013; Tai, 2006). However, in the study by Tutticci, Lewis, and Coyer (2016) there is lack of self-efficacy research in terms of its role in training operations. Tutticci et al. (2016) argue that the impact of self-efficacy on learning satisfaction and outcomes is neglected and requires more studies. One of the early definitions of self-efficacy is Bandura (1986) who defines perceived self-efficacy as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p. 391). This judgment is not about the individual’s skills but it is about what an individual can do with these skills, because it can be that two individuals perform differently while they have the same skill, due to their believe of their self-efficacy (Dykes, 2011).

Furthermore, Tannenbaum et al. (1991) defined self-efficacy and claim that: “[S]elf-efficacy refers to the belief in one's capability to perform a specific task” (p. 759). Rimm and Jerusalem (1999) cite that “General self-efficacy refers to a global confidence in one’s coping ability across a wide range of demanding or difficult situations and reflects a broad and stable confidence in dealing effectively with rather diverse stressful situations” (p. 330). Although some may use self-efficacy and self-confidence interchangeably, Bandura (1997) argues that
they are different. Bandura (1997) believes that self-efficacy refers to individual’s belief of the capability about a particular goal, whereas, self-confidence is related to individual’s belief about him/her self in general.

A strong sense of self-efficacy is linked to high achievement, good health, and social integration (Bandura, 1997; Maddux, 1995; Schwarzer, 1992). To clearly understand the importance of self-efficacy and its direct influence on training Bandura (2000) explains that self-efficacy influences self-motivation, and thus goals and aspirations, which, in turn, determines the extent of effort exerted and the time given to overcoming difficulties. Moreover, in their study Sinclair and Ferguson (2009) inferred the importance of self-efficacy to the reason that it is connected to the social cognitive theory. They explained that it is particularly important in evaluating training because learning through training integrates processes such as cognition, vicarious ability, self-reflection, and self-regulation which are considered social cognitive theory supportive processes.

In addition, Ma, Zeng, and Ye (2015) assert that “Social-cognitive theory holds that an individual learns by observing others, and such observational learning and social experience of an individual are important to the development of his or her personality” (p. 311). As a result, Bandura (1986) claims that as a core construct of the theory of social cognition, self-efficacy is believed to have a crucial role in behaviour development, human functions, and goals.

Therefore, a good understanding of employees’ self-efficacy helps managers to choose training that is tailored to fit them. It has been found that employees with a low self-efficacy prefer training that tells them what to do and how to do it exactly, which is called prescriptive training (Jones, 1986; Saks, 1995). More explanations were given by Rimm and Jerusalem (1999) who stated:
Individuals who are characterized by generally low perceived efficacy are prone to self-doubts, anxiety arousal, threat appraisals and perception of coping deficiencies. A low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness, low self-esteem and pessimistic thoughts about one’s accomplishments and personal development. (p. 330)

On the other hand, those who have a high self-efficacy tend to prefer training that encourages them to innovate and restructure their roles (Bandura, 2000). Rimm and Jerusalem (1999) also justified that:

People with a high sense of efficacy trust in their own capabilities to master different types of environmental demands. They tend to interpret task demands and problems more as challenges than as threats or subjectively uncontrollable events. High perceived efficacy enables individuals to face stressful demands with confidence, feel motivated by physiological arousal, and judge positive events as being caused by personal and negative events by external circumstances. (p. 330)

As a predictor of training satisfaction, Artino (2008) found that contents value, self-efficacy, and trainer competency significantly predict the trainees’ satisfaction with a self-paced online training course. Likewise, in an online training course, Gunawardena, Linder-Vanberschot, Lapointe, and Rao (2010) studied the potential factors that predict trainees’ satisfaction and revealed that the strongest predictor of training satisfaction is online self-efficacy. Furthermore, self-efficacy has a relationship with other training factors, as many studies found a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and trainees’ expectations of usefulness (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010; Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Motivation for training has also been shown to be a factor that is associated with a trainee’s self-efficacy (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Govindarajulu, 2009).
Learning motivation.

The importance of studying individuals’ characters such as their motivation for learning is highly recommended (Ja Colquitt et al., 2000; S. I. Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). For instance Pintrich, Cross, Kozma, and McKeachie (1986) have noted the importance of studying individual effects in learning outcomes and cited that:

What the learner brings to the instructional situation in prior knowledge and cognitive skills is of crucial importance. Although there is a variety of learner characteristics that influence learning and instruction […] two of the most important are intelligence and motivation. (p. 613)

Moreover, some studies claim that motivation is considered as an antecedent and an outcome of training (S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). According to Ja Colquitt et al. (2000) training motivation can be defined as “the direction, intensity, and persistence of learning-directed behavior in training contexts” (p. 678). In addition, Cheng and Ho (2001), defined motivation to learn as “the specific desire of a learner to learn the content of a training program” (p. 21). Motivation can be described as the ability to answer these three questions: why learners select a specific activity, for how long learners are willing to continue, and how much effort learners invest in it? (Dörnyei, 2001).

In the light of expectancy theory by Vroom (1964), some researchers inferred that trainees’ belief in training effectiveness significantly affects training success. For instance, Mathieu, Tannenbaum, and Salas (1992) suggested that motivation is a result of the idea that the development in job performance (caused by training) helps in the feeling of accomplishment, increasing salary and more chance in promotion. Therefore, trainees with the highest expectations of training have the highest motivation. Moreover, trainees who value training outcomes are more likely to have high training motivation (Jason Colquitt & Simmering, 1998).
Motivational beliefs directly predict trainees’ satisfaction (Artino, 2008); Pilati and Borges-Andrade (2008) claim that both trainees’ motivation and satisfaction predict training effectiveness. Motivation can be divided into two types, motivation to learn or train and motivation to transfer; however, they are usually linked (Govindarajulu, 2009; Peters, Barbier, Faulx & Hansez, 2012). According to Ja Colquitt et al. (2000) there is a variety of factors that result in motivation and can be classified into two types – personal and external factors. Personal factors have been noted by Ja Colquitt et al. (2000) such as the big five personality, locus of control, cognitive playfulness, positive and negative affectivity, need for dominance, competitiveness, and anxiety.

On the other hand, external factors named by Ja Colquitt et al. (2000) are: job involvement, commitment to the job, carrier exploration, and carrier planning. Furthermore, some scholars have also identified factors that could directly enhance training motivation and suggest that there are many factors that work simultaneously, such as reputation of the program, intrinsic motive, organisational commitment, support (Facteau et al., 1995), trainees’ characteristics, and training design (Arasanmi, 2013).

As training motivation is influenced by individual and carrier traits, certain demographical variables have been shown as influencing factors in training motivation. For example, the age factor has been investigated in many studies and found negatively related to learning motivation (Gist, Rosen, & Schwoerer, 1988; Martocchio, 1994). This relationship is explained from different aspects, for instance some studies suggest that aging decreases the ability in skills such as problem solving and memory capacity (Poon, 1985). Additionally, Sterns and Doverspike (1989) suggest that fear of failure increases through aging, preventing older employees from participating in training activities. It has been noted that age negatively affects employees participating in training (Cleveland & Shore, 1992). Furthermore, younger
employees have shown more interest in engaging in training comparing to older employees (McEnrue, 1989).

Many studies show the positive impact of training motivation on training outcomes in both intrinsic and extrinsic reactions (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Chiaburu & Tekleab, 2005; Govindarajulu, 2009; Harris et al., 2014; Mathieu et al., 1992; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008; Sitzmann, Brown, Casper, Ely, & Zimmerman, 2008). Training motivation depends partially on a trainee’s expectations and perceptions, as they play a significant role in creating or increasing motivation to train (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Some studies suggest that an employee’s job commitment and involvement are noticeably associated with training motivation, and sometimes they predict a high level of learning motivation (Bartlett, 2001; Cheng & Ho, 2001; von Treuer et al., 2013).

Likewise, transfer motivation is influenced by many factors; for instance, job involvement (Cheng & Ho, 2001; von Treuer et al., 2013) and trainee’s attitude (von Treuer et al., 2013) have been shown to be influencing factors in a trainee’s motivation to transfer. During the training course, some factors such as training environment and opportunities for interaction have been identified as associated factors that enhance a trainee’s motivation to transfer (Peters et al., 2012). In terms of training outcomes, a trainee’s motivation to transfer has been identified as a predictor or a factor for both training satisfaction and for transferring skills into the workplace (Bhatti et al., 2014).

Trainees’ expectations.

Due to the correlation of trainees’ expectations with training satisfaction (S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991) and being an influencing factor in motivation (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010; Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994; Tannenbaum et al., 1991), this section will shed light on trainees’ expectations of the training context, such as the trainer, the content, and the training environment. As a training fulfilment concept needs prior expectations to know to what
extent training has met a trainee’s desire or expectations (Tannenbaum et al., 1991), more investigation needs to be undertaken on the nature of trainees’ expectations and how these expectations affect their attitude about the perceived training.

When talking about trainees’ expectations the expectancy theory should be addressed to give broad understanding of the situation and how this theory can explain trainees’ behaviours in the training operation. The expectancy theory of motivation was developed by Vroom (1964) and it explains the process used to make decision among various alternatives. According to Liao, Liu, and Pi (2011) “expectancy theory is a process theory of motivation, suggesting that expenditure of an individual’s effort will be determined by expected outcomes and the value placed on such outcomes in a person’s mind” (p. 252).

The expectancy theory is supported by empirical studies (Tien, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte & Feather, 2005). Moreover, it is considered as one of the most used theories in regard to workplace motivation (Heneman & Schwab, 1972; T. R. Mitchell & Biglan, 1971). However, some scholars criticised this theory because of its lack of constructs’ validity (T. Mitchell, 1974) and external validity (Vaneerde & Thierry, 1996). Nevertheless, Robbins (1983) stated, “though expectancy theory has its critics, it has generally developed results that indicate it is currently the clearest and most accurate explanation of individual motivation” (p. 152).

There are three components of this theory that result in the individual motivational force: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. Each will be explained in turn. According to S. Lee (2007) expectancy can be defined as “a person’s estimation of the probability that effort will lead to successful performance” (p. 789). Chiang and Jang (2008) claim that expectancy is one’s anticipation that effort exerted will lead to the wanted outcomes and is based on “past experience, self-confidence, and the perceived difficulty of the performance goal” (p. 314). Instrumentality can be identified as a person’s thoughts about the likelihood of
outcomes out from the performance. According to S. Lee (2007) “It is related to the individual’s beliefs or expectations that if he or she behaves in a certain way, he or she will get certain things” (p. 790). It is according to Chiang and Jang (2008) influenced by factors such as trust, policies, and control. Last but not least is Valence which, according to Vroom, (1964) refers to: “affective orientations toward particular outcomes” (p. 15). In other words, it is the anticipated outcomes of the task. According to Chiang and Jang (2008) valence “refers the value the individual personally places on rewards: the function of needs, goals, values and preferences” (p. 314).

To sum up, the expectancy theory explains motivation as a result of three components. Firstly Expectancy can be explained when someone anticipates that this effort will result in a desired performance. Then Instrumentality, which means when person expects that this performance will lead to desired outcomes. Finally, Valence is when a person values the rewards that are results of outcomes. The result of these components together will determine the force of motivation as Chiang and Jang (2008) stated: “Expectancy theory is presented as follows: motivation force = expectancy × instrumentality × valence” (p. 314). After highlighting the theoretical aspect of expectations, the role of expectations in training is discussed next.

Expectations can also be influenced by prior information about the course, the trainer, and the training content. The reputation of trainer and course could play a role in trainees’ expectations. Therefore, Ellencweig, Weizman, and Fischel (2009) investigated the satisfaction of 100 employees who had recently completed a training course and gave them a list of factors to place in order regarding their importance. Researchers found that the quality of supervision and the high reputation of the course and the training provider were the most important factors. The same result was reported in a similar study in the USA (Ellencweig et al., 2009).
The impact of trainees’ expectations on other factors has been investigated in a range of studies. S. Tannenbaum et al. (1991) found positive relationships among trainees’ expectations, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and training motivation. Meanwhile, Tharenou (2001) asserts that trainees’ level of participation in training is based on their expectations, and Shen-Miller et al. (2014) established that there is a positive impact of trainees’ expectations on their learning experience. Furthermore, cognitive complexity of the expected competencies is considered to be the key element of the type of training that moderates the link between training satisfaction and training effectiveness (Pilati & Borges-Andrade, 2008). Therefore, trainees’ expectations of the training context could play a major role in training effectiveness and consequently it needs further examination.

An important example of expectations is trainees’ expectations of the utility of training. Perception of the utility and validity of training has been shown to be an effect of self-efficacy (Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994) whereas, Bhatti and Sharan (2010) found that it increases self-efficacy. Some researchers consider it to be a predictor and factor of motivation to learn and transfer (Peters et al., 2012; von Treuer et al., 2013). Moreover, Artino (2008) believes that trainees’ perception of the learning environment is significantly related to both trainees’ motivation and training satisfaction. That is to say, the perceived effectiveness of training can create a great motivation to train and transfer the skills, rather than the significant relationship with training satisfaction.

Additionally, trainees’ expectations of the relevance between training content and workplace requirements (efficiency, usefulness, and content validity) have been investigated in training research as some scholars indicate that there is a positive relationship between a trainee’s attitudes about training usefulness and training satisfaction (Bradley & Lee, 2007; Giangreco et al., 2009).
Training satisfaction.

When organisations develop their employees, they tend to focus on improving their knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Wexley, 1991) and hope that they are satisfied with improvement processes (Huang & Su, 2016; Schmidt, 2009). This is often not the only goal of job training, but training satisfaction can generate a positive reaction toward the job and the organisation (Huang & Su, 2016). Huang and Su (2016), in their study concluded that: “it becomes important for Human Resource Development professionals to consider both the delivery of the training to the employees and the employees’ satisfaction with the training approach when designing the training program” (p. 49). In other words, the responsibility of the training specialist is not only to give the training, but also to ensure trainees’ satisfaction with the course as their satisfaction also is considered one of the four levels Kirkpatrick (1983) suggested to evaluate training.

According to Kirkpatrick (1983), trainees’ satisfaction is considered to be the first level for evaluating training. Many factors interact to influence the training satisfaction (Choi, Zhao, Joung, & Suh, 2014; Huang; Huang & Su, 2016; Latif, Jan, & Shaheen, 2013; Schmidt, 2009; Tello, García, Moscoso & Chaves, 2006). Satisfaction can reflect the usefulness levels and to what extent trainees intend to transfer skills to the workplace (Egan, Yang, & Bartlett, 2004). Moreover, trainees’ reaction to training is believed to enhance trainees’ intention to participate in more training and development activities offered by the organisation (R. A. Noe & Wilk, 1993). Schmidt (2007) defines training satisfaction as “the extent to which people like or dislike the set of planned activities organized to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to effectively perform a given task or job” (p. 483).

One of the important aspects of measuring trainees’ satisfaction is its strong relationship with both organisational context and individual characteristics. Many empirical studies confirm the high impact of trainees’ satisfaction on overall job satisfaction (Adesola,
Job satisfaction is defined as an employee’s attitude and feeling about the job when considering the different aspects of their job (Spector, 1997). Many studies also proved that there is a link between perceived job training and overall job satisfaction (Egan et al., 2004; Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003; Rowden, 2002; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008; Selzer, 2008). Fu et al. (2014) claim that there is a high impact of training satisfaction on employees’ performance as their confidence about the new job suitability to them increases, which could enhance their motivation to do better. It has also been observed that employees’ loyalty could be enhanced by their job satisfaction, which is significantly associated with trainees’ satisfaction (Chang, Chiu, & Chen, 2010). Moreover, (Bartlett, 2001; Tansky & Cohen, 2001) reported that, trainees who are satisfied with their job training are more likely to be committed to their organisation. Job satisfaction was also found to moderate the relationship between job training and training transfer (Zumrah, 2013).

With regard to trainees’ individual characteristics, some researchers argue that a trainee’s attitude and motivation to learn is a major factor in the trainee’s satisfaction (Harris et al., 2014; Lim & Morris, 2006). In their study Lim and Morris (2006) aimed to examine the relationship between instructional factors, trainees’ perceived learning, and the transfer of learning. Researchers found that there is a significant relationship between trainees’ learning, learning transfer, and instructional factors. By instructional factors they meant overall learning satisfaction, the helpfulness of the learning content to the job, the quality of the learning content, instructor effectiveness, and instructional level. In this study, researchers found that the quality of the training and trainees’ satisfaction can work together as instructional factors in the training transaction. Additionally, Harris et al. (2014) explored trainees’ attitudes toward training as a predictor of satisfaction and the competency of the instructor. Harris et al. (2014) emphasised satisfaction was resultant on “the extent to which a
trainer is viewed as an expert and reliable source of information and skills in the content area” (p. 271). They concluded that trainees’ satisfaction was an interactive factor of both the trainees’ attitudes and instructor competency, with a high impact factor for instructor competency. As the study supports the idea that trainees’ satisfaction is a result of both the competence of the instructor and trainee motivation, it also suggests that the highest level of trainee satisfaction guarantees the highest enhancement of learning and training transfer.

In contrast, Bradley and Lee (2007) and Schmidt (2009) investigated external variables to explore the correlation. Bradley and Lee (2007) conducted their study to identify the differences in training satisfaction in trainees categorised by gender, job type, and educational level. The findings of this study showed differences in trainee satisfaction based on gender and job type, but there was no variation based on educational level. Schmidt’s (2009) study investigated the influence of job training satisfaction on employees in nine organisations in Canada and the United States. The study found that there was a difference in employees’ satisfaction related to the length of employment; for example, employees in their first year of work were more satisfied than others. In addition, temporary employees were more satisfied than permanent staff. Thus, age and experience in this study was shown to have a role in job training satisfaction.

Some studies have been conducted to examine factors that could determine trainees’ satisfaction. For example, Latif (2012) notes that there are four main indicators to satisfaction with training which are: satisfaction with the training session, the content, and the trainer, and the level of training transfer. In addition, Schmidt (2007) states that factors that significantly affect training satisfaction are: course length, the training methods used in training and content. The way training is presented has a crucial role in the effectiveness of training and satisfaction. This confirms the importance of designing training in a systematic way that pays
attention to the proper training method used and providing the relevant content in a suitable period of time.

The evidence from the literature suggests that measuring trainees’ satisfaction is important when evaluating training. However, Gessler (2009) questions the reliability of evaluating training courses based on trainees’ satisfaction. The researcher evaluated 335 trainees on their reaction, learning, and behaviour to investigate the correlations. Gessler (2009) argued that there is no relationship between reaction and learning, and reaction and behaviour. Evaluating training regarding trainees’ satisfaction is still uncertain and needs more investigation (Gessler, 2009).

Allocating the knowledge gap.

After reviewing the literature, many studies have been conducted in the training context from various perspectives and it seems that the interactions among pre-training attitudes, expectations, satisfaction, and post-training attitudes have been investigated in many studies to articulate their impact on training effectiveness (Galanou & Priporas, 2009; Ghosh, Prasad Joshi, Satyawadi, Mukherjee, & Ranjan, 2011; R. Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Sahinidis & Bouris, 2008; Santos & Stuart, 2003). For instance, here are some related studies that draw attention to the knowledge gap that this study aimed to fill.

First, S. Tannenbaum et al. (1991) examined training fulfilment, which means “the extent to which the training met trainees' expectations and desires” (p. 763), thus the relationship between trainees’ expectations and post-training attitudes such as organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation. The researchers conducted their research at a US Naval Recruit Training Command. Recruit training is an eight-week socialisation-type training process and the study sample was 666 military participants who had attended this course. They answered one questionnaire before the program and one questionnaire after they had finished the program. The results of this study indicate that there is a significant impact
of trainees’ expectations, reactions, and performance on post-training attitudes (organisational commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation).

This study has raised two important questions. Firstly, although S. Tannenbaum et al. (1991) claimed that trainees’ pre-attitudes directly affect their post-training attitudes, the question is about the nature of the relationship between pre-training attitudes and trainees’ satisfaction, which in turn could lead to improving organisational post-training attitudes so satisfaction can be considered a crucial factor. Secondly, although Tannenbaum et al.’s (1991) study asserted that there is a strong relationship between trainees’ expectations and satisfaction on the one hand and post-training attitudes on the other hand, the link between trainees’ expectations and trainees’ satisfaction needs more investigation. By studying the nature of the relationship between pre-training attitudes and expectations and post-training attitudes and satisfaction, the following issues may be addressed. First, by considering the importance of post-training attitudes, this study may help to give a broader understanding of the complexity of the operation. Second, knowing the nature of the relationship between attitudes and satisfaction may illustrate why some useful programs and trainers fail to satisfy some trainees. Third, exploring the link between trainees’ expectations and trainees’ satisfaction could make satisfying trainees much easier, which, in turn, develops training outcomes in all its facets. Fourth, researchers have recommended further examination of the factors that affect trainees’ expectations and pre-training attitudes (S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Fifth, researchers have also recommended studying the role of trainees’ expectations in different types of training methods and context (S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991).

Second, to explore the influence of trainees’ attitudes toward their job (job involvement and career commitment), Cheng and Ho (2001) conducted a study to specify the effect of this attitude on learning motivation and learning transfer. The study was applied in Hong Kong on a sample of 81 participants who had completed their course not more than one
year previously, to gauge the extent to which employees were motivated to learn and transfer their learning after they return to work, and how it affected their job involvement and career commitment. The researchers found a significant relationship between career commitment, learning motivation, and learning transfer, but there was no noticeable relationship between job involvement, motivation, and transfer. Cheng and Ho’s (2001) study is very useful for this study; however, it has some limitations due to the small size of the sample, and the fact that researchers did not investigate the pre-attitudes and expectations considering their interaction with training effectiveness generally, and trainees’ satisfaction in particular.

Third, the trainees’ perspective of training effectiveness is considered to be a major aspect of training evaluation. Sahinidis and Bouris (2008) conducted their study on 134 employees and small sectors managers of five large organisations in Greece after they had finished a training program. The aim of this study was to investigate trainees’ attitudes toward the effectiveness of the program and its influence on job satisfaction, commitment, and motivation. The results of this study emphasise the strong relationships between job satisfaction, commitment, and motivation additionally to their correlation with trainees’ perception of training effectiveness. This study generated a question: while this study focused on the relationship between trainees’ perception of training effectiveness and organisational outcomes (job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment), what determines the trainees’ impression of the training course? There must be organisational input that determines trainees’ reaction, which, in turn, influences organisational outcomes. In other words, there is a need to investigate the relationship between trainees’ pre-attitudes and their reactions toward the course, as it is necessary to have a complete view of the training process. Nevertheless, Sahinidis and Bouris (2008) admit that this study was limited to investigating the trainees’ feelings, regardless of the individual characteristics that need to be taken into account.
Finally, in contrast to the previous study, R. Noe and Schmitt (1986) developed an exploratory model to illustrate the impact of an employee’s career and job attitude on the outcomes of training. Noe and Schmitt’s (1986) study was done in the United States by a sample of sixty educators who had completed a course and answered a questionnaire about their job attitudes and training outcomes (learning, performance improvement and behaviour change). The results of their study suggested the importance of job involvement and work planning in self-learning development and behaviour change. However, the results are limited because of the small size of the sample and reliance on only one questionnaire. Although this study is important, the researchers neglected the important personal aspects, such as self-esteem and motivation which may play a major role and the impact of expectations on the training outcomes.

Thus, investigating trainees’ satisfaction from trainees’ organisational attitudes, individual characteristics and expectations will contribute to the knowledge gap in this field. Additionally, the international context will give this study added importance because it will be conducted in one of the training institutions in Saudi Arabia, where there is a lack of empirical training studies (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Albahussain, 2000; Alzalabani, 2002).

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature about training, giving insight about training barriers that influence job training in Saudi Arabia. Training quality and evaluation were reviewed to indicate the importance of training satisfaction. Consequently, the conceptual framework of this study was drawn on the light of the previous concepts to drive this study by measuring trainees’ selected attitudes and expectations and training satisfaction. Identifying the relationships and mediating aspects were one of the aims of this study. Thus, the following chapter addresses the steps and procedure of conducting this study and related issues.
Chapter Four: Methodology

As the aim of this study is to investigate the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction, this chapter is elucidating the methodology employed. This chapter outlines the selected design, and the procedures used to conduct the study and analyse the results. This study aims to answer the main question: ‘What is the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction?’.

Design of the Study

According to Creswell (2009) “research designs are plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis” (p.3). There is an existing gap in the literature in terms of the effects of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on their satisfaction and, because of the lack of training studies in the Saudi context, this study focuses on the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on their satisfaction with courses offered by a specific training institute in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, a sequential explanatory mixed methods design is used in this study. According to Creswell (2009), the straightforward nature of the sequential explanatory mixed methods research is one of the features that distinguish this type of research. The easiness of implementation, description and reportage is also another advantage of the sequential mixed methods research because of the clear and separate stages followed in this design (Creswell, 2009).

The structure of this study included two phases: quantitative data followed by qualitative data (Creswell, 2007). In keeping with this design, I used a survey to gather quantitative data. Qualitative methods helped to further explain the results and add some useful interpretations. The sequential explanatory mixed methods design was chosen because of the limitations of the quantitative data, which provided only general answers. Qualitative
data and their analysis are significant because of the beneficial explanations and additions that come from the participants’ views (Creswell, 2007; Tashakkori, 1998).

Leary (2004) suggests that there are three key prerequisites for a research design. First the design chosen addresses the research questions. Second, the researcher has to be aiming to develop the needed skills to apply the research plan. Third, the elements of the design have to be practically achievable. Research methods need to suit the research questions (Leary, 2004). Yin (2003) states that the research design is the process of ensuring that data collection and analysis are meaningfully related to the research question. The aim of this study is not just to indicate the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction, but also to explain how and why this occurs, so mixed methods as a research design is suitable to determine how and why trainees’ attitudes and expectations impact training satisfaction (Yin, 2003). Mixed methods research in the educational field will be discussed in detail below.

**Mixed methods research.**

Mixed methods research can be defined as “a research design with philosophical assumption as well as methods of inquiry … it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies” (Creswell, 2007, p. 5). It is a methodology that has become widespread in the social and educational fields. The increase in the utilisation of mixed methods research is due to the range of factors that are involved in social issues (Hesse-Biber, 2010).

The rationale behind the use of the mixed methods approach is to gain a deeper understanding of the case study by means of both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Mixed data collection methods allow researchers to undertake rich analysis (Yin, 2003). Since the major benefit of the mixed methods approach is that it helps to answer explanatory and
confirmatory questions, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) claim that the mixed methods approach accomplishes two goals: (1) it demonstrates the predicted relationships among study constructs, and (2) it explains how the predicted influence actually happens.

As the nature of such studies is about seeking an explanation of these complex interactions, the shape of the linkage could be accomplished by using quantitative methods, such as surveying a group of trainees about the identified factors. However, to obtain a thorough understanding of what affects trainees’ satisfaction, and also to evoke some related issues, it was necessary to use qualitative methods, such as the semi-structured interview, to try to find themes that broadly explain the potential factors involved and how these factors interact with each other to determine the level of trainees’ satisfaction. Creswell (2007) identified three situations where a mixed methods design is the best design to use, and this project meets all these requirements: the need for both quantitative and qualitative approaches, the need to involve another source of data for the study, and the need for explanation of the quantitative results. The advantages of utilising a mixed-methods design is that using words, narrative, and pictures adds a helpful meaning to the language of numbers (Bergman, 2008; R. B. Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

**Case study.**

Examining a case in-depth in its real-life context is regarded as the key strength of the case study method (Yin, 2003). More importantly though, implementing a case-study approach helped the study to be focused and narrowed down to particular phenomenon (Bassey, 1999; Yin, 2003). According to Robson (1993), the case study methodology has the following features:

A strategy, i.e. a stance or approach, rather than a method, such as observation or interview. Concerned with research, taken in a broad sense. Empirical in the sense
of relying on the collection of evidence about what is going on. About the particular; a study of a specific case. Focused on a phenomenon in context. Using multiple methods of evidence or data collection. (p. 52)

In addition, Yin (2003) asserts that a case study is a “comprehensive research strategy” (p. 14) and “all-encompassing method” (p. 14) and can investigate “a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident” (p. 13). When research generates explanatory or descriptive questions, Yin (2003) suggests applying the case study method to develop a better understanding of people and situations. In contrast, some scholars criticise the case study approach due to its limitations and inability to be generalised (Walker, Lewis & Laskey, 1996). That criticism is acknowledged but it can be compensated for by using quantitative data. However, Walker et al. (1996) regard this point as a unique feature in case study research:

Case studies that are more than superficial to stall any attempts that are made to generalise or theorise from a narrow conceptual base. Case studies are best used to counter generalisations, not exemplify or support them. (p. 41)

Yin (2003) recommends that case studies should not be exclusively qualitative. Case studies may be conducted in different ways by using different ranges of data, including quantitative data and any type of qualitative data, such as taking notes, observations, and interviews. The present research combined a survey and semi-structured interviews. The quantitative data measures trainees’ impressions about the study’s constructs and the qualitative data provides interpretations about these findings.

Thus, in keeping with case study design, this project focuses the specific case of the training department at Umm Al-Qura University. I chose this case because it is at the same
time a typical and special training place. The studied course is typical with regard to the nature of job training in the public sector but special because of the content of the course and the target employees. The training institute that conducts the studied course has its status due to the reputation of the university that fosters this training. More specifically, the preparation of the committee member course that was running in late 2015 and early 2016 is the case for this study. More details about the course are provided in the following chapter.

Positionality

An important consideration that is taken into account is my position as a former staff member of the Training Department in the Higher Institution for Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice at Umm Al-Qura University. However, there is no supervisory role between the trainees and me or between the Training Department and me. I started working in the department in 2012 as a lecturer in the educational discipline. In addition, I used to deliver some of the training courses in this department when needed. In May 2013, I temporarily left the university to complete my PhD in Australia. Therefore as the trainees all came from outside of the training department they would have no knowledge of the previous position held by me. I introduced myself as a researcher, not as a former trainer in this department. I also made it clear that the interview had nothing to do with the final course score and also encouraged participants to express their feelings and feel free to criticise or make suggestions, because all input would benefit the training department as well as the training literature. Finally, at the time of data collection I had no affiliation with the training department, which gave me more confidence to disclose any information or discuss any issue with participants without potential bias.

Selection of Participants

Following the procedure applied in Monash university regarding research ethics and integrity, I got the ethics approval before I proceeded to collect the data (see appendix no. 6).
As discussed above, this study was conducted on a specific training program called the Preparation of the Committee Member course. This program is one of the training courses that the training department at Umm Al-Qura University offers. Additionally, the beneficiaries were employees from a specific organisation called the General Presidency of the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice. The duration of the course is nine weeks and every week has forty hours specialised sessions of training, which is 360 hours of training for the entire program. At the time of data collection there were about 150 trainees in this course, divided into five groups. Participants for the questionnaire and interview were selected as illustrated below.

**Survey participants.**

The method of sampling used in this study is purposive sampling. According to Davies (2007), purposeful sampling is used “to identify and target individuals who are believed to be ‘typical’ of the population being studied, or perhaps to interview all individuals within a subpopulation that is deemed to be typical of the whole” (p. 57). The questionnaire was distributed to all 150 trainees who were in the same training course and from the same organisation. Not all the questionnaires were returned, and after excluding the incomplete copies, there were 118 completed questionnaires.

**Interview participants.**

The researcher attached consent forms to the questionnaire to invite interested trainees to do an interview, and twelve trainees indicated their desire to participate in the interview. The sampling method is also a purposive sample because the number of target interviewees was small only twelve interviewees, with only two of them being nominated by trainers because of to their ability to express their opinions effectively.
The rate of response.

Following the ethical approval instructions, the survey and the consent form were distributed together to all five groups during the last sessions after the trainers left. The researcher explained to each class the objectives of the research and the necessary issues. After that, the researcher asked whoever was interested in answering the survey to fill in the consent form and the questionnaire, and to indicate if he was willing to be interviewed. Although some trainees were absent and there were some uncompleted copies, the rate of response was high, because after collecting the valid documents, there were 118 participants for the questionnaire and 12 participants for the semi-structured interview. The high response rate in this study can be explained due to the perfect timing of distributing the survey because trainees were inside the classes and I encouraged them to participate. Trainees were cooperative, so most of them completed answering the survey.

Data Collection Methods

As this is a mixed methods study, data collection was divided into two stages because of the two different research methods. In mixed methods research, the researcher has three ways to mix the data: merge the data, connect the data, and embed the data (Creswell, 2007). In this study, the design is to connect the data by collecting and analysing quantitative data and then collecting and analysing qualitative data (Figure 4.1). The purpose behind applying this method is that the qualitative data can help to illustrate the existing quantitative results (Creswell, 2007).
The quantitative phase.

According to the conceptual framework of this study and in order to answer the research questions, the quantitative data will provide useful results in terms of measuring the constructs of the study, identifying the differences among the groups of participants, and investigating the relationships among the constructs of the study. The survey method has been selected as the primary method to collect data for this study. This decision was driven by the research objectives and questions, as Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) suggest. The survey method is also commonly used in many disciplines because of the ability to collect data from a large number of participants in a sufficient and precise way (Saunders et al., 2012).

On the other hand, the survey method has some limitations that should be acknowledged. For instance, respondents may answer the survey in a way that does not actually represent their own views but is in line with the social norms (Fowler, 2009). Also, Robson (1993) argues that participants may not express their beliefs precisely in the survey; however, this is a common problem with any data collection method. In spite of the survey method's limitations, it gives beneficial indications and explores specific relationships (Saunders et al., 2012). The steps that were considered in designing the questionnaire are highlighted in the following sections.
The survey design.

To design the survey the researcher had to choose the proper type of questions. For this project, the researcher chose closed-ended questions, in which the participant represents his view by choosing one of the answers available. Closed-ended questions are preferable because of their convenience for both the respondent and the researcher (Oppenheim, 1992). However, Bryman and Bell (2011) argue that closed-ended questions do not give the chance to discuss the participant’s answers. Nevertheless, the interviews fulfilled this demand for participants’ opinions. Despite the limitations, the use of closed-ended questions facilitates analysing the influence of appointed constructs on trainees’ satisfaction and saves time for both the participant and the researcher.

In designing the questionnaire, there were some issues that were taken into account. Firstly, the time it would take to answer the questionnaire. The methodology literature shows the importance of the length of the questionnaire. When the questionnaire is very short, there is a possibility of obtaining unreliable data (Sahlqvist et al., 2011). In contrast, if it is too long, the respondents will be uncomfortable, so will try to answer the questions quickly, which may result in less reliable data (De Vaus, 2014). With due consideration for the importance of the questionnaire length, the questionnaire used in this study could be completed in ten minutes. Also, taking into account the time of data collection, the questionnaire was answered during the training session, so the trainees felt no pressure in staying to answer the questions.

Secondly, the order of questions can affect the result. Bickart (1990) notices that respondents may lose their concentration while answering similar questions and choices. To avoid this potential problem, the researcher made the questionnaire easy to answer by creating a section for each of the study’s constructs (job commitment, work support, self-
efficacy, learning motivation, expectations, and training satisfaction). In addition, each section was clearly labelled so the participant could see when he had finished each construct and was starting a new one.

Finally, the Five-Point Likert scale was used. Scaling the data is a process that is used to assess participants’ attitudes and opinions about a phenomenon so the researcher can compare their opinions (Schwab, 2005). There is a variety of scales a researcher can use, depending on the research type, but the Likert scale, which asks respondents how strongly he/she agrees with the point, is the most common (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Although there is debate about how many points the scale should have, some scholars suggest that between four and seven points is the best choice (Dawkes, 2008). More specifically, Hartley and MacLean (2006) recommend using the Five-Point Likert scale instead of the seven-point. The scale used in this study is the Five-Point Likert scale, because of its familiarity in Saudi Arabia, its reliability and validity, and the ease in collecting and analysing the data.

The process of developing the questionnaire.

Several considerations were taken into account when developing the questionnaire. The first priority was to set the questionnaire in a way that addresses the research questions. In characterising the questionnaire May (2001) allocates three separate headings that the questionnaire can be characterised under: factual, attitudinal and explanatory. The first type of survey (factual survey) investigates data about materials and situations for individuals. The second type (attitudinal survey) focuses on opinion, and the third type (explanatory survey) is usually concerned with investigating a group’s behaviour. According to the research aims and nature of this study, the questionnaire was designed to fall across all three sectors.

Therefore, the present research used a questionnaire that consisted of seven sections: demographic information, measuring trainees’ attitudes toward job commitment, trainees’
attitude toward workplace support, trainees’ self-efficacy, trainees’ learning motivation, trainees’ expectations of training, and trainees’ satisfaction. A copy of the survey is included in the appendices (see appendix no. 1).

1. Demographic variables

The first part of the questionnaire covers the participants’ demographic details in four questions: age, experience, highest qualification and job position. There is no question about gender because all trainees and trainers are male due to the nature of teaching and work in Saudi Arabia that separates the genders. The rationale for choosing these constructs was to consider the differences among trainees based on their age, qualifications, experience and position.

2. Trainees’ job commitment

To assess trainees’ job commitment, the scale developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) was used. In keeping with the conceptual framework, I chose six items from the fifteen items that are related to this study’s framework. This also avoided making the survey too long.

3. Workplace support

To assess trainees’ job support attitudes, the researcher used a ten items organisational career management scale that was developed and used by Sturges, Guest, Conway and Davey (2002). Six items have been chosen from the ten items in the original scale because some questions were about introducing the new employee to a mentor which is not relevant to this study, especially for the public sector organisation.

4. Trainees’ self-efficacy
To assess trainees’ self-efficacy, the researcher used the General Self-Efficacy Scale, which is a ten item psychometric scale developed in 1979 by Matthias Jerusalem and Schwarzer. The scale was retrieved from the Ralf Schwarzer (n.d.) official website and all ten items were employed in this questionnaire.

5. Trainees’ learning motivation

For trainees’ motivation to learn, a questionnaire developed and used by R. Noe and Schmitt (1986) to measure trainees’ motivation to learn was used. The question, ‘I will try to learn as much as I can from the program’ was used in this questionnaire. In order to ensure greater validity, two other questions used by Artino (2008) were also used: ‘I was very interested in the content of this course’, and ‘I like the subject matter of this course’.

6. Trainees’ expectations

The researcher created a simple assessment to ask participants about their expectations of trainer, content, and training environment. The expectations test is composed of four items: (1) ‘I was expecting that the trainer would be excellent in giving this program’; (2) ‘I was expecting that the content would be very useful and related to my job’; (3) ‘I was expecting that the training environment in this program will be comfortable’; and (4) ‘This program has met my expectations’.

7. Trainees’ satisfaction

This last part of the questionnaire is meant to measure training satisfaction by using a rating scale of seventy two items developed and used by Tello et al. (2006). This scale was developed to evaluate three aspects of the training: objectives and content, method and training context, and usefulness and overall rating. Only twenty items were used in this questionnaire to avoid excessive length.
The questionnaire’s validity

Validity means the ability of the instrument to achieve its purpose and measure what it is meant to measure (Saunders et al., 2012). While there are many different ways to test the validity of the questionnaire, in this research the researcher relied on face validity. Neuman (2014) defines face validity as the simple judgment of whether the instrument looks relevant to the research aims. In order to obtain this, the researcher’s supervisors thoroughly reviewed the questionnaire to ensure clarity of the items, their suitability in addressing the research aims and research questions, and to double check the intended meaning of the content.

Reliability.

One of the researcher’s obligations is to ensure the reliability of the instruments used. Reliability can be defined as “the extent to which research findings would be the same if the researcher were to be repeated at a later date” (Veal & Darcy, 2014, p.50). Although there are many ways to check the reliability, in this research the Cronbach’s Alpha Scale was implemented, as explained below. In addition, Bryman and Bell (2011) argue that the most appropriate means to assess the reliability is Cronbach’s Alpha. This scale gives the result between 0 and 1, so the more reliable instrument is when the result is near 1. To be more accurate, Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel and Page (2011) claim that the acceptable level is 0.7 or above. However, Nunnally (1994) asserts that 0.6 is also acceptable.

For this study’s survey Cronbach’s Alpha scale was implemented both for each construct (job commitment, work support, learning motivation, self-efficacy, expectations, training satisfaction) and the whole fifty questions together. The result was as desired or above, which proves the instrument’s reliability, as demonstrated below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study’s constructs</th>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job commitment</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work support</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning motivation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training satisfaction</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1. Reliability of the study’s items according to the Cronbach’s Alpha scale

The qualitative phase.

As the explanatory research design in this study relies mainly on quantitative data, the qualitative data is added to provide explanations of the quantitative results. The method used in this project for collecting the qualitative data is the semi-structured interview.

The qualitative questions were specifically developed to expand on the quantitative data. In this study, semi-structured interviews were implemented. The semi-structured interview, according to Merriam (2009), has the advantages of giving more flexibility to the researcher and discovering new topics and ideas that are not covered by the survey. The interview was designed for those who attended the course. I requested interviews from all trainees in the class by giving each of them a consent form to identify who was willing to be interviewed. After the documents came back to me there were twelve participants. I arranged the time of the interviews based on participants’ convenience. Additionally, Davies (2007) suggests that prompt questions need to be arranged in order to make sure the interviewer is
getting complete information. Therefore, the researcher prepared some questions in light of the theoretical framework and some initial quantitative results (see Appendix 2).

I travelled enough time before the interview to meet participants in the same building they were having their training and to make sure the place was properly set up. I aimed in the interviews to provide a level of ease and comfort between participant and the researcher through “attentive listening... showing interest, understanding, and respect” (p. 128). Open-ended questions were asked to provide an opportunity for the participant to explain particular aspects, show how the study’s constructs are seen by employees, and how and why those constructs interact with each other. The following are examples of the interview questions: “How does job commitment affect employee’s motivation to training?”, “What makes employees motivated to training?”, and “How do trainee’s expectations affect trainee’s performance during training?” For more detail, (see appendix no. 2)

I encouraged the interviewees to talk in depth about the issues and sometimes new questions arose when I got the chance to seek more explanation. Davies (2007) states that “the aim of any research interview is to create a climate in which the respondent can talk freely and be able to offer the full range of responses that apply” (p. 102). Each interview took between 20-40 minutes and participants were permitted to leave the interview at any time if they wished. One of the requirements when using the interview method is ensuring flexibility, so the order of the questions was not so important.

Data Analysis Methods

From the three general analytical strategies mentioned by Yin (2003), relying on theoretical propositions is the most appropriate strategy, which means following the theoretical propositions that lead to the case being studied. In this case, the conceptual framework has also guided the analysis of the data as well. Therefore, the analysis is straightforward, starting with each construct and analysing its results to obtain a conclusion.
about its relationship with training satisfaction. After analysing all the proposed constructs, attempting to find other relationships among the study constructs was considered. Subsequently, and as the explanatory design suggests (see Figure 3.1), the qualitative data generated themes that either refuted or supported the quantitative results. Moreover, the qualitative data are supposed to provide explanations about what the quantitative data are already showing.

**Quantitative data analysis.**

In analysing quantitative data, Creswell (2012) suggests four steps that should be followed: preparing the data, conducting the data analysis, reporting the data, and interpreting the results. To prepare the data, the researcher created a codebook to assign numeric scores to the data (see table 4.2. below).

After collecting the surveys, the researcher rejected incomplete forms. Due to the anonymity of the survey, each paper was given a number for entering into the statistics software. Next, the SPSS program was used to analyse the quantitative data, employing two approaches: descriptive and inferential analysis. For descriptive analysis, the aim was to measure central tendency, variability, and relative standing of the scores, which helped to describe the study’s variables in terms of dependent, independent, control, or mediating variables.

Tables and figures were used to report the results, ensuring that all study questions were answered. After following all these steps the researcher was able to interpret the results by summarising the findings, comparing them with the literature, presenting the study limitations, and giving suggestions for further studies. Thus, the quantitative findings were used to formulate and refine the qualitative interview questions.
### Table 4.2. Variables and questions codebook

**Demographic information:**

There were five categories for age and the majority of the participants were in the 26 - 35 years old category and only five participants were in the two categories 41 - 45 and 46+, so the two categories were merged into one, namely 41+. After excluding the doctorate degree choice, as the highest degree among the participants was a master’s degree, there were four choices (secondary, diploma, bachelor, and master). According to participants’ answers, the vast majority of the study population were qualified with a bachelor degree or less (diploma or secondary), whereas only three participants had a master’s degree.

With regard to experience, because of the course nature, which is targeting new employees, the majority of the participants had less than five years’ experience (88 trainees). There were four senior employees in this course (more than sixteen years’ experience). For the same reason mentioned in the previous category, the vast majority of the participants
were employees, and there were only four participants who worked in administration sections such as managers or manager’s assistant.

The options for this question were general manager, manager, assistant manager, and employee, and none of the participants was a general manager or assistant manager. Therefore, the researcher analysed the data based on two choices 1= manager and 2= normal employee.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 years</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>36-40 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.4</td>
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<td>41+ years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Qualification</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
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<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5 years</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>74.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+16 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Position</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>96.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4.3. Respondent's demographic information*

*Statistical analysis techniques:*
In order to examine the differences among trainees’ categories in terms of their attitudes, expectations, and satisfaction, there are different statistical tests to apply. One of the components in analysing data is comparing two or more groups on the independent variables (age, qualification, experience, and position) in terms of the dependent variables (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, expectations, and training satisfaction); for instance, is there any differences among age groups in terms of their satisfaction with the training course? In order to examine this, there are two types of analytic tests, and to decide which test is suitable to apply, four conditions should be met. The Anova or T-test can be used if these four conditions are met:

1- Independence
2- Normality
3- Scale measurements
4- Homogeneity

If the data fails to meet even one of these conditions, applying the Anova or T-test is inappropriate and alternative tests should be used (Bryman & Cramer, 2011). I tested these conditions and found that applying the Anova and T-test was not suitable for this data because of failure to comply with some of these conditions; for example, the distribution of the answers is not normal, as can be seen in the (Table 4.4.) below. Therefore, using alternative tests, such as the Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests is the way to compare the groups of participants to show differences.
As shown in the table, the significance in the Shapiro-Wilk test are less than .5 in all of the study constructs, which means the data is not showing a normal distribution (Bryman & Cramer, 2011).

To conduct statistical tests to find the differences among independent variables, the researcher followed three steps. In the first step, the researcher used the Mann-Whitney test, which is an alternative to the T-test and is applicable when comparing two categories. The independent variable with the two categories is position, because the respondents were either managers or employees. Therefore, to find the differences between employees and managers in terms of the other dependent variables (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, expectations, and training satisfaction), the Mann-Whitney test was applied.

In the second step, for the other variables, the researcher used the Kruskal-Wills test, which is an alternative to the Anova test, to show any differences among independent
categories in terms of the dependent variables. For example, there are differences among age
groups in terms of training satisfaction.

In the third step, after allocating the differences, for example if there is a difference
among age groups in their satisfaction with training, this step is to find between which groups
there is a significant difference. The researcher applied the Mann-Whitney test to clarify
these details by comparing each two categories separately.

**Qualitative data analysis.**

Analysing the qualitative data in this study went through four steps moving from pure
interviews to end with formal findings that answer the research questions. The steps
mentioned by Creswell (2007) were used to analyse the qualitative data in this study. These
steps include: preparing the data, coding the data, establishing themes, and presenting the
findings.

**Preparing the data.**

Preparing the qualitative data is considered the first step of analysing the data. The
accuracy is the main purpose of this step to make sure that the interviews are responding to
the research question. The interviews were transcribed and the accuracy was done by
reviewing the transcription and examining to what extent these interviews are relevant in
terms of answering the research questions. When examining each interview it was crucial to
keep in mind the purpose of the study and the role of the qualitative findings, to make sure
that the qualitative findings provide explanation to the quantitative data in fulfilling the
purpose of answering the research questions. These preparation steps allow the qualitative
data to be ready for the next step which is the coding process.
**Coding the data.**

After preparing the data and examining the transcription, I started the coding procedure which is important in classifying the raw data into themes that can inform and answer the research questions. In this stage, two main steps were generated. Firstly reading again through the data to ensure understanding what has been said that may help in explaining the quantitative data and answering the research question.

The next step is coding the data and for this purpose I followed the predetermined strategy, what is called a priori coding. A priori codes are derived from the literature relevant to the purpose of the study.

**Thematic analysis.**

Codes extracted from the raw data were classified into themes in a meaningful way, so this was the first step in this stage of grouping and classifying the data. Themes were carefully selected to ensure that they gave deep understanding of the findings. The selected themes helped to come up with the five cultural dimensions (religion, social status, employment, education, economy) that were found to be the mediating aspects that drive the relationships between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and satisfaction with job training in this case.

**Presenting the findings.**

The findings in this study were presented based on the selected themes. Each theme summarised participants’ opinions in ways that help in answering the research questions and give meaning to the quantitative data. Miles and Huberman (1994) assert that data display helps to identify relationships and patterns, to explore new propositions and concepts, and in drawing conclusions. Similarities and differences were taken into consideration in presenting the findings as well.


**Trustworthiness**

Checking the accuracy of the qualitative data is crucial, and to achieve this, the researcher varied the information sources. The constancy between the quantitative and qualitative data is also significant. As a result, matching both results and expressing constancy and contradiction will be addressed in the following chapter.

**Ethical Considerations**

In social research, there are ethical considerations that should be taken into account. Neuman (2014) claims that it is the researcher’s responsibility to protect the human rights of participants and to show respect for their personal matters and privacy. The researcher in this study has strived to ensure that every step in the study has been ethically conducted. Before collecting the data, the researcher received ethical approval on 08 June 2016 from the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC) (see Appendix 6). To ensure a clear understanding of the ethical issues, the explanatory statement and the consent form were attached to the questionnaire (see Appendix 2 and 3). The participant’s right to withdraw at any time from the research was clarified, as was the purpose of the study.

In addition, for the sake of confidentiality, it was assured in the attached documents with the survey that all participants’ details remain anonymous, and interviewees’ names are replaced with pseudonyms before analysing the qualitative data. It was made clear that all the answers will remain confidential and will only used for research purposes. Participants were also provided with the contact details of the researcher and supervisors in case the participant wished to discuss any further issues. Also, participants were provided with the contact details of an Arabic speaker who could receive their complaints, if there are any.

This project was conducted in Saudi Arabia where the Arabic language is spoken. Therefore, the researcher followed a process to translate documents and data from English to
Arabic and from Arabic to English. Although the researcher is bilingual, the questionnaire, consent form, and explanatory statement were translated by a certified translator to ensure accurate translation. I translated the data and information retrieved from the official website and training manuals from Arabic to English language by himself.

Validity

Triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation, and expansion are five reasons for using a mixed methods design (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Hesse-Biber (2010) explains these reasons as follows. Triangulation refers to using more than one method when studying the same issue. Meanwhile, complementarity allows the researcher to master the social story and it is applied by using both qualitative and quantitative methods to broadly understand the research problem in its context. Mixed methods tend to create a synergistic impact and the results of one method develop another method, giving the research project a great advantage. The fourth reason to use mixed methods is initiation, which generates new issues or areas that need to be investigated. Expansion is the last listed reason for using a mixed methods design, as it allows the researcher to continue to conduct further research arising from the original study.

Due to the nature of this study, which is conducted using a mixed-methods strategy, triangulation could be the most important factor for the study’s validity. Andres (2012) says that “triangulation can occur at the level of theory, methods, and analysis” (p. 182). Therefore, using a questionnaire and an interview has allowed the researcher to undertake creative analyses of results from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Additionally, utilising both quantitative and qualitative data has helped when analysing data from two different perspectives. Numbers are analysed quantitatively to find relationships, factors and frequencies, and the quantitative results help to formulate interview questions. The
participants’ answers are then analysed qualitatively to provide a further rationale for the numbers, and provide wide and deep explanation.

**Summary**

This chapter focused on the methods that have been used to conduct this study. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches have been used to seek influence and relationships among the predefined constructs of this study (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, expectations, and training satisfaction). In addition, the choice to use a mixed methods design was justified.

The research instruments implemented (survey and semi-structured interview) were consistent with the requirements of the research questions and the aims and objectives of the research. Testing the reliability and validity of the instruments was done to show the trustworthiness of the current study. The techniques used in analysing both the quantitative and the qualitative data have been explained in the light of the conceptual framework of the present research. Consequently, the following two chapters will present the results and findings of this study.
Chapter Five: the Results Chapter

As this study was conducted to investigate the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on satisfaction with job training in a specific case, this study consisted of two sources of data which are quantitative data and qualitative data. The quantitative data measured trainees’ attitudes (namely job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, and learning motivation), trainees’ expectations, and training satisfaction. In addition, investigating differences among demographical groups was also included in the quantitative data. Finally, examining correlations among the study’s constructs is provided in this section of the data.

The Mean Results of the Study’s Constructs

After analysing the questionnaire data using SPSS the mean result, the standard deviation for each construct, and the result regarding the demographic factors are shown in the following table. Each of them will be presented in turn, starting with the total results in each of the study’s constructs. The table above shows the average for the six dependant variables (the constructs of the study) and the standard deviation depending on participants’ responses. According to the table, participants’ attitude toward their job commitment can be classified as strongly in agreement as well as their learning motivation with mean scores = 4.4758 and 4.2655 respectively. The other variables can be classified as in agreement. The highest variable in respondents’ ranking is job commitment with mean = 4.475 which implies they feel they are strongly committed to their job.
Trainees’ satisfaction also scored a respectful result with mean = 4.009; that means they were generally satisfied with the course. The lowest rank among variables was self-
efficacy with mean = 3.952 meaning that trainees’ attitude toward their self-efficacy is comparably lower while it is still high. Interestingly, the difference between the highest score and fewest one among the six constructs is quite small as the graph below illustrates.

![Graph showing the highest and fewest score of the study's constructs]

*Figure 5.1. Highest and fewest score of the study’s constructs*

*Note.* A Likert scale classifies responses following this: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree. The black bar represents the fewest mean result among the six constructs of this study which corresponds to trainees’ attitude toward self-efficacy with mean = 3.95. The white bar represents the highest mean result among the six constructs of this study which is trainees’ attitude toward job commitment with mean result = 4.48. * The range of trainees’ responses about the six constructs of the study.

It must be noted that participants in this study vary regarding some demographic factors, namely the age, qualification, experience, and the position of the participant. The differences among groups regarding these factors will be presented in each construct. More information about each construct of the study and the effect of demographic factor is provided in turn.

**Job Commitment.**

The following table illustrates the mean score for every question about job commitment, highlighting the minimum and maximum for each question as well. Interestingly it can be seen that question number four “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation” is the highest mean result among other questions with \((r = 4.71)\) which reflects the commitment participants feel. By contrast, the lowest result is for question number five “Often I find it easy to agree with this organisation’s policies on important matters relating to its employees” with \((r = 3.81)\). This result may indicate some
disagreement with some of the organisation’s policies as we will see in the next chapter.

Nevertheless, overall the mean result for job commitment is considerably high with \( r = 4.48 \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often. I find it easy to agree with this organisation’s policies on important matters relating to its employees</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really care about the fate of this organisation</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deciding to work for this organisation was the right decision on my part</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 5.2. The mean result, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation for all the questions about job commitment*

**Work Support.**

The table below shows questions about attitudes toward work support with mean result, minimum, and maximum for each question. It can be noticed that four out of six questions from the table scored one as a minimum score which may indicate some negative attitudes on work support from some participants. The highest score is for question number
one “I have been given training to help develop my career” with \((r = 4.62)\). The lowest result is for the question number five “My boss has given me clear feedback on my performance” with \((r = 3.84)\) which may indicate some weaknesses in the assessment of employees and providing the required feedback. Otherwise, generally the result suggests that trainees’ attitudes toward work support in this study is high with \((r = 4.22)\) overall.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been given training to help develop my career</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My boss has made sure I get the training I need for my career</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been taught things I need to know to get on in this organisation</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been given work which has developed my skills for the future</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My boss has given me clear feedback on my performance</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been given impartial career advice when I needed it</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 5.3. The mean result, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation for all the questions about work support*

**Self-efficacy.**

The result for trainees’ attitudes toward their self-efficacy is demonstrated in the following table. Interestingly, the lowest result among questions is question number five “Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations” with \((r = 3.57)\). By contrast, the highest result is for question number one “I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough” with \((r = 4.17)\) which may imply that participants believe in their abilities in difficult situations. Overall, trainees’ attitudes toward self-efficacy is the lowest score among other constructs with \((r = 3.95)\) however, this result is still considerable.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can usually handle whatever comes my way</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 5.4. The mean result, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation for all the questions about self-efficacy*
Learning Motivation.

There were three questions about trainees’ attitudes toward learning motivation, as illustrated in the table down below. The responses to all three questions were very close. The results indicate that trainees were motivated for this course in general. Overall, the general result for learning motivation in this study is significantly high with \( r = 4.27 \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was trying to learn as much as I can from the program</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was very interested in the content of this course</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the subject matter of this course</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 5.5. The mean result, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation for all the questions about learning motivation*

Expectations.

The four questions concerning trainees’ expectations also scored close and positive results. This result may indicate that trainees in this study had high expectations of the trainers, content, and training environment. Thus, the overall result for trainees’ expectations in this study is remarkably high with \( r = 4.14 \).
### The question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was expecting that the trainer will be excellent in giving this program</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was expecting that the content will be very useful and related to my job</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was expecting that the training environment in this program will be</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfortable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This program has met my expectations</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 5.6. The mean result, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation for all the questions about expectations*

### Training Satisfaction.

The greatest number of questions in the questionnaire for this study were about trainees’ satisfaction. There were twenty questions, as the table below demonstrates. There were also three questions regarding general satisfaction about trainers, content, and training environment. Interestingly, the highest result among these three question is general satisfaction with the content with ($r = 4.03$). Satisfaction with trainers scored a high result as well with ($r = 3.98$). Finally, while trainees seemed happy about the course content the lower score in satisfaction was about the environment of training: the suitability of resources, the furniture and the cleanliness of the training site. Satisfaction with the training environment scored the least result with ($r = 3.88$). Overall trainees’ satisfaction is quite high with ($r = 4.01$).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The question</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The objectives clearly show what they aim to achieve</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The information I received about the training is suitable</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The objectives of the training were in line with my needs and interests</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The content of the training can be applied in practice</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with the content addressed in the training</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any doubts were resolved effectively</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the training method</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trainer knows the subject</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trainer does not know how to explain the content to the participants</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with the trainer’s work</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The classroom is well lit</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The resources used (slide projector, videos, computers, etc.) are suitable</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cleanliness, hygiene, and healthiness of the training centre are acceptable</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The furniture can be considered suitable and comfortable enough</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with the physical conditions of the training area</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training received is useful for my specific job</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training received is relevant for my workplace</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The training received is useful for my personal development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>118</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4.29</th>
<th>.76</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In general, the training left a very good impression on me and I was satisfied</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training was well organized</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Overall                        | 118 | 4.01 | .55146 |

Table 5.7. The mean result, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation for all the questions about trainees’ satisfaction

Differences among the Demographical Groups

Participants in the quantitative data varied according to the demographic information they provided. Demographical variables in this study depended on four factors, namely age, qualification, experience, and position. Examining the differences among these groups has been done by means of Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney test as explained in the chapter on methods. Each variable will be presented in turn in the following sections.

The age factor.

Participants were divided into five groups regarding their age (20-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, and 41 years and more). Regarding job commitment, Table 11 above identifies trainees’ attitude toward job commitment at each group. In the table, it is shown that although groups are similar in the result, the oldest trainees show slightly more job commitment than the youngest. To see if these differences are statistically significant I used the Kruskal-Wallis test, which is an alternative to the ANOVA test As mentioned in the Chapter on Methods and Methodology there is an absence of the assumptions of normality in the data that make using the ANOVA test is unsuitable. When I applied the Kruskal-Wallis test to compare age groups in terms of their job commitment, the result showed no difference among these groups with r = .443. If there is a significant difference the result should less than (.05).
For work support, as the main table demonstrated, it can be concluded that younger employees scored the lowest results with mean = 4.01. However, after conducting the Kruskal-Wallis test there is no difference with \( r = .239 \). It can also be noticed from this table above that older participants are higher in their attitude toward self-efficacy than the youngest groups. Accordingly, when I applied the Kruskal Wallis test to compare age groups in terms of their attitude toward self-efficacy, the result showed that there was a difference among age groups in terms of self-efficacy with \( r = .01 \). However, another test was conducted to allocate the difference and between the groups. I applied the Mann-Whitney test by comparing each of the two categories separately. This step will be about age categories only. The table below shows the result of each test between the two groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>20-25</th>
<th>26-30</th>
<th>31-35</th>
<th>36-40</th>
<th>+41</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>* .000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>* .000</td>
<td>** .465</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>* .002</td>
<td>** .993</td>
<td>** .594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+41</td>
<td>* .002</td>
<td>** .837</td>
<td>** .611</td>
<td>** .401</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \( r < .05 \)
** \( r > .05 \)

Table 5.8. Mann-Whitney tests among (Age) groups in regard to self-efficacy

As the table above shows, the result of the Mann-Whitney test among age groups in terms of self-efficacy attitude, the significant differences are between the group of (20-25) years old with all of the others. In other words, trainees who are between 20-25 years old scored themselves significantly lower than others in their attitude toward self-efficacy. As a result, age seems to play a role in self-efficacy because of the difference it made among groups. The graph below shows how self-efficacy sharply rose from 3.56 for (20-25) years old to 3.98 for
trainees who are 26-30 years old. The graph also indicates how self-efficacy remained steady for the other age groups.

![Graph showing mean self-efficacy by age groups](image)

**Figure 5.2. Age groups comparison in regard to self-efficacy**

Regarding learning motivation, it can be concluded, as the main table shows, that the youngest and the oldest groups expressed less motivation to learn than others. Nevertheless, the Krauskal-Wallis test proved no significant difference among the groups in their learning motivation with $r = .297$. This means that the impact of the age factor on learning motivation was also insignificant. The Kruskal-Wallis test shows no significant differences among age groups in terms of their expectations with $r = .421$. Finally, we consider the differences among age groups in regard to their satisfaction. The main table shows that satisfaction level is quite high with the youngest group expressing less satisfaction. When I applied the Kruskal
Wallis test, the result showed that there was no significant differences among the groups with \( r = .108 \). Therefore, the impact of age factor on training satisfaction is considered insignificant.

**Qualification level factor.**

Participants in this study come from four different qualification categories (secondary, diploma, bachelor, and master and above). Therefore, measuring differences among qualification groups regarding their job commitment is required. From the table above we can easily see that master degree trainees scored the fewest results in job commitment with mean = 4.1429. However, this is not significant in the statistical test. The Kruskal Wallis test indicated that there is no significant difference among qualification groups in terms of their attitude toward job commitment with \( r = .09 \).

For the impact of qualification level on attitude toward work support, it can be seen from the main table that employees with higher qualification have less attitude toward work support than other. Nevertheless, the Kruskal Wallis test indicated that there was no significant differences among qualification groups in terms of their attitude toward work support with \( r = .08 \). In addition, regarding self-efficacy, the data suggested that the qualification factor is insignificant, with the Kruskal Wallis test showing no significant impact as there is no significant difference among groups with \( r = .797 \).

The effect of qualification level on trainees’ attitude toward motivation was investigated. Initially, it seems from the main table that all groups have high motivation however the diploma group showed the highest motivation to learn. The Kruskal Wallis test indicated that the differences among qualification groups was insignificant in terms of their learning motivation with \( r = .146 \), meaning qualification had no significant impact on learning motivation. Regarding the impact of qualification groups on trainees’ expectations,
the main table above indicates that the highest participants in their qualification were expecting less than others. Kruskal Wallis test however showed that there was no great difference among qualification groups in terms of their expectations with $r = .256$ meaning that there is no impact of qualification factor on trainees’ expectation.

Finally, regarding the impact of qualification level on training satisfaction, the main table shows that the group of diploma qualified trainees was noticeably less satisfied than others. However, Kruskal Wallis test indicated that there was no considerable difference among qualification groups in terms of their satisfaction, with $r = .398$. In other words, qualification had an insignificant role in training satisfaction.

**Experience factor.**

The four categories of participants in regard to experience were: less than five years, five to ten years, eleven to fifteen years, and more than sixteen years). From the table it can be concluded that, even though participants expressed high attitude toward job commitment, employees with experience between eleven to fifteen years have less attitude than others. Nevertheless, the result from Kruskal Wallis test indicated that there was no considerable differences among experience groups in terms of their attitude toward job commitment with ($r = .07$).

Measuring the impact of experience on attitude toward work support, it is clear from the table that the least group in their attitude toward work support are participants who have 11-15 years experience. By means of Kruskal Wallis test it is found that the difference is insignificant with ($r = .20$). Additionally, regarding self-efficacy it can be seen that trainees who have less than five years experience have less confidence in their self-efficacy. But implementing the Kruskal Wallis test proved that there was no great difference among experience groups in regard to their attitude toward self-efficacy with ($r = .07$).
To identify the impact of experience on trainees’ motivation, it can be highlighted from the main table that the highest group is employees between 5-10 years experience while the lowest group is 11-15 years experience. Kruskal Wallis test proved that there was a significant difference among experience groups in terms of their learning motivation with \( r = .03 \). The same steps used in self-efficacy were used here by conducting the Mann-Whitney test repeatedly between each two groups to allocate the significant difference. The table below shows the result of Mann-Whitney tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Less than 5</th>
<th>5-10</th>
<th>11-15</th>
<th>More than 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>* .035</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>** .157</td>
<td>*.004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 15</td>
<td>** .535</td>
<td>*.037</td>
<td>** .352</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note, * \( r < .05 \) and ** \( r > .05 \)

*Table 5.9. Mann-Whitney tests among (Experience) groups in regard to learning motivation*

This test indicates the influence of experience factor on learning motivation because there are differences among the groups in their learning motivation. The difference lies in between the groups of five to ten years experience and the others. The table shows the significant difference between less than five years and five to ten with \( r = .04 \), five to ten and eleven-fifteen with \( r = .00 \), and between five to ten and more than fifteen with \( r = .04 \). The graph below illustrates how learning motivation in this study zigzagged through the experience variable. The motivation reached its peak in 4.60 for trainees who had five to ten years experience. Interestingly, motivation suddenly dropped to its bottom in 3.94 for the next level of experience, those between eleven-fifteen years experience.
For the impact of experience on trainees’ expectations, there was no considerable difference among experience groups in terms of their expectations of training according to the Kruskal Wallis test with $(r = .60)$. Accordingly the experience factor role in trainees’ expectation is insignificant. Finally, the impact of experience on training satisfaction can be seen as that experience has no role in training satisfaction because there was no significant difference among these groups in their satisfaction according to the Kruskal Wallis test with $(r = .87)$. 

Figure 5.3. Experience levels comparison regarding learning motivation
Position factor.

The sample in this study was comprised of both managers and employees. The impact of position on trainees’ attitude toward job commitment can be identified in the main table above and it can be concluded that, even though the number of managers participating in this study was very few, the attitude toward job commitment looks similar. I used Mann-Whitney test which is alternative to T-test and applicable when comparison between two categories. The Mann-Whitney test was applied and found no significant difference between the two categories (employees and managers) with \( r = .29 \).

Position had a similar impact on the attitude toward work support as can be identified from the main table. with no significant difference between the two categories (employees and managers) being found, with \( r = .79 \). The result suggested that position has no impact on self-efficacy as the Mann-Whitney test indicates that there is no differences between the two categories (employees and managers) with \( r = .33 \).

The impact of position on learning motivation was investigated and the difference test applied showed no significant difference between the two groups in their learning motivation with \( r = .89 \). As a result, the position factor has no influence in learning motivation. Similarly, for expectations, the position factor caused no differences according to the Mann-Whitney test with \( r = .96 \).

Finally, the impact of position on training satisfaction was investigated and it can be noticed from the main table above that the two groups are close in their level of satisfaction, with the managers a little more satisfied than employees. The Mann-Whitney test indicates that there is no differences between the two categories (employees and managers) in terms of their satisfaction with \( r = .25 \) meaning that the role of position in training satisfaction is insignificant.
The Correlations among Study’s Constructs:

According to the data analysis the result indicated some relations among the study’s constructs as the following table demonstrates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job commitment</th>
<th>Work support</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>Learning motivation</th>
<th>Expectations</th>
<th>Training satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job commitment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning motivation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.54**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training satisfaction</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.10. The correlations test among the study’s constructs

This table illustrates the relationships among the study’s constructs (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, expectations, and training satisfaction). The table shows positive relationships among these constructs, however, it is stronger between some constructs than others. The relationship between training satisfaction and work support was significant with (r = .508) which means the more support employees have in their works the high satisfaction with the training course they have. Moreover, there was a significant relationship between training satisfaction and self-efficacy with (r = .524) that implies as much as trainees feel self-efficacy their satisfaction with the training will be positively influenced. Trainees’ higher expectations also reported a positive affect on their satisfaction with (r = .540) which means employees with high expectations toward training express more satisfaction with training. Job commitment and learning motivation were shown to be related
to training satisfaction but less than the previous variables with \( r = .474 \) and \( .438 \) respectively.

The study’s constructs regarding training satisfaction (job commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, and trainee expectations) in Table 14 expressed positive relationships to each other unexceptionally. The relationship between job commitment and work support were significant with \( r = .489 \) meaning employees who have a high support feel a high job commitment. Next, there was a noticeable relationship between self-efficacy and work support with \( r = .449 \) that means support from work positively affects self-efficacy. Also, there was a significant relationship between learning motivation and trainee expectations with \( r = .404 \) which implies employees who have a strong learning motivation expect more from training in terms of trainer performance, content usefulness, and training environment suitability.

**Summary**

The results of this study highlighted three main types of results namely: main results for the study’s constructs, differences among demographical groups, and correlations results. For the first type, the study’s constructs showed a respectable result meaning that trainees’ attitudes and expectations and satisfaction were mostly high. Next, the difference tests showed no significant differences among demographical groups except in two places. First, the age played a significant role in affecting self-efficacy as trainees who were between twenty-twenty five years old were noticeably less in their attitude toward self-efficacy than others. Second, experience has a significant impact on learning motivation as trainees who were between five-ten years experience were considerably less in their learning motivation than other groups.
The third type of result is the correlation among the study’s constructs as they showed positive relationships in total whereas, the significant relationships were between work support and training satisfaction, between self-efficacy and training satisfaction, and between expectations and training satisfaction. These results surely will be discussed in the discussion chapter after presenting the findings of the qualitative data in the next chapter.
Chapter Six: the Qualitative Findings

This study is intended to identify the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on training satisfaction, specifically for a compulsory job training course in a particular case in Saudi Arabia. The data collected in this study were a combination of quantitative data and qualitative data. While the quantitative data measure the study’s constructs, the qualitative data give explanations, interpretations, and more understanding of trainees’ perspectives toward the study’s constructs, in order to give meaning to the quantitative data. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, analysing the qualitative data utilised the a priori coding method. Choosing codes from the literature helped in categorising the findings in themes to be presented. Table 15 below illustrates how the findings of this study were categorised into themes based on the codes extracted from the literature. Starting with job commitment, codes were assorted into two themes: feelings of responsibility and gratitude. Next, work support has some codes which led to three themes: encouraging environment, the role of incentives, and social bonds at work. After that, self-efficacy’s codes were assorted to two themes: self-confidence, and interactions in the course. Learning motivation has one theme because it shared another theme about the role of incentives with the construct of work support. The theme here is personal accomplishment. For expectations, the codes were categorised into three themes namely: perceptions about the course, starting with a positive mindset, and perceptions of quality. Finally, training satisfaction has two themes: responses to the training experience and training challenges. Therefore presenting the findings of the study will be based on these themes, which will be presented in turn.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>A priori codes from the literature</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job commitment</td>
<td>acceptance of the goals</td>
<td>Feelings of responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>intention of improving their job performance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>attachment to the organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feelings of obligation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ability to perform well</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trust</td>
<td>Gratitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>job involvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feelings of obligation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>operating procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work support</td>
<td>management support</td>
<td>Encouraging environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>co-workers support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the need for praise</td>
<td>The role of incentives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the need for approval</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>promoting training</td>
<td>Social bonds at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>incentives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>impression toward the management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>Self confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>judgment about using skills</td>
<td>Interactions in the course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>confidence of coping ability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>self-doubts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>perception of coping deficiencies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pessimistic thoughts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>self-esteem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning motivation</td>
<td>persistence of learning</td>
<td>Personal accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>belief of training effectiveness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feeling of accomplishment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>development in job performance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expecting benefits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>personal factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>external factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
<td>meeting desires</td>
<td>Perceptions about the course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expected outcomes</td>
<td>Positive mindset</td>
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<td>prior information</td>
<td>Perceptions of quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the course reputation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expectations of the relevance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training satisfaction</td>
<td>positive reaction</td>
<td>Responses to training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>usefulness of the learning content to the job</td>
<td>Training challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the quality of the learning content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trainer’s competency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training barriers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 6.1. Codes and themes for presenting the findings*
Issues and Challenges with Feelings of Responsibility

The qualitative findings in this study indicated that there were feelings of responsibility on employees’ productivity in general and as a reaction to training specifically. According to the data there were four ways employees’ feelings of responsibility from participants’ perspectives, can be beneficial namely: the desire for more knowledge and skills, the ability to identify the beneficial facets of the course, valuing the development activities, and overcoming obstacles in attending training. These four findings will be presented in turn.

First, some participants mentioned that a feeling of responsibility led to a desire to acquire knowledge and gain new skills. For instance, when I asked interviewees about the influence of job commitment on trainee’s behaviour during training, some mentioned that commitment makes an employee more interactive because of the desire to gain benefit from the course and to transfer skills after the course. A participant stated that:

In my opinion, a job-committed employee comes with a desire to benefit and gain skills to transfer that to the work place. Therefore, he will express more interaction and communication with the trainer and be eager to ask and inquire. On the other hand, you can identify a low job-committed employee through the course by showing no interest of the topic and low interaction.

Another one mentioned that “training gives us chance to seek more knowledge and broaden our vision about things.” The feeling of having responsibility towards work not only gives a desire for seeking knowledge and skills but also helps employees to feel the importance of development activities such as training, which will be presented next.
Second, a feeling of responsibility was also perceived to give employees the ability to identify the value-adding of the course that determines the reaction to the program. When I asked about interaction in training and its relation to job commitment one participant said:

Trainees’ interaction has nothing to do with the job commitment it depends on the topic and the content of the course. As long as trainee feel comfortable with the topic and find it interesting and has added value he will interact and benefit from the course.

Feelings of responsibility towards work make employees value training practices.

Third, some participants believed that when employees feel responsibility towards work, they value the development activities offered by the job such as training. Some will be happy in attending training because they know the real benefits of training for improving the organisation, as one trainee expressed how commitment influences employees’ attitudes toward training. He stated that: “a job-committed trainee believes that training has been conducted to improve the job and employees so he feels happy with attending such a course.” Another trainee similarly connected job commitment with both work and training satisfaction and said “job commitment is a crucial factor. As it influences job satisfaction it does the same with training satisfaction.” In addition, the feeling of training importance has been shown as one of job commitment outcomes. In this study the majority of interviewees believe that job commitment positively affects trainees’ satisfaction because those employees feel the importance of training and are willing to benefit from the program. These benefits of the feeling of responsibility for work, also help to reduce the effect of inconvenient issues related to training that will be presented below.

Lastly, the feeling of responsibility, in some participants’ view, helps employees in overcoming difficulties in attending training. From the interview I found that some trainees
faced difficulties in attending the program however, looking for benefits helped in easing the situation. For instance, one participant said:

Although the difficulty of being required to attend this course far away from my home town, the desire of benefits of training in seeking knowledge and developing my skills to perform my duty in an excellent way, made me overcome all of that and interact with the trainer and classmates.

Even though, all trainees were not feeling the responsibility for their job, there were some self-interests that motivate some to attend training. As an example, when I asked some about taking advantage of training some doubted the real influence of job commitment on trainees’ motivation, because not all of trainees were paying attention to increase their commitment. One trainee commented:

In my opinion there is no doubt that job commitment increases employee’s motivation to training, but there is a wide spread notion that training is only for having advantages in the work like promotion or monetary awards. So in my opinion employees who attend training to evolve their skills and job performance are few.

To sum up, the feeling of responsibility as a sort of commitment to work, was discussed by the participants to assert its importance in the success of training and achieving training goals. The second theme will highlight another sort of commitment.

Although job commitment comes from the coexistence between the employee and the work, there were some reasons for low job commitment according to interviewees’ perspectives, namely manager’s behaviours, organisation’s laws, and work environment. These reasons will be presented in turn. Manager’s behaviours were reported as a reason for increasing or decreasing employees’ commitment. For instance, a trainee said:
When the manager take care of keeping employees focusing on their tasks and connecting them with work by engaging them in tasks related to their jobs that will increase their commitment, whereas employee who feel kind of emptiness will feel lack of harmony that negatively affect job commitment.

From some participants’ perspectives, negative and unjust practices from management decreases workers’ commitment; one trainee explained how it felt to attend training with low job commitment “a low-committed employee feels that he is forced to turn up so he may show low interaction and desire until finishing this unwanted task”.

Regarding the role of the organisation’s policies and regulations, some trainees asserted that the role of the organisation in creating job commitment is crucial. Fairness and up to date regulations should be assured inside every organisation in order to gain employees’ commitment. A participant claimed that “organisation is the main responsible of creating job commitment as it can increase or decrease workers’ commitment by following the fair and flexible legislations and practices inside the organisation.” Another one explained “when the employee is given all his rights and feels no discriminations among employees that could create a strong commitment whereas unfair practices in promotions or anything makes commitment very low”. One trainee also complained about unfair distribution of training opportunities saying “I am so frustrated because I could not attend this course when I was very motivated.”

Besides that, a friendly work environment is, in some participants’ view, a significant factor in creating strong commitment. One trainee commented that “work environment could create a high commitment when employee finds a kind friendship unlike some work environments that discourage workers to be committed due to the tension in work relationships and conflicted groupings.” Furthermore, many employees believed that an
organisation should take into account employees’ needs and listen to their complaints to maintain their commitment. One trainee suggested “setting up meetings between leadership and employees to identify employees’ needs and support them and ensure the fairness could maintain job commitment.”

**Gratitude as a Source of Commitment**

Some participants mentioned the gratitude they felt about their work and organisation. When I asked interviewees about their perception of job commitment, some expressed that feelings of gratitude make them committed to their work. Gratitude toward work in this study can be explained from two angles. First, some feel gratitude because they work in a job that is not normal job due to the religious obligation they perform. Some expressed their pride at working in a unique organisation that fulfils the order of Allah. One participant said:

> We are sent to develop our skills to get back and practice these skills in the field. Not only because we get material rewards but also reward from Allah (the God) who orders us and encourages us to perform the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice.

Second, some were grateful due to the good position, proper salary, and enough incentives. One trainee said that “I see job commitment is related to individual’s experience at work as it comes when employee feel agreement and kind of getting used to work. In addition, individual feel gratitude when feeling that this is my source of income.” The findings suggested that feelings of gratitude also explained the exerted effort in performing tasks and attending training.

For performing tasks, gratitude encourages employees to produce high performance. As one participant said “high committed employee is the most productive person so he will do anything that may improve his productivity like training that develops his skills.” On the other hand, when employees are assigned to do training, some perform very well out of
gratitude to their organisation. For example, interviewees were asked whether there is a connection between job commitment and learning motivation. Apparently, the majority of the interviewees agreed that job commitment has a positive effect on motivation to learning and training. For example a participant commented:

   Employee who is committed to his job will dedicate himself to whatever could succeed this organisation and will have in return more opportunities in having more courses which will benefit both his job and himself because the more experience he gains will be beneficially transferred to his work.

A second said,

   Having a high job commitment will make employee attend to the training course with excitement and high intention to benefit and develop as much as he can by the opposite of employee who lack job commitment and sees this course as a compulsory task he has to do anyway.

Thus, gratitude as a source of job commitment from participants’ perspectives encourages them to do better during the course. However, some trainees who felt low commitment expressed their situations in the next theme.

   Over all, job commitment was discussed in the interviews as a factor in making employees motivated to undertake job training and react positively to it. So feelings of responsibility and gratitude were two sources of commitment which were discussed in detail to have a role in training success. Nevertheless, low commitment reasons were also discussed in the interviews. The following section will present themes regarding work support.
Encouraging environment effect on Learning and Development

The qualitative findings of this study suggested that an encouraging environment for learning and development was influential in creating successful training, specifically in enhancing positive reactions toward job training.

I asked interviewees about the role of work support. Most interviewees confirmed the importance of work support in attending training because with the support of work, an employee feels high commitment and is encouraged to do better and improve work performance by attending recommended training courses. One trainee commented:

Work support will increase your loyalty to your job and paying more effort in whatever you are asked. It will make you keen to develop yourself by attending training that will upgrade your skills and optimise your performance. Otherwise, lacking support will decrease employee’s connection to work and management which in turn negatively affects the desire to improve performance and hence motivation for training.

In addition, in some participants’ view, lacking work support not only affects the desire for training but also the desire for transferring skills to the workplace afterward; as one trainee said “many employees who find their work is not supportive after training; they ignore transferring the new learnt skills because they have no desire to apply them in the workplace.” Interestingly, some participants expressed that work support is not limited to the workplace. Some trainees mentioned how they felt when their managers or colleagues contacted them during the training mission and how this gave them more enthusiasm to learn a lot and highly benefit from the course. A participant for instance, explained “I was very upset about the course because it was compulsory but because of the support I got, I felt much better and everything turned out so smooth.” Another added “even in this compulsory
course our manager keeps contacting us to check on us and encourage us to keep going and benefit by every means because the field is in need of them and their expertise and skills”.

From the findings, working in an encouraging environment for learning and development influenced trainees’ satisfaction with job training because trainees who have work support have motivation and enthusiasm to benefit. They will definitely find what makes them happy with the course. For instance, a trainee said “employee who is happy in his job will confirm that on assessing the course. On the other hand, employees who have no desire to learn because of bad relationships with management will criticise the course harshly.” One interesting finding is that some managers do not give proper support for employees because they are afraid of losing their position in administration when some employees evolve quickly and step up to management. For example, a trainee commented that there are two kinds of managers in supporting employees. He said that:

Some managers are looking forward to encourage employees, push them up, and develop them. On the other hand, there are a few managers who do not do this because they are afraid of losing their position when some employees develop significantly and take over the management.

Thus, working in an encouraging environment for learning and development was discussed from the participants’ perspectives as an important feature which should be in any workplace to motivate employees to develop themselves. Due to the variance among employees in the type of support they need the following theme will present participants’ views about personal needs.

**Incentives – Their Role in Trainees’ Attitudes**

Some trainees expressed how they felt about perceived incentives and their influence on learning and reaction toward training. As some prefer material support such as monetary
reward, others may prefer moral support. For example, some trainees thought that they
needed supportive management because it was important to motivate them to work hard and
turn up to training courses. Some interviewees gave examples of their managers’ support as
one commented “my manager usually informs employees with upcoming courses and
encourages us to enrol.” The findings in this study suggested that there is a great need for
incentives. According to one trainee both of financial and non-financial support (monetary or
certificate awards) are very important in increasing learning motivation. He claimed that
“successful leader knows well how to motivate employees because employees differ, some
value physical incentives and others feel that appreciation works very well with them.”

Another trainee disagreed and said “in spite of the importance of work support, the
most important thing is that motivation must be internal because forced employees will not
sufficiently benefit even if they attend.” Incentives are considered a crucial motivation factor
in some participants’ perspectives. Interviewees expressed that learning motivation is a result
of several sources. These sources can be classified into two categories – internal and external
incentives. Internal sources of learning motivation include the following: 1. employee’s
feelings of need to learn, train, and improve, 2. employee’s belief in training effectiveness, 3.
employee’s belief in the importance of self-improvement and its effects in work life, 4. ability
to accept others and easily involve with them, 5. ambition, self-confidence and desire to
experience new things. A trainee said:

employee’s feeling of the need for developing a skill give motivation to attend a
course that cover this area and help in improving the skill needed but when seeing
no need employee will not attend and if attended will not benefit.

Another trainee said “Motivation comes from inside the employee and to what extent he
believes in training effectiveness and outcomes.” Moreover, a participant commented:
“employee’s desire in training and then incentives are the cause of learning motivation”.

Another said:

Low character, self-doubt, low experience, laziness, being busy with things not related to work, and low desire for upgrading skills have a negative impact on learning motivation. On the other hand, passionate about self-development, setting up personal goals, and ambition increase employee’s learning motivation.

A trainee also commented “I think the awareness of employee about the urgent need of training to improve the organisation is the main cause of pushing employee to attend and benefit.”

Some interviewees added external sources of learning motivation such as, 1. work support, 2. job satisfaction, 3. good relationship with the manager, 4. financial and non-financial incentives. One interviewee said “Two factors for motivation: work support and expecting tangible benefits in term of knowledge and skills.” Another trainee said “I think being happy with work and having a good relationship with management increases employee’s desire for training”. Additionally, a participant commented “There are type of employees who are motivated to training because of financial incentives or non-financial incentives such as getting promotion at work”.

Thus, participants addressed learning motivation in regard to the various sources of motivation and the role it plays in creating successful training. In conclusion, individuals vary in their needs for support, however the result of support is creating motivation to attend training and take advantages. The following theme will present participants’ opinions about social bonds at work.
Social Bonds at Work

Some participants mentioned that having social bonds at work is considered as an indication of a supportive workplace. From some participants’ perspectives, good relationships with management and work-mates enhanced motivation. For instance, one trainee considered learning motivation to be a result of work support and the feeling of the usefulness of training while another commented “not only manager but also workmate’s support positively affect a person’s motivation to training.” Additionally, according to the findings, another benefit of social bonds at work is increasing interactivity at training. Most participants agreed that work support positively affects trainees’ interaction during the course because according to a participant “sometimes trainee shows more attention and interaction out of respect for his manager and colleagues due to their care and support.”

On the other hand, some participants mentioned that lacking good relations with manager and peers can be frustrating in a hard time such as the time of training away from home. An interviewee expressed some discomfort and said “no one contacted me or asked about how things were going on. It is manager’s responsibility and I would appreciate it if he had done such a thing.” To sum up, the findings suggested that working in an encouraging workplace that fulfils personal needs, and having strong relationships at work, influences training motivation which in turn enhances satisfaction with job training.

Enhanced Self-confidence

The qualitative findings in this study showed the significant role played by being self-confident, specifically in: enhancing interaction during training, desire in acquiring new knowledge, achieving personal goals, and providing precise evaluation. These four benefits of self-confidence will be addressed in turn.

One of the benefits of self-confidence reported by participants is that it enhances the level of interaction during training. Most interviewees agreed on the connection between self-
efficacy and training success because low self-efficacy may reduce trainees’ involvement; trainees with low self-efficacy may feel low confidence and a feeling of isolation from the others. One participant commented “there is difference between trainees because some may have poor ability in effective communication or engagement in the new group. They feel isolated and will participate rarely; they just want to finish and get the certificate”.

In addition, the finding suggested that self-confidence is beneficial in terms of acquiring new knowledge and skills, especially if there are some difficult curriculums. In some participants’ view, trainees with high self-efficacy are more likely to keep up with the content. Meanwhile, some trainees may feel that they do not understand and hence do not ask due to feelings of shame because they think all the team are better than them. According to one of the participants “some may say I should not be in this course that is higher than my level, so I cannot catch up with the others.”

Moreover, confidence is seen by some interviewees to help the employee to address the individual’s needs and achieve his personal goals. The findings showed that high self-efficacy trainees are well aware of their needs so they are eager to enquire and involve in training activities to improve their knowledge and achieve self-goals. As a trainee said “It positively affects training motivation because of the belief in training and development. That encourage the trainee to engage with others and insist on success.” Some trainees mentioned that being self-confident makes one more likely to be optimistic, which make a trainee come with eagerness and high expectations. One participant claimed that “optimism plays a remarkable role in making some trainees come with high expectations while pessimistic employees are very likely to have low expectations.”

More interestingly, some noted that trainees with high confidence are able to give a precise reaction and can criticise the course in a thoughtful way. One of the participants claimed that:
Trainee with a high self-efficacy can precisely evaluate the effectiveness of training as he has the ability to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the course whereas some trainees may give misleading assessment due to the lack of training evaluation skills.

Thus, participants showed that self-confidence was significant issue for individuals in creating successful training. The following theme addresses the interaction issue during the training course.

**Increased Interactions during the Course**

As the above theme showed, one of the benefits of self-confidence is that it increases the level of interaction during a training course. As a result, this theme highlights the importance of interaction in the training operation in regard to enhancing training outcomes and training satisfaction. These two effects will be presented in turn.

Regarding the influence of interaction on training outcomes, the findings of this study showed the role of training interaction in optimising training outcomes such as acquiring knowledge, gaining skills, and changing attitudes. For instance, one participant commented that “high self-efficacy trainee is more likely to benefit from communicating with other trainees and exchanging expertise with them which in some cases may be more beneficial than the benefits come from the trainer.” Additionally, trainees described that adapting with a new environment and new people is a skill many do not have because of low self-efficacy. For example one trainee said:

Surly there is an influence because person with high self-efficacy can easily immerse in a new environment and will be comfortable which in turn increases the ability to learn, unlike low self-efficacy trainee who feel not comfortable and has less chance to learn and engage.
Having an interactive environment in training is required to succeed the course and therefore some thought that it is the trainer’s responsibility to assure interaction. Some also were of the view that it is the duty of the trainer to diminish the differences among trainees. One of the participants explained “trainer should make training environment encouraging to all of the trainees to involve in group activities and erase all the barriers that prevent any one from engaging, asking, adding, opposing, or whatever trainees would like.” Another participant added “the trainer should be smart, bold, confident, and continuously sophisticated. These skills help in encouraging trainees’ engagement and improving their readiness to achieve training goals and acquiring new skills”. A trainee also explained how the trainer helped him to overcome the feeling of discomfort because of being in a new environment. “I was a little shy and less participating but because of trainer’s interference he could involve me in training activities and conversations that made me positively interact and participate.”.

It also has been found that interaction in training not only enhances learning outcomes but also the level of training satisfaction. According to the findings it is found that some interviewees thought that a trainee with high self-efficacy is likely to be more satisfied. A trainee commented “the influence comes because trainee with a high self-efficacy could vary the source of knowledge and immerse himself in a new environment and benefit from it.” In addition, another one said “self-efficacy could increase learning motivation; as a result, trainee will be satisfied with the training.” The majority of the participants argued that the influence of self-efficacy on training satisfaction is insignificant due to the role of the trainer, group activities and the encouraging environment that eases trainees’ involvement. As an example, one trainee argued “I think self-efficacy does not affect training satisfaction because I do not see differences among trainees in their efficacy and also due to the qualified trainers, interactive training environment and suitable content”.
It is worth noting that this study found that people have different perceptions of interaction. For example, while some like to show enthusiasm, engagement, participation and discussion in the course as interaction, others may prefer different ways. One participant clarified that being silent does not mean the trainee is not motivated. He said:

It sometimes refers to the nature of the person as some prefer to listen and think more than participate. Also some employees who find difficulties in engaging with others, especially strangers, do not like training due to the nature of training, which requires a lot of group activities and interactions.

In conclusion, self-efficacy influences the ability of interaction during training, which in turn influences the outcomes of training and the level of satisfaction. The following section will present participants’ opinions about learning motivation.

**Self-accomplishment and the influence in Learning Motivation**

According to the findings, some trainees are motivated towards learning, training and development because they value self-accomplishment. For example, one interviewee said:

There are two types of employees in regard to motivation. Some are motivated because they feel the importance of training in self-development whereas others are motivated because they can get promoted and monetary incentives. In fact, employees who only come looking for financial incentives will have less benefits comparing with those who have desire to learn and improve their performance and skills.

However, when a trainee is lacking the desire for self-accomplishment, he becomes a negative influencer on the group and may reduce the outcomes of training. A trainee mentioned the effect of non-motivated trainees on others and said “trainees with low learning motivation may negatively affect others because they are just looking for the end of the
session and some time they tell others not to ask the trainer to avoid taking longer time in the
session.”

Another added “those trainees justify that ‘our job is clear and we do not need more
instructions’”. To conclude, self-accomplishment as an internal motive has a role to play in
having successful training.

Gathering Perceptions about the Course

The qualitative findings suggested that a person’s expectations come from different
sources which that individual gathered to build his/her own expectations. It has been found
that asking peers and relying on personal experience were two ways to structure personal
expectations, therefore participants expressed their opinions regarding the information
source. Some asked many people and had a lot of information and some had limited
information, sometimes because the call for the course was sudden and there was not enough
time between the announcement and the beginning of the course. For instance, a trainee said
“I had only got a little information and it was positively encouraging.” Some had a clear
vision of the course by asking colleagues who had attended the course previously. A
participant commented “asking many former trainees could give you a precise impression and
a correct expectation rather than asking one or two who may mislead you or give you a
wrong judgment”.

Alternatively, some trainees just relied on their own experience in building their
expectations and often had different expectations due to their own different experiences. Two
factors can determine personal experience about training which are: familiarity with the
training and attitudes toward the educational system. Regarding familiarity with training,
employees may vary their expectations by their level of familiarity with job training. For
example, a trainee justified difference among trainees in expectations by “being familiar with
training could give clear ideas. Some trainees are not familiar with training so they relied on peers’ feedback which depends on personal opinion.” On the other hand, some may build their expectations upon their attitudes toward the educational system in Saudi Arabia. As a result a trainee declared his concern about the style used in the course and stated “I was worried that things will go like lectures which is not my favourite but I became impressed with the methods used in the course.” It seems that this concern may occur because of attitudes about the educational system, especially in higher education.

Even though trainees’ expectations have an impact on their behaviour during training, this impact may change because of some factors such as, trainer, training environment, and beneficial content. One of the trainees confessed that “I had bad expectations when I asked some peers, nevertheless the impression changed when I immersed myself into the new environment with an optimistic soul.” Another one said:

I asked but found contradictions. Some said that it is similar to studying at the university, which made me get negative expectations. Once I finished my first week, I felt that there are so many advantages and beautiful things worth the difficulties that I have been through. Therefore, I have positively changed my mind and decided to benefit as much as I can from the course.

To sum up, regardless of the source of information an employee uses to build expectations about training, these expectations influence trainees’ behaviour with a probability for change depending on the individual’s experience during the course. For the benefits expected, the following theme will present participants’ opinion on this issue.

**Starting with a Positive Mindset**

In the qualitative findings of this study, participants discussed benefits expected of training from different angles. For instance, participants mentioned that expected benefits
help in easing the difficulties faced in attending training. Due to the inconvenience such as the timing and the place of the course, one trainee said “I expected that the course would be tiring and hard, but I quickly got used to the environment and found that the program is very beneficial and useful.” In addition to the importance of the feedback that employee gets before attending the course, a trainee mentioned that “expected difficulties could also diminish a person’s expectations exactly like what has happened in his case as he came from a remote city about 1000 km far from Makkah. I could overcome this obstacle because I came to seek usefulness from this course.”

Some participants expressed how much they value the benefits expected from training. For example, when I asked about the training facilities such as the room, light, furniture, devices, and climate, some participants found them more than what they expected whereas others disagreed. However, some interviewees expressed that they did not think of that because it did not matter to them, as one commented “what really matters is the tangible benefits of the course.” An interesting finding is that, when I asked about the differences among trainees regarding expectations, I found out that expecting benefits came from being familiar with training. A trainee explained “employees who are not familiar with such courses may have low expectations but others who are used to training have high expectations.” Most participants believe that it is normal for people to be different in their expectations because of the differences in trainees’ perceptions of training. For instance, a participant stated that:

Mental image differs among people due to the data they gathered and peers’ responses about the training course. When they are very pleased and satisfied about the course, the expectations will be high and it will be low when peers respond the opposite.
It has been found that some participants who did not expect much were impressed by the course and admitted that trainers were much better than they expected. A participant said “I was not motivated because I was underestimating the program and trainers but they impressed me and changed my expectations.” Another also admitted that “I was worried that things would go like lectures, which is not my favourite, but I became impressed with the methods used in the course.” Participants disagreed about which it is better to have, high expectations or low expectations. One shared his own tactic in dealing with contradicted perspectives “I prefer to come with ordinary expectations because having high expectations may disappoint trainee so to avoid this I like not to be over-optimistic.” Likewise, another trainee claimed that “average expectations could make a trainee significantly benefit from the course, as he is impressed by things he did not expect. Consequently, that will in term positively affect his evaluation of the course.”

To summarise, although trainees were different in their expectations, they presented the role of expecting benefits that ease training difficulties and help in overcoming these barriers. In addition, familiarity with training and the level of expectation were significant in reaction during training and after. Participants’ perspectives toward training satisfaction will be addressed in the following section.

**Perceptions of Quality**

Trainees’ perception of training quality was discussed in the interviews. Participants had their own perception of quality specifically training quality, content quality, and training environment quality. These three components will be discussed in turn.

Regarding trainer quality participants perceived that the quality of trainer can be identified by two features. First, whether the trainer has perfect experience in training skills such as managing the training room, voice modulation, utilising body language, being interactive, and being friendly to trainees. A trainee said “trainer should be skilled in training
such as tone modulation, body language, and eye contact because these skills help a lot in catching trainees’ attention and keeping them focused.” Second, the trainer should be able to give reliable information. For example, a trainee said “I expect trainer to be well aware of what is he saying.” Another said “trainers should be familiar with our work regulations.” Another trainee said “skilful trainer has a significant impact as he can catch everyone’s attention and motivate them to what he will present by choosing interesting subjects and avoiding lecture style.”

Secondly, regarding the quality of the content, the finding suggested that the most important feature in the content is that it should be relevant. To some interviewees the only expectation of the content is that it should be directly related to the work. A participant expected that the content would not be relevant and commented “I thought it will not be much related to the work but I found it is very close and much better than what I expected.” Another said “I expected the content will be related but I found some subjects do not match the work nature directly.” Moreover, one trainee criticised some subjects of being non-realistic and added “some contents do not touch the reality of work issues; meanwhile, the most subjects are suitable and useful.” Another issue was that some subjects are very important and needed a longer time to understand the content, but these subjects were compressed into very short time. A trainee suggested “this issue should be taken into account and important subjects have to be given sufficient time to be suitably absorbed.”

Third, interviewees showed some opinion about the quality of the training environment and the most important issue is that it should ensure trainees’ comfort, ability for trainer to move around groups and encourage interaction. A trainee stated “I did not expect a training room like this. I thought it was a theatre but in fact this is much better because trainer is able to move and sit with groups to discuss with them.” Another trainee said “training environment, I expected it boring but found it interactive.” Due to the fact that
the course involved trainees from several cities, it has been found that some liked the idea of meeting new people and some did not. For instance, a trainee said “due to the mixture among trainees who came from different regions all across the country, I was not expecting a comfortable feeling but I found it the opposite.”

In brief, achieving training quality features enhanced satisfaction with job training and achieves training goals. The following theme will shed the light on trainees’ reactions.

Responses to Training Experience

Interview participants discussed their reactions to different elements of training such as, the way training surprised them, met their expectations, and how they felt the quality of training. For example, some participants saw that, finding surprising things in the course would impress trainees and cause good reactions. A trainee said “finding training better than expectations is very useful as it surprises trainees and make them happier and more eager to learn and interact.” By contrast, it also has been found that negative reactions could be induced by the failure to meet expectations that affect interactivity and learning benefits. One trainee stated that “trainee may be disappointed if he came with high expectations but the reality was not as expected and this may cause him to be less interacted and paying less attention.” Another said “yes, expectations affect satisfaction with the course, especially when trainee is shocked by poorer training than expected which in turn reduces the level of training satisfaction.” Another trainee also added “yes, when you expect better and found less the motivation will be impacted and hence training satisfaction”

The findings suggested that, however the perspective of reaction was influenced by expectations, reaction could be changed due to other factors such as the quality of the trainer and the content. For instance, a participant said:
The impact of expectations will appear only in the beginning of the course as trainee with high expectations will start with enthusiasm and interaction by the opposite of who has low expectations. After that, things will change depending on trainer competency and content.

Another one also added that “nevertheless, well organised training, a skilful trainer, and proper content will change the mental image whatever it was and determines trainee’s impression toward the course.” Interestingly, the majority of the interviewees were referring satisfaction to what really matters, such as: trainer skilfulness, the quality of the content, and the convenience of the course timing and place. Two trainees for example stated:

Although that there are some difficulties such as the far distance between my hometown and training place as I travel daily 390 km because I cannot stay here because my parents are sick and I have to take care of them. After all, I am happy with the course because I decided not to let these barriers affect my judgment.

The other one said:

Although the importance of job commitment, I believe that content and trainer’s skilfulness determine trainees’ satisfaction. Some courses are useless because of lacking the training quality. However, the valuable courses do not just satisfy trainees but also make them looking forward to other courses.

Thus, trainees’ reactions were influenced by several actions such as being surprised by something interesting, meeting expectations, and being impressed by the quality of the course. However, meeting trainees’ expectations and achieving the quality of training were the most important features that determine satisfaction with job training. The following theme will present difficulties faced by trainees in this course.
Training Challenges

Trainees in this study faced some difficulties that were discussed in the interviews and these difficulties may affect training outcomes and training satisfaction. First, the findings suggest that when training is compulsory some negative attitudes about the course are created. Some trainees thought that trainees in a compulsory course engage in less interaction, as one interviewee said “feeling that the course is compulsory reduces trainee’s interaction, absence, and less punctuality. But some take it as a chance to learn and improve so they positively interact with the trainer and have significant benefits.” Another one expressed these sentiments:

in the compulsory training like this the impact of work support is not clear because there is no choice and employee has to attend but when the training is optional the influence of work support could be clear in encouraging trainee to properly interact and show more interest.

Some interviewees have suggested reasons for trainees’ reduced learning motivation. For example, a trainee argued that “compulsory training could diminish learning motivation. In addition, being away from hometown caused some inconvenience to some trainees.” Another one said “the nature of compulsory courses tends to make trainees expect less due to their inconveniences.”

Second, holding the course in one place caused employees to travel to attend it, which also caused some inconveniences. One trainee mentioned “excellent training methods and environment made him not only satisfied but also helped him to overcome the difficulties of attending the course from a far distance.” Another trainee suggested “due to inconveniences of compulsory training my satisfaction is low and I suggest replacing this course with mobile courses.” By ‘mobile courses’ he referred to a past practice where this course was held in
cities around the country. This was very convenient to trainees but recently the course has been only held in the training department in Makkah. Some trainees complained about being in a course where they did not know any of the trainees, which made them uncomfortable. One trainee said

It made me fell less optimistic when I feel it is a compulsory course. In addition, being with employees who you already know could make trainees more comfortable, as I experienced in the beginning of the course. Therefore, it took time from me to adjust with new faces and new environment. I suggest that having training in the hometown with near colleagues is much better and more convenient.

Third, the findings highlighted the issue of timing for the course. Some complained that the course timing did not fit them and they had no choice but to attend. For instance, a participant said:

There are some issues employees may have, for example the timing of the course was not convenient to some but there was no way to fix this inconvenience. However, some may overcome all of the barriers and express that they are satisfied.

Fourth, some trainees felt that being in training with employees from different levels of experience made some feel less comfortable due to the variance in ideas. For example, a trainee with high experience justified “when you have training with new employees there will be broad gap between you and them in perspectives and less chance in participation, which makes the person with high experience avoid interaction and participation.” Training in this case had some barriers that may have affected trainees’ satisfaction or training outcomes. However some participants reported benefits such as exposure to higher commitment to the job, and self-efficacy.
Summary

In conclusion, the findings highlighted some issues in each of the study’s constructs. First, regarding job commitment, the findings explained the impact of commitment in valuing training, learning motivation and easing training difficulties. Moreover, the findings discussed organisational factors that negatively influence job commitment such as unjust behaviours, outdated regulations, and unfriendly work environment. Next, work support has been discussed in terms of importance, influence on training outcomes, and the diversity in personal needs for support. Furthermore, the role of encouraging work environment and having social bonds at work were believed to be significant in motivating employees to training and maximise training outcomes and satisfaction.

Consequently, the findings showed the influence of self-efficacy on motivation for training, acquiring new knowledge and skills, interaction during training, coping with a new learning environment, giving precise evaluations, easing training difficulties and enhancing training outcomes and levels of satisfaction. Then, for learning motivation, the findings highlighted the interaction between motivation and other constructs towards beneficial results towards commitment, work support, self-efficacy, and expectations. The findings also addressed the different types of incentives for motivation from participants’ view and their role in training success specifically when the employee values self-accomplishment.

Next, regarding trainees’ expectations, the findings discussed what determines expectations as some tend to ask peers while others build their expectations upon their experiences. The finding also suggested that, being familiar with training gives realistic expectations whereas others may have high or low expectations that affect their judgment of the course. The influence of expectations has been shown in motivation to training, training satisfaction, and again easing training difficulties. Furthermore, the findings highlighted what trainees expect of the trainer (being skilful in training skills and aware of work regulations
and issues), content (being relevant to work), and training environment (being interactive and comfortable).

Finally, the findings addressed what influences trainees’ satisfaction in terms of their attitudes and expectations such as being impressed with surprising training, meeting expectations, and being impressed with training quality. The findings highlighted some difficulties such as the training being compulsory, its timing, being held in one fixed place, and in the merging of different experience levels of employees. These are difficulties that faced trainees in attending this course and which may reduce the benefits of this course. Still, some could overcome these obstacles due to the other advantages of the course such as incentives, commitment to the organisation, work support, being self-motivated, having high self-efficacy and expectations of the course.
Chapter Seven: Discussion

This study investigated the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction and what mediates these relationships in the case of job training in Saudi Arabia. In order to achieve the aim of this study, the data collected were a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data provided measurements for the constructs of the study, the differences among the demographical groups, and the relations among the constructs of the study. To complement this, the qualitative data provided a broad vision about the situation and explained more about trainees’ attitudes and expectations and how they influence training satisfaction.

In this chapter, regarding the literature reviewed in the context of Saudi Arabia, the findings of this study will be discussed based on the five dimensions that were suggested by the literature as having an influence in the case of Saudi Arabia. Firstly, the dimension of religion in Saudi society relates to the status of religion in the society, its encouragement to seek knowledge, its aspiration for unity, and Islam’s vision for the role of humans on the earth. This dimension will be discussed in relation to its influence on job commitment, self-efficacy, and learning motivation and their relationships with training satisfaction.

Second, the dimension of social relations in Saudi society considers the multi layers of social connections such as family, extended-family, tribe, and region, and the effect of these multi layers in the social setting. The social dimension will highlight work support and trainees’ expectations and their relationships with training satisfaction. Third, the dimension of employment in the Saudi context considers the shifting in attitudes toward work and employment, types of employment, and related issues such as localisation and bureaucracy. The role of this dimension in job commitment and work support and how they influence training satisfaction will be explained.
Fourth, the educational dimension is concerned with attitudes toward education and specialisation, and the status of education in Saudi Arabia. The dimension of education will be discussed with regard to its effect on trainees’ expectations and how they influence training satisfaction. Finally, the economic dimension relates to poverty and unemployment issues in Saudi Arabia. The influence of this dimension on learning motivation is highlighted and its relationship with job training satisfaction is explained.

**Dimension of Religion**

Due to the high status of religion in Saudi society (Al-Shammari, 2009; Albugamy, 2014; Alhamoudi, 2010), the findings of this study identified a significant influence of religious values especially in commitment to the job, attitude toward self-efficacy, and learning motivation. This was addressed in Chapter Two about the Saudi context and the status of religion in society. Besides, the case of this study is one of a religious organisation in Saudi Arabia that performs a religious mission in Islam, which is the promotion of virtue and prevention of vice, so the influence of religion here is undeniable. Furthermore, in the description of the training course, it can be seen that there is a portion of religious foundation in the course, as will be discussed soon.

This section will discuss the interference of religion in the constructs of the study based on the diagram below (see Figure 7.1). To start with job commitment, the discussion will be about how much job commitment influences job training satisfaction based on the quantitative results of this study and hence how can the religious dimension interfere in this relationship through the two themes of the qualitative findings which are feelings responsible and showing gratitude about the job. The same process will be implemented with self-efficacy and learning motivation by discussing the quantitative results about the relationship between self-efficacy and job training satisfaction, and the relationship between learning motivation and job training satisfaction. Next, the themes of self-efficacy and learning
motivation will be discussed to show the interference of religion in the relationships mentioned above.

![Diagram showing the religious role in mediating the relationship between trainees' attitudes and job training satisfaction]

Figure 7.1. The religious role in mediating the relationship between trainees’ attitudes and job training satisfaction

With regard to the religion’s encouragement for seeking more knowledge as addressed in Chapter Two, the content of the course fulfilled the desire of gaining more learning and knowledge. Three weeks of the course were specialised in theoretical issues related to policies, legislations, and Islamic backup for work practices. Not only theoretical and Islamic knowledge is provided but also there are two weeks covering educational and psychological theories and studies to be implemented in the field.

The course devotes four weeks to self-development skills, showing the importance of empowering employees. For example, planning skills, critical thinking, communication and dialogue skills are covered in four weeks. With this intense course there are huge amounts of
new knowledge and skills to fulfil the desire for seeking knowledge and personal development.

**The influence of job commitment on training satisfaction.**

The results of this study suggest that trainees show significant commitment to their organisation with the data on job commitment being relatively high ($r = 4.48$). The commitment in this case can be understood by identifying the relationship between the ideas of Islam in a religious society like Saudi Arabia and the views of the employees of the organisation. In other words, Saudi Arabia is a religious country that has the two Holy Mosques and hosts other Muslims from different countries around the world every year in the Hajj period. This society values the Islamic teachings, one of these is promoting virtue and preventing vice, which is the purpose of the organisation that the trainees belong to. This congruence of the viewpoints of Islam and the organisation may explain why the result for job commitment in this study scored the highest result of all the constructs.

The literature in the training field indicates that there is a relationship between trainees’ attitudes to job commitment and training satisfaction. For instance Chang et al., (2010) found that employees’ loyalty could be enhanced by their job satisfaction, which is significantly associated with trainees’ satisfaction. Furthermore, Fu et al. (2014) claim that there is a high impact of training satisfaction on employees’ performance, which in turn influences their job commitment.

There are empirical studies that show the influence of training satisfaction on job commitment, therefore investigating the opposite influence is one of the study’s objectives. Although Tannenbaum et al. (1991) claim that job commitment is not only an outcome of training but also an antecedent factor in training, the influence of job commitment on training satisfaction is still ambiguous and needs more investigation. Moreover, as a sign of job
commitment, job involvement has been reported as playing a role in learning motivation (Cheng & Ho, 2001; von Treuer et al., 2013). The results of this study reflect this relationship, as the correlation test scored a significant result ($r = .47$) between trainees’ attitude toward job commitment and training satisfaction. In other words, when employees are highly job committed, their satisfaction with the training offered is likely to be high. To sum up, the result of the correlation test for the quantitative data in this study is constant with the literature that shows an influence of job commitment on training satisfaction.

**Feeling responsible.**

According to the findings of this study a feeling of responsibility enhances commitment to work and hence the success of training. The literature also asserted the role of being responsible in commitment and training effectiveness (Choo & Bowley, 2007; Gallagher & Anderson, 2006). The feeling of responsibility in this case can be explained from a religious perspective. The trainees in this study are employees of a religious organisation that was established to serve a highly valued duty for Muslims, which is promotion of virtue and prevention of vice. As a result of valuing this unique Islamic practice and the principle of being part of a mission to save the community from harmful practices, especially immoral behaviours, many feel proud to be an employee of such an organisation. Thus, from this perspective, it can be seen how these employees have feelings of responsibility and commitment toward this organisation.

In addition, the findings of this study suggested that as well as enhancing job commitment, a feeling of responsibility has other benefits. Firstly, according to the participants a feeling of responsibility inspires a desire to acquire knowledge and new skills. Second, it provides the ability to realise the value-added nature of the training. Third, it adds more value to the training being offered. Last, but not least, it helps in overcoming training difficulties. Thus, these feelings of responsibility that result from the religious view support
the role of religion in mediating the relationship between job commitment and job training satisfaction.

Job commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), is divided into three categories: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment includes the feeling of involvement and identification with the organisation and normative commitment includes a feeling of obligation toward the organisation. Hence, the participants in this study had a feeling of responsibility because they felt that their job was not just a job but also a religious obligation. Therefore, from the participants’ perspectives, the feeling of responsibility enhances the desire to seek new knowledge and skills, which is in agreement with studies that have established the influence of job commitment on trainees’ motivation for training and training success (Cheng & Ho, 2001; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Therefore, job commitment as a result of a feeling of responsibility about work inspires the desire to acquire new knowledge and skills, and this may explain the influence of job commitment on job training satisfaction, as job training provides an opportunity to fulfil the desire to acquire knowledge.

Meyer and Allen (1991) claim that employees’ emotional attachment to their organisation means they value the efforts the organisation makes to encourage development. In this case, the religious feeling of attachment between employees and the religious organisation explains the participants’ view of the importance of the feeling of responsibility in making employees value job training. As well as having a high status in Saudi society, religion influences the choice of type of employment (Fawzi & Almarshed, 2013), which may explain the motivation for choosing this job and the desire to develop the organisation. Accordingly, valuing training, which is a result of job commitment as the findings suggested, encourages employees to make an effort to attend training for the sake of developing themselves and the workplace. Valuing job training may also explain how job commitment
influences job training satisfaction because of the high value trainees place on their achievement after the course.

**Showing gratitude.**

One of the findings of the study was the gratitude that participants felt toward their work. According to the findings of the current study, a feeling of gratitude can be seen as a commitment to the work because it encourages employees to work hard in order to prove their feelings. The findings also attributed the feeling of gratitude to two reasons: a feeling of attachment and looking at the work as the source of income. With regard to the feeling of attachment, participants expressed that they became accustomed to this job and felt a kind of attachment. The literature also asserts the importance of a feeling of attachment for work in creating a strong job commitment (Bartlett, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Being a source of income may indicate the importance of the economic status, which will now be discussed.

Gratitude was reflected through religious and economic aspects. The religious explanation results from the nature of the work with the committee of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice, which satisfies religious commitment; employees feel proud of being in a job that serves a high religious value. In addition, there is a social explanation to their gratitude as the literature mentions that social status is highly valued in Saudi society (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010). Looking for social status influences Saudis’ choices regarding the type of employment, as generally the public sector is preferred to the private sector (Albugamy, 2014; Alsarhani, 2005; Baqadir et al., 2011). In this case, being in a public job may give employees more satisfaction, as it enhances social status, which in turn strengthens their feelings of gratitude toward their work.

Consequently, employees feel they have to extend more efforts to prove their loyalty to work either through work performance or by attending job training to develop and transfer
skills into the workplace. This finding supports the studies mentioned above that linked job commitment with training motivation as a desire for development that the workplace requires (Cheng & Ho, 2001; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). As the findings suggested that gratitude can be derived from the feelings of serving religious values, also gratitude was considered as a source of job commitment. As a result, the desire to pay more attention to work and development as a result of a feeling of gratitude towards work also explains the relationship between job commitment and training satisfaction, and the religious value of the work may mediate this relationship.

**The influence of self-efficacy on training satisfaction.**

The quantitative data in this study suggest that trainees’ attitudes toward self-efficacy have the lowest score among the other constructs with \( r = 3.95 \), though it is still considered high. The literature highlights the importance of trainees’ self-efficacy in training satisfaction either as an indirect factor in training satisfaction (Bandura, 2000) or as a predictive factor in training satisfaction (Artino, 2008; Gunawardena et al., 2010). The data from this study consistently show the influence of trainees’ self-efficacy on training satisfaction. The correlation test results indicate that there is a significant relationship between these two constructs with \( r = .52 \). This result means that when the trainee feels more self-efficacy, the satisfaction with the course is likely to be high. According to the participants in this study, self-efficacy plays a crucial role in enhancing training interactions, which in turn optimises training outcomes.

**Role of religion in self-efficacy.**

The influence of religion on trainees’ attitudes toward themselves is also understandable. The religious view of humans being responsible for the society and the encouragement in Islam to seek knowledge can explain the internal motives of participants and the high feeling of self-efficacy. Participants expressed the importance of self-efficacy in
learning outcomes as it encourages the acquisition of knowledge. They also feel they are performing things that are religiously appreciated. This finding also can be explained by a study that found that the relationship between self-efficacy and observational learning is important in individual development (Ma et al., 2015). Thus, the role of self-efficacy in enhancing knowledge acquisition may explain how self-efficacy influences training satisfaction, as trainees with high self-efficacy are willing to learn, which enhances their satisfaction with job training.

Religious motives can also explain participants’ attitudes about their own goals, especially if these goals are aligned with the organisational goals that are valued from a religious perspective. Being determined about personal goals and achieving these goals was one of the self-efficacy effects that was suggested by the findings of this study. Participants inferred that an individual with high self-efficacy is a determined person who is eager about development activities such as job training. The literature supports this finding, as Bandura (2000) claims that self-efficacy influences motivation, which in turn affects goals and aspirations. Furthermore, being religiously motivated to be a righteous and beneficial person may also positively influence self-efficacy.

Moreover, optimism about undertaking productive activities can be explained in this case by religious motives. Participants explained how self-efficacy influences optimism, as a person with high self-efficacy also has eagerness and high expectations, especially when feeling the religious value of the job he is performing. This finding is consistent with the literature, as some studies found a relationship between self-efficacy and the expectation of usefulness (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010; Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). As a result, being determined about personal goals and having high expectations of the benefits explains the influence of self-efficacy on training satisfaction, as these two features
increase the ability for learning, which in turn increases training outcomes such as satisfaction with job training.

One benefit of self-efficacy mentioned by participants is being able to give a precise evaluation of the course. They explained that due to a person’s set of goals and expectations, they can evaluate training and give wise feedback. The literature indicates this finding, as Sinclair and Ferguson (2009) explain, that evaluating training is particularly important because learning through training integrates processes such as cognition, vicarious ability, self-reflection and self-regulation, which are considered to be social cognitive theory supportive processes. Therefore, this finding asserts the influence of self-efficacy on training satisfaction as high self-efficacy will ensure accurate evaluation. Thus, religious motives can explain the relationship between self-efficacy and training satisfaction due to the influence of religion on individuals’ attitudes toward seeking more knowledge and being useful in society.

Participants’ interactions.

Islamic teachings say that individuals should be helpful. Therefore, interacting during the course can be understood in this case to be a result of religious and social values (Alhamoudi, 2010). It was found in the current study that both work support and self-efficacy help with interacting with others even in a new environment like the training course that is the focus of this study. Interactions with others during training can be influenced by religious and social motives. Islam encourages Muslims to interact with others, to help and benefit each other. Therefore, participants expressed how an interactive environment is crucial for the success of the training, as it enhances the learning experience and helps to diminish training difficulties. Previous studies have confirmed the same linkage between a strong sense of self-efficacy and social integration (Bandura, 1997; Maddux, 1995). Similarly, the findings in this study established the role of interaction during training in enhancing training satisfaction, because it helps trainees to gain their knowledge from other sources rather than
relying only on the trainer. This finding is also related to the research questions as it explains the influence of self-efficacy on training satisfaction, where interaction during training which is religiously promoted enhances self-efficacy and hence results in training success and an increase in the level of trainees’ satisfaction.

**Effect of age factor on self-efficacy.**

In this study, the age factor was found to have a role in satisfaction with job training because there was a significant difference in trainees’ self-efficacy according to age. Young trainees from twenty to twenty-five years old had notably less self-efficacy. There is no evidence from the literature of the influence of age on self-efficacy; however, some studies may help to explain this result. It has been found that self-efficacy is linked to social integration and high achievement (Bandura, 1997; Maddux, 1995). Therefore, young employees may have less self-efficacy because of some social considerations, their feeling of lack of achievement, or both.

When taking the social dimension into account, young employees may have a difficult time proving themselves in the social fabric, which may shake their confidence. In addition, young people experience a range of difficult situations, such as looking for a job, life expenses, social duties, and being busy with marriage or planning for it, as this is usually the age for marrying in Saudi society. Another reason is a feeling of lacking achievement, as it is understandable that young employees may take time to get used to work and achieve goals or promotions.

Under these circumstances, self-efficacy for young trainees was significantly less than for the other participants. Hence, according to the literature, employees with low self-efficacy require sufficient care as they may feel helplessness, anxiety, depression, and negative thoughts about accomplishment (Rimm & Jerusalem, 1999). As a result, prescriptive training
may be the right method because they like to be told what to do and how exactly to do it (Jones, 1986; Saks, 1995). To conclude, self-efficacy has been found to be influenced by the age factor in this study due to social and personal circumstances, hence special care is required when designing job training for young employees.

**The influence of motivation on training satisfaction.**

The results of the study show that participants had a high learning motivation, as the main score for learning motivation was high at $r = 4.27$. According to Harris et al. (2014), trainees’ satisfaction is considered to be a result of both the competence of the instructor and trainees’ motivation. Likewise, the data of this study found that there is a relationship between trainees’ learning motivation and training satisfaction as demonstrated in the correlations test table. The result of the correlations test between learning motivation and training satisfaction is significant, with $r = .44$ meaning that trainees who are highly motivated to learn are more likely to express satisfaction about training; whereas other trainees who have a low motivation to learn may feel less satisfied about training. Nevertheless, it seems that in this study, learning motivation has the lowest relation with training satisfaction in comparison with the other constructs of this study, which may need further investigation.

**Feeling of accomplishment.**

As a result of being in a religious society, there is a feeling of satisfaction after accomplishing duties that serve religious values. Therefore, as well as material reward, trainees have a feeling of accomplishment in that they feel how much they have achieved in improving their religious duty. In addition, although Islam encourages Muslims to acquire and seek more knowledge, the literature indicates that learning motivation comes from the idea that beneficial outcomes of training such as increased chances for promotion and an increase in salary will provide a feeling of accomplishment (Mathieu et al., 1992). Trainees in
this case were aware of the benefits of training such as the monetary reward and increased chances of promotion. Some participants also expressed how they were determined to benefit from the course and how this desire helped in easing any difficulties caused by this course.

A feeling of accomplishment was also reported to have a crucial role in gaining training benefits and having high motivation. This finding is consistent with previous studies that assert the importance of a feeling of accomplishment in training success and other benefits in increasing motivation, which also result in training satisfaction (Artino, 2008; S. I. Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). This finding helps to understand the relationship between motivation and training satisfaction, because expecting benefits motivates trainees. As a result, learning motivation helps to achieve an individual’s goals and feeling of accomplishment, which in turn results in a feeling of satisfaction after accomplishing training. As long as motivation assists in training success, lack of motivation has a negative influence. Some participants reported there were some individuals who were less motivated for training and how they negatively influenced others. Regardless of the reasons behind the low motivation of these individuals, their influence on other trainees is noticeable, according to the participants.

**Coping with training difficulties.**

With regard to the difficulties associated with job training, such as travelling and being away from the hometown, this study found that the feeling of responsibility helps employees to overcome the training barriers mentioned earlier, such as holding the course in one place for all employees from across the country and the suitability of the time for all trainees. The religious perspective can explain this finding as the trainees in this case place a high value on doing something that supports their important job of enforcing the Islamic orders. From practical and scientific aspects, the finding that job commitment is crucial in the desire for training is supported by Cheng and Ho’s (2001) study that established the influence
of a feeling of job involvement on motivation for training. Religious motivation for job training in this case can be understood because of the religious value trainees in this study placed on job training that in turn improves and benefits their job. Moreover, the trainees’ commitment helps to ease training barriers or difficulties they may face, as it encourages them to prove their intention to acquire knowledge and skills, especially with religious motives as in this case. The compulsory nature of some training may have a negative effect and these difficulties may decrease satisfaction with job training. However, due to the influence of Islam on all aspects of life for the individual and society including work (Metcalfe, 2007), the feeling of responsibility from this religious influence helps to diminish the negative impact of these difficulties, which explains how job commitment influences training satisfaction.

**Effect of the experience factor on training motivation.**

The length of a trainee’s experience was also found to play a notable role in motivation for training. The results of this study suggest that the group of trainees who had between five and ten years’ experience had considerably higher motivation. The cultural dimensions may also help in explaining this result, as there is no evidence in the literature about the effect of experience level on learning motivation.

It is likely that after spending five years in the job, the employee may have become familiar with the right way to achieve goals. Additionally, after five years, employees usually become more determined to seek promotion and understand the effectiveness of job training, which makes these employees more motivated about job training. This result suggests that it may be advisable to exploit the group of employees with this level of experience to provide more intensive training and fulfil their desire for training while they are willing.
However, according to the results of this study, after ten years’ experience trainees’ motivation declined remarkably. It seems that after this time employees become involved in different activities and social connections that make them less willing to spend time in training. This result is partly supported by the literature that shows a negative relationship between age and learning motivation (Gist et al., 1988; Martocchio, 1994). The employment dimension may also suggest some explanation for this result, as after ten years’ experience, promotion becomes difficult to achieve or requires time rather than gaining training courses hours.

To conclude, the results of this study suggest the following: job commitment and training satisfaction relationship, self-efficacy and training satisfaction relationship, and learning motivation and training satisfaction relationship; the qualitative findings supported these results. The religious aspect in this case plays a major role in explaining trainees’ attitudes and behaviours, including feelings of responsibility, gratitude, enhancing self-efficacy, training interactions and of accomplishment. Therefore, it can be concluded that in the case of this study religion mediates the relationship between trainees’ attitudes toward job commitment, self-efficacy, and learning motivation and their satisfaction with the course. The influences and relationships can be understood from the diagram above (Figure 7.1). While job commitment, self-efficacy, and learning motivation have relationships with job training satisfaction, according to both the literature and the results of this study, the findings of this study showed that religion influences these relations in five ways: by encouraging a feeling of responsibility, by inspiring a desire to show gratitude, by enhancing confidence, by encouraging interactions, and by creating a feeling of self-accomplishment.

Dimension of Social Connections

According to the features of the Saudi social fabric mentioned in Chapter Two, social interference can be identified in the findings of this study. The influence of social interactions
on work support and trainees’ expectations will be discussed. The following diagram illustrates how social dimensions influence the constructs of the study through some themes identified from the findings of this study. First, regarding work support, social connections seem to have an influence on work support through the importance of social bonds, attitudes toward a healthy workplace environment, and the interactions during the course. Second, social relations influence trainees’ expectations because of the role of social connections on building expectations which will be discussed below.

Figure 7.2. The social role in mediating the relationship between work support and training satisfaction and between expectations and training satisfaction

The influence of work support on training satisfaction.

The data in this study suggest that trainees’ attitudes toward work support are significantly high with the mean result $r = 4.2$. That is to say, participants in this study approved of the support they receive from their organisation. With regard to the influence of work support on training satisfaction, some studies confirmed the influence of work support on training satisfaction, moderated by learning motivation and training transfer (Bhatti et al., 2014; Ravichandran et al., 2015; Shariff & Al-Makhadmah, 2012). The data in this study
consistently emphasise this relationship because it appears that there is a noticeable relationship between trainees’ attitude toward work support and their satisfaction with the training \( r = .51 \). This means that experiencing sufficient work support is likely to make employees more satisfied with the job training.

*Social bonds at work.*

The social connections in Saudi society influence several aspects of life, including work (Kassim, 1993) and individuals make assumptions about the social bonds that should be evident in any community, particularly the workplace. Therefore, trainees identified the importance of these bonds for job training success. Considering the nature of social relations in Saudi society, employees value social bonds at work not only as a kind of work support but also as social commitment, as Saudi people are accustomed to making affiliations based on kinship, tribe, or region (Alhamoudi, 2010; Alsarhani, 2005). The findings show that participants felt that bonding with workmates is a sign of an encouraging and supportive workplace. Also, the findings emphasise the positive influence of having strong social bonds at work as they enhance training motivation and interaction during training as well. This finding can be understood with reference to the multi-level of social relations in Saudi society (Alsarhani, 2005), and also supports the literature, as scholars assert the importance of peer support in training success (Bulut & Culha, 2010).

In the findings of this study, participants identified with both financial and non-financial factors that can enhance training outcomes. Non-financial incentives were identified by participants as a feeling of belongingness and to what extent they are valued by the administration. Participants also expressed how communication with their managers during the course gave them extra motivation to benefit from the training. Other participants indicated they feel supported when they are appreciated, which is similar to the research that has identified the importance of approval as a work support that makes employees feel
involved with work and encourages them to perform well (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, both financial and nonfinancial supports were linked to training motivation and consequently on training satisfaction.

Participants also explained how work support motivates them to attend training. This finding is consistent with the literature, as some studies suggest a relationship between work support and training motivation (Bhatti et al., 2014; Ravichandran et al., 2015; Shariff & Al-Makhadmah, 2012). Not only does work support enhance training motivation but participants also mentioned how the support they got from work enhanced their interaction during the course. This finding is also consistent with studies that found the same result (Koffarnus et al., 2013). Understanding the influence of social bonds at work on training motivation explains how work support influences training satisfaction, as it not only enhances motivation for training but also encourages training interaction that increases training outcomes in general and training satisfaction in particular.

Some studies have reported that lack of work support is one of the training barriers (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Shafloot, 2012) and the findings of this study identified that some participants complained about lack of support. This finding is therefore consistent with previous research that reported this problem with training in the Arab World and the Saudi context (Al-Sayyed, 2014; Shafloot, 2012). Participants also explained how lack of work support reduces the desire for training and training transfer. Participants in the current study expressed frustration with some managers who do not provide the proper support, which is consistent with the study by Robinson and Morrison (1995) which found that employees feel betrayed and less committed to work, resulting in less motivation for training. Thus, the influence of work support on training satisfaction can be explained by the social considerations of the high value of bonding with workmates and its influence on the desire for development and training.
Another example of the influence of the social dimension on training outcomes is that, inside the organisation, participants highly value strong relations and criticise the tension that exist in a workplace that makes it an unhealthy environment. Tension can be caused by issues such as discrimination and nepotism (Kassim, 1993; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). A finding of this study suggests that an uncomfortable workplace environment because of tensions inside the organisation is a serious issue that reduces employees’ commitment to their job. Additionally, according to the findings, unhealthy relations inside the organisation reduce the intention to transfer skills and new knowledge to the workplace. Hence, there is a negative influence on the desire for development and training. Although they are not widespread, these conflicts may be the result of conflicts of interest or a failure to accept diversity and overcome differences (A. Barnett et al., 2013; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

There is also a negative influence from a bureaucratic system that supports corruption and nepotism (Al-Awaji, 1971). The findings highlight how the bureaucratic system can reduce work support because some managers do not want to lose their positions to young ambitious employees. Regardless of the reasons for the workplace conflicts, this finding was mentioned in previous studies that investigated work involvement as a factor in job commitment (Arasanmi, 2013; R. Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Shen-Miller et al., 2014). Scholars in these studies assert the importance of job involvement in job commitment and the involvement is diminished by conflicts in the workplace environment, as mentioned by the participants. Thus, it is crucial to have a friendly and healthy work environment to enhance employees’ abilities at training. This situation may also help to explain how job commitment influences training satisfaction.
The need for support during training.

This course was attended by a variety of employees from all across the country. In Saudi society, there is a tendency for people to remain close to their social circle of the extended family, tribe, and region (Al-Shammari, 2009; Albugamy, 2014; Kassim, 1993); therefore, to be immersed in this new mixed community during the training was a barrier for some participants. Hence, some participants described it as a difficult time during which they required emotional support from their managers or peers at work. This finding explains why work support is important for training success and how lack of support decreases training motivation and in turn training satisfaction.

In addition, one of the criticisms about the course was that including employees with different levels of experience caused discomfort for some participants in terms of misunderstanding resulting from the differences in experience and age. This issue arises due to the nature of Saudi society. One of the features of the social fabric in Saudi Arabia is respect for older people (Albugamy, 2014; Alhamoudi, 2010; Kassim, 1993); therefore, training situations that require interactions, comments, questions, and criticism may cause discomfort for some. Attitudes and beliefs about some traditions may vary from one person to another and not all older employees find it difficult to be trained with young employees; however, this may explain how social traditions in Saudi society may influence development activities such as training.

The influence of expectations on training satisfaction.

The trainees in this study showed that they had high expectations of the course. The main result for expectations scored $r = 4.14$, which is quite high. Trainees’ expectations of training have been considered a crucial element in training usefulness (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010; Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Similarly, this study found that there is a significant relationship between trainees’ expectations and training satisfaction.
The result of the correlation test between trainees’ expectation and training satisfaction was $r = .54$, which is regarded as a significant relationship. This means, trainees who attended training with high expectations were likely to be more satisfied with the course.

*Social connections as a source of expectations.*

Employees’ social relations seem to intervene in expectations of the course. The information gathered about the course beforehand depends on personal experience, as many trainees used to ask friends, relatives, and work mates in order to establish their expectations. Consequently, this feedback determines the expectations of the trainers, the content, and the training environment, which in turn influence attitudes toward the course. Thus, social relations can be described as a mediator in the relationship between trainees’ expectations and training satisfaction.

*Expectations and training barriers.*

The desire for learning that is explained by religious, employment, and educational perspectives also explains the high expectations some participants had, which benefited them by enhancing motivation and easing the training barriers. The findings also highlight how high training expectations smoothed the barriers to training, such as time and place issues. On the other hand, some participants expressed how much they were influenced by the difficulties that lowered their expectations; however, they overcame these barriers when they experienced the benefits and quality of the course. Previous studies suggest several benefits of having high expectations for enhancing self-efficacy and learning motivation (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010). Artino (2008) also found a relationship between high expectations and training satisfaction. This relationship between expectations and training satisfaction may be due to its influence in easing training difficulties caused by compulsory job training. Moreover, the findings explained that expecting benefits enhances motivation that in turn increases the chance of learning more and being satisfied with the course. Additionally, the findings
suggested that self-efficacy influences expectations due to the optimism that distinguishes high self-efficacy individuals. Although, the correlation test result confirmed the relationship between learning motivation and expectations, it did not prove the other relation as there were insignificant relationships between self-efficacy and expectations.

In conclusion, the social features of the Saudi community, and the shape of relations among and outside the circle of affiliation, played a significant role in trainees’ attitudes and expectations in this study. The social dimension was found to enhance training outcomes (job commitment, motivation, and training interactions) by positive practices such as encouraging social bonds. On the other hand, there are negative influences resulting from an absence of support or being in a new community for those who have lower social intelligence. Hence, the social dimension in this study can be described as a mediator in the relationship between work support and training satisfaction, as well as in the relationship between trainees’ expectations and training satisfaction. Thus, social dimensions influence the relationship between work support and training satisfaction and the relationship between expectations and training satisfaction. Through the social bonds at work and working in a stable and comfortable work environment, employees may have increased motivation and training satisfaction. In addition, social connections may help in encouraging positive perceptions about the course and overcoming the challenges.

**Dimension of Employment**

Some of the findings may be explained by Saudi cultural attitudes toward employment and work, such as attitudes toward types of employment, employability, and bureaucracy. The particular case used in this study, is a public sector organisation, and such organisations have the disadvantages of being bureaucratic but also have advantages of incentives and mobility issues that will be discussed in this section. The diagram below demonstrates that the employment dimension influences the relationship between job
commitment and job training satisfaction during the themes of the effects of bureaucracy and mobility issues. In addition it shows the interference of the employment dimension in the relationship between work support and job training satisfaction through the themes of mobility and incentives in the public sector.

Figure 7.3. The role of employment dimension in moderating the relationship between job commitment and work support

**Bureaucracy effects.**

As mentioned in Chapter Two, the Saudi public sector is described as a bureaucratic system (Alhamoudi, 2010; Alogla, 1990; Kassim, 1993). That is to say, the process of hiring, promoting, nominating for training, and also firing can take a very long time (Hofstede, 1984). For example, in the case of a complaint by an employee who feels they have been treated in an inappropriate or unjust manner, the employee will have to wait a long time for his complaint to be addressed with no guarantee of a fair outcome in some cases due to nepotism and favouritism in the organisation. A previous study mentioned the negative influence on affective commitment of poor behaviour of managers, such as abusive behaviour (Tepper, 2000) and suppressor effect (Cheng & Ho, 2001). Participants in this study
expressed such concerns about some of their managers, stating that it decreases the level of the employees’ commitment and in turn the desire for training and development. Thus, avoiding the causes of low job commitment may enhance the level of training outcomes, especially satisfaction with job training.

In addition, according to Qureshi et al. (2017) unjust behaviours inside the organisation, such as a lack of fairness in procedures, reduces job commitment. This finding is supported by the current study, as participants complained of unjust behaviour such as unfair nominations for training among employees. Participants also expressed how these behaviours were disappointing and reduced the desire for training. Furthermore, a lack of flexibility and sticking with bureaucratic processes were reported as being issues that reduce job commitment (Hofstede, 1984). Participants’ feelings about the negative influence of low commitment due to unjust behaviour at work also support the evidence for the influence of job commitment on training satisfaction. Thus, the nature of the public sector in Saudi Arabia seems to have an influence on trainees’ organisational attitudes because of the negative practices that decrease job commitment and the desire for job training.

**Mobility.**

As mentioned in Chapter Two, the attitude to social status in Saudi society influences job preference and raises the issue of mobility. One of the concerning issues for trainees in this case was that this course required them to travel from various destinations around the country to attend the training in Makkah. It was a particular issue for many who choose to work in the public sector because it is conveniently close to their extended family and hometown (Fawzi & Almarshed, 2013). Therefore, the inconvenience of travelling to the training may have affected trainees’ attitudes toward job training, and some may have viewed it negatively because it disconnected them from their social circle. Also some trainees may have been prevented from undertaking duties such as looking after parents. On the other
hand, some participants looked at it as a chance to change the work routine. Thus, social commitment and trainees’ attitudes toward work mobility may have resulted in some negative reactions to job training that was held in a place that was remote from the hometown. Low training motivation may be caused by an individual’s attitude toward mobility and their choice to have a job in the public sector to avoid being away from their hometown.

**The incentives of the public sector.**

In spite of the disadvantages mentioned above, the public sector in Saudi Arabia provides generous incentives for training which is considered a crucial motivation for job training (Alsarhani, 2005). The participants’ responses reflected the influence of monetary incentives on training motivation, and this finding is consistent with the literature (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Koffarnus et al., 2013). In addition, some participants regarded training rewards as one of the advantages that compensates for the training difficulties mentioned above. Thus, the employment dimension explains the relationship between work support and training satisfaction.

In conclusion, the employment dimension can explain some of the issues in this study due to the effects of bureaucracy, mobility issues, and public sector incentives. Therefore, it can be concluded that the employment dimension in the Saudi context mediates the relationship between job commitment and training satisfaction in this study due to the negative influence of bureaucratic policies in decreasing job commitment. The employment dimension also mediates the relationship between work support and training satisfaction due to the need for support in situations like this course when employees have to leave their hometown for the sake of job training. Motivation is also positively and negatively influenced by the employment dimension issues, which in turn affect training satisfaction. In other words, the incentives for training in the public sector are high, resulting in increased learning
motivation, whereas centralisation and inconvenience in regulations decreases learning motivation.

**Dimension of Education**

This section will discuss some of this study’s findings with reference to Saudis’ attitudes toward education that were addressed in Chapter Two. In order to build expectations of the training, some trainees rely on their own experience because they do not have a chance to ask their workmates. Consequently, as some trainees may be familiar with job training, their expectations may differ from those who are less familiar. Employees who are not familiar with job training may rely on the attitudes of others toward the educational system in Saudi Arabia, especially in higher education. The diagram below explains the effect of the educational dimension through the two themes, namely trainees’ perspectives of quality and perceptions about training experience.

![Diagram showing the mediating role of educational dimension in the relationship between expectations and training satisfaction.](image)

**Figure 7.4. The mediating role of educational dimension in the relationship between expectations and training satisfaction**

**Perceptions about training quality.**

In Saudi Arabia education is viewed as a means to gain employment. Additionally, the educational system is influenced by theoretical and religious specialisations as they are the easiest way to get jobs in the public sector (Al-Shammari, 2009). Some participants in the training situation look at training as a kind of educational situation, which explains the
perceptions that some participants had before the training. For example, some interviewees stated that they thought the course would be like studying at university with lectures being the only means used. In fact, one of the criticisms about teaching methods is reliance on the lecture style with little practical application (Al-Ajmi, 2003). Accordingly, as mentioned in the findings, participants had a range of expectations due to the inconvenience caused by the course and how they dealt with the situation. Therefore, the impression during and by the end of the course changed because of the training environment. This finding highlights the significant role of training quality in changing trainees’ expectations; however their prior high expectations helped to ease training barriers and enhanced training motivation at the beginning. Some participants expressed that they started with low motivation and took time to overcome these difficulties.

Due to the nature of this course, which included trainees from different cities across the country, some participants were concerned about what the training environment would be like and how they could become involved in the new environment. Nevertheless, some explained that due to the training activities and trainers’ skills in breaking the ice at the beginning of the course, they became immersed in the new environment very quickly. However, some participants expressed difficulties. The literature emphasises the importance of the training environment and recommended that the training environment should encourage the learning process and encourage trainees to be involved in the training activities (Peters et al., 2012). Although the literature emphasises the influence of expectations on training motivation and training outcomes (Chiang & Jang, 2008; S. Lee, 2007), the findings in this study indicated that even for employees who attend the training with low expectations, there is a chance to change their attitudes and optimise training outcomes with competent trainers, appropriate content, and a conducive training environment. Therefore, even though trainees’ expectations are significant, the quality of the training in terms of trainers, content,
and training environment plays an important role in training success and trainees’ satisfaction.

Thus, an individual’s educational experience can determine a person’s perceptions about the course and the quality of training. It can also be stated that educational attitudes mediate the relationship between trainees’ expectations and training satisfaction.

**Perceptions about the quality of the trainer and the content.**

The trainees’ perceptions about the quality of the trainer may reflect their educational experience. The participants mentioned some interesting features that they wanted to see in the trainer. For example, the trainer should manage the training session well by addressing questions and comments and holding the trainees’ attention. The participants also felt that the trainer’s voice is important because a good trainer uses voice modulation to keep trainees focused and interacting. Body language can also have an effect on audiences. Finally, to enhance the learning process, participants want the trainer to be friendly and interactive with the trainees. This finding is consistent with the literature that asserts that a trainer’s social competency has a role in the success of training (Harris et al., 2014). To sum up, participants’ attitudes toward education seem to mediate the relationship between trainees’ expectations and training satisfaction.

Also, as a result of individual experiences with education and training in the past, trainees had a range of expectations about the content of the course. Some trainees admitted their concerns about whether the training content was relevant to their work, because some felt that training at the university, which is outside of the work environment, would only be generic and not directly related to the nature of their work. However, most of them changed their views on this after they started the training, as they realised the appropriateness and relevance of the content to their work. This result is consistent with the literature, which
suggests that training content must be relevant to trainees’ work to increase their learning experience (Schmidt, 2007). Thus, this aspect of relevance of content attests to the influence of individual experience on mediating the relationship between expectations and training satisfaction.

Trainees’ expectations can also be related to their previous educational experience that was a result of the quality of school or university they attended, the methods used, and the major they undertook. The findings in this study suggest that trainees’ failure to gain the expected benefits influences the interaction and desire for learning. That is, some of the negative trainees’ behaviours may have been because these trainees were expecting something they did not get. This finding is consistent with research that has found a relationship between expectations and satisfaction with the course (Artino, 2008). In addition, the findings suggest that the trainers, content, and training environment have a significant influence on training success and training satisfaction. Trainees’ attitudes and expectations are also crucial but what trainees find in the course may change their prior attitudes and expectations.

The literature suggests that expectations consist of three elements: efforts exerted, outcomes desired, and the value of these outcomes (Chiang & Jang, 2008; S. Lee, 2007; Vroom, 1964). The qualitative findings in this study discussed how much some participants relied on asking peers and on personal experience. Thus, the different source they used to build their expectations may explain the variance in satisfaction among trainees.

The findings also mentioned the importance of individual experience in promoting high expectations. Participants mentioned how being familiar with training helped with expecting benefits from it. Conversely, employees with little experience of job training may expect less as they lack information about the benefits expected from the course. In the
literature, it is asserted that it is important to be aware of the expected outcomes and the value of these outcomes in order to increase expectations and the level of effort employees intend to exert during the course (Chiang & Jang, 2008; S. Lee, 2007; Vroom, 1964). This finding also emphasises the importance of the source of the expectations for achieving training success and trainees’ satisfaction. As a result of attitudes toward educational status, expectations were found to be related to training satisfaction.

To sum up, according to the participants, training satisfaction can be a result of meeting trainees’ expectations or a feeling of training quality; hence these expectations and perceptions about training quality influence job training satisfaction. Consequently, attitudes toward the educational system seem to have a mediating role between trainees’ expectations and training satisfaction due to the influence of an individual’s experiences in building perceptions about training quality and having different expectations of job training.

**Dimension of Economy**

In addition to what was mentioned above about the effect of the economic considerations in job commitment, this section will introduce another effect of this dimension in learning motivation. Economic considerations play a noticeable role in job training effectiveness. This section will discuss how the relationship between motivation and job training satisfaction can be influenced by the economic dimension. The diagram below illustrates the interference of the economic dimension in the relationship between learning motivation and training satisfaction through two themes: the role of incentives in learning motivation and the role of these incentives in reducing training barriers.
Incentives and motivation.

As mentioned above, there are some negative aspects of working in the public sector, such as dealing with a bureaucratic structure however, the public sector surpasses the private sector in aspects such as access to learning and training, and financial and non-financial incentives (Alsarhani, 2005). The findings in this study also suggest that motivation can be either internal or external. Interviewees mentioned internal incentives such as the necessity of learning, belief in training, belief in work improvement, and ambition. External incentives mentioned were work support, satisfaction with work, good relations with management, and financial and non-financial incentives. However, according to the participants, internal motivation has the most influence. The literature which discusses the two sources of motivation also supports this finding (Ja Colquitt et al., 2000; Facteau et al., 1995). This finding establishes the importance of internal and external motivations that influence training success and gain trainees' satisfaction.

In addition, participants highlighted how much financial incentives motivate them and how they look at these incentives as work support. Financial incentives such as monetary rewards and non-financial incentives such as emotional support, communication, and
appreciation were discussed by the interviewees. The importance of these incentives is also reported in the literature (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Koffarnus et al., 2013). With regard to monetary rewards, trainees in this course receive an encouragement payment at the end of the course. However, Koffarnus et al. (2013) suggest that to promote training involvement, payment should depend on the trainee’s performance during the course; therefore the current practices may need some review. All trainees in this course get the same amount; however, there is extra payment for those who get excellent scores in the exams at the end of the course. Therefore, from the participants’ perspectives, public sector financial incentives mediate the relationship between motivation and training satisfaction.

For some trainees, the financial reward may be the only incentive that motivates them because some choose the public sector for the chance to undertake training and gain more financial privileges. Participants also mentioned how the financial incentives diminished the difficulties associated with attending the course. However, there were also negative financial aspects of attending the course. For instance, by holding the course in one place employees had to bear the travel costs and housing expenses, which required paying out a significant amount of money because Makkah is one of the most expensive cities in the country. In addition, for some, the course may interrupt their side business which may result in a negative view about the course.

**Incentives and training barriers.**

The qualitative findings reported some downsides of this course that may cause some dissatisfaction among trainees. First, there is the perception that this is a compulsory course, which causes negative attitudes among trainees. Second, the time and the place for the course caused inconvenience to some trainees. Understanding the economic and social status for trainees may explain these two issues because of the social commitment that many have and the low budget for some employees that made attending the course such a burden.
To sum up, the economic dimension should be taken into consideration in conducting job training to ensure facilitating training and gaining trainees’ satisfaction. It also can be stated that economic dimensions mediate the relationship between learning motivation and training satisfaction because of the positive influence of incentives on motivation for training in this case.

**The relations among the constructs of the study.**

This section discusses the relationships among the constructs of this study, excluding job training satisfaction. The data suggest that the strongest relationship among the constructs of this study is the relationship between job commitment and work support, with \( r = .49 \). In other words, employees who feel they have sufficient work support are committed to their jobs. According to the cultural dimensions explained above, there is an explanation for this significant relationship. In the suggested model below, the job commitment and training satisfaction relationship is mediated by four dimensions: religious, social, employment, and economic dimension, while work support is under the influence of social, employment, and economic dimensions. Therefore, job commitment and work support share three influencing dimensions which are social, employment and economic dimensions resulting in a significant relationship between job commitment and work support.

The results of the current study indicate that there is a significant relationship between work support and self-efficacy, with \( r = .45 \). The findings may explain the relationship as they are both influenced by the social dimension. According to the findings, self-efficacy helps in interacting with others that are influenced by support from work. Although the evidence from the literature that considers work support to be a main factor in learning motivation in addition to the perception of the usefulness of the training (Ja Colquitt et al., 2000), the correlations test in this study did not prove this relation between work support and learning motivation as it is considered insignificant with \( r = .21 \). Nevertheless, findings of
this study support this relationship due to the positive effect of work support on motivation and the negative effect of bad management behaviors in decreasing training motivation. Further, incentives can be considered as a kind of work support according to the findings.

Moreover, the findings of the study suggest that job commitment and learning motivation are strongly linked due to the positive influence of commitment in enhancing learning motivation, though the correlation test did not prove this linkage as $r = .29$ which is considered to be insignificant relationship. The finding, consistent with the literature, indicated the influence of self-efficacy on motivation and expectation of usefulness (Bhatti & Sharan, 2010; Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994; S. Tannenbaum et al., 1991); the results of this study did not prove this relationship as the correlations test scored $r = .32$ between self-efficacy and motivation and $r = .21$ between self-efficacy and expectations which are considered insignificant relationships. The findings suggested that, the religion dimension influences both self-efficacy and learning motivation due to the religious motives for seeking knowledge and participating in the useful activities which may explain the participants’ perspectives for this relationship. Regarding the relationship between self-efficacy and expectations, the findings suggest that one of the features for persons with high self-efficacy is the optimism which influences attitudes and benefits expected from the course.

However, Kormos and Csizér (2014) argue that “Additional key elements of motivation are personal agency beliefs, which express one’s views as to whether one is capable of performing a given learning task” (p. 277). In addition, in his social cognitive theory, Bandura (1977) believes that self-efficacy attitudes (such as what a person thinks about his/her capabilities) have an influence on the motivation to learn much more than actual skills or knowledge. In this study, motivation for learning may be influenced more by factors other than self-efficacy such as the course’s reputation, monetary incentives, or looking for promotion especially after finding that young participants were significantly lower in their
self-efficacy. Also, as the qualitative data show, the expectations were mostly influenced by the reputation of the course and peers’ influence.

The strongest relationship with learning motivation in this study was with expectations, as it was close to being significant with \( r = .40 \), supported by the findings in this study. That is to say, trainees with high learning motivation had high expectations, which is consistent with the studies that attribute learning motivation to the benefits that the learner expects to gain from training (Jason Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; S. I. Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992).

Summary

Based on the cultural dimensions in the Saudi context, and after the quantitative results proved the relationships between attitudes and expectations investigated and job training satisfaction, the qualitative findings in this study produce some explanations for the quantitative results. The following diagram shows the connections and influences among the cultural dimensions and the constructs of the study (see figure 7.6).

First, as it appears from the model, the job commitment and training satisfaction relationship is mediated by four dimensions: religion, social, employment, and economy. The religion role can be seen in encouraging participation in the religious mission like the promotion of virtue and the prevention of vice. Additionally, employees’ feelings of gratitude toward working in a religious organisation enhance their commitment.
Figure 7.6. Connections and mediators model

The social influence on this relationship can be understood by the importance of the social status of the job, which results in feelings of gratitude about the job and commitment to the organisation, especially in the public sector. The employment dimension interference can be seen from the impact of the bureaucratic system in decreasing commitment. With regard to the economic dimension, the influence can be noticed from the effect of the incentives and the proper salary in feelings of gratitude that enhance job commitment. In addition, it is noticeable that there are three relations with job commitment as dotted arrows show, the
relation with work support, self-efficacy, and learning motivation. The model also provides the relationships among the constructs of the study. With regard to job commitment there are three relationships. Firstly there is the multidirectional relationship between job commitment and work support, and between job commitment and self-efficacy which were addressed in the discussion. Moreover, there is unidirectional relationship between job commitment and learning motivation as discussed above.

Second, from the suggested model, the work support and job training satisfaction relationship is mediated by three dimensions: social, employment, and economy. The social dimension’s interference can be noticed from the impact of social relations and having good connections at work in training success. Meanwhile, the employment dimension determines the level of support based on the managers’ behaviours besides the positive features of the public sector organisations in incentives. The economic dimension’s influence in this relation can be seen through the importance of incentives in promoting work support. Moreover, the dotted arrows show the relations with work support. There are three relationships: work support job commitment relationship, work support self-efficacy relationship, and work support learning motivation relationship. In terms of the relationships between work support and other constructs, the model shows the multidirectional relationship with job commitment and self-efficacy and unidirectional relationship with learning motivation. These relationships were discussed above in detail.

Third, the self-efficacy and job training satisfaction relationship is mediated by religion and social relations dimensions. The religion’s influence can be seen from the religious motives in seeking knowledge and increasing abilities. The social dimension also plays a role because self-efficacy is reflected through the individual interactions with others, especially in learning activities. It is worth mentioning that self-efficacy has relations with all the constructs of the study. Some relations were found by the quantitative results and some by
the qualitative findings and some by both. The model shows how self-efficacy is related to job commitment and work support reciprocally. In addition, self-efficacy influences learning motivation and expectations.

Fourth, the learning motivation and job training satisfaction relationship is mediated by three dimensions: religion, social, and economic dimensions. The religion effect is understood from the religious motives that encourage development in such a religious job. The influence of the social dimension can also be understood from the positive impact of a supportive workplace in increasing motivation. The economic dimension’s effect also can be noticed from the role of monetary incentives in increasing the motivation and the effect of some training challenges such as the distance from home in decreasing motivation for some trainees. Similarly with self-efficacy, learning motivation has relations with all other constructs with differences in the source of data that support these relations. Learning motivation, as the model illustrates, is influenced by job commitment, work, support, self-efficacy, and expectations. The only influence for learning motivation is on expectations.

Last but not least, the relationship between expectations and job training satisfaction is mediated by two dimensions: social and educational dimensions. As mentioned earlier there was a difference among employees in building their expectations as some relied on social connections whereas others are influenced by individual experience in education, especially higher education. Expectations has relations with expectations self-efficacy relationship and expectations learning motivation. As the model suggests expectations is influenced by both self-efficacy and learning motivation. Expectations affect learning motivation according to the findings as expecting benefits from training enhances trainees’ motivation.
To sum up, from the five mediators found in this study it appears that the social dimension can be described as the significant driver because of the influence of social relations on all of the constructs of the study (commitment, work support, self-efficacy, learning motivation, and expectations). Concerning the constructs of the study, it can be concluded that learning motivation is the most significant factor that influences training satisfaction. This is because other constructs influence training satisfaction through enhancing learning motivation, which gives learning motivation a significant role in training success and training satisfaction.
Chapter Eight: The Conclusion Chapter

In this study I explored the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction in a particular case in Saudi Arabia. As we approach the end of the thesis, this chapter highlights some key points. There is a brief summary of the findings of this study. Starting with the research questions and how this study answers them. Discussion of any future research questions will be provided. Limitations and implications are also addressed.

The current study was designed to investigate the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction in a specific case of public sector job training in Saudi Arabia. Consequently, data was collected and analysed included both quantitative and qualitative strategies to measure each of the selected attitudes, expectations and job training satisfaction. The results in this study suggested that job training satisfaction was influenced by trainees’ attitudes and expectations. In addition, the differences between demographical variables were investigated and it was found that age played a role in self-efficacy, as young employees were noticeably less in their self-efficacy than older employees. In addition, employees’ experience played a role in learning motivation as trainees with five to ten years’ experience were considerably higher in their learning motivation.

Meanwhile, the qualitative findings were discussed through the five cultural dimensions which the literature suggested had influence in Saudi society. Explanations for the relations between trainees’ attitudes, expectations and job training satisfaction were presented. The qualitative findings suggested that cultural dimensions moderated the relationship between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and job training satisfaction. First, the relationship between job commitment and training satisfaction was moderated by the religious, social, employment, educational, and economic dimensions. Second, the
relationship between work support and training satisfaction was moderated by social, employment, and economic dimensions. Third, the relationship between self-efficacy and training satisfaction was also moderated by the religious and social dimensions. Fourth, the relationship between learning motivation and training satisfaction was moderated by religious, social, and economic dimensions; and the relationship between expectations and training satisfaction was moderated by social and educational dimensions. The study introduced a theoretical model to explain the role of cultural dimensions in Saudi society in mediating the relationship between both of trainees’ expectations and job training satisfaction (see Figure 7.6).

Answering the Research Questions

In this study, I sought to answer the main question and sub-questions concerning the influence of trainees’ organisational and personal attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction. The research questions that drove this study are:

1- What is the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction?
2- What mediates the relationship between trainees’ attitudes and expectations and job training satisfaction?
3- How these mediators drive trainees’ attitudes and expectations in their job training?

This study found that trainees’ attitudes and expectations have relationships with job training satisfaction. In addition, cultural factors such as religion, social relations, employment, education, and economy were mediating these relationships. The role of each of the cultural dimensions in trainees’ attitudes and expectations was noticeable and the theoretical model introduced by this study can explain these effects and relationships.
Discussion for the Study’s Limitations

As case study research, this study is limited from several perspectives; hence caution should be exercised in generalising the findings of this study. Regarding the type of training, this study was conducted on a case of job training which may not be applicable for some different types of training such as pre-employment training. In addition, this course was conducted by an outside provider and might have some differences from other types of job training such as on-the-job training which is provided by the division in charge of human resource activities from inside the organisation.

Considering the context of the current study, there may be different results in a different context. Even in the Saudi context some circumstances may vary the findings. For example, the differences between private and public sector organisations may be taken into account in generalising the results. Differences between public organisations may also vary the results. In other words, trainees in this study were from a religious-based organisation, therefore, findings may have limited application to other public sector organisations with no religious motivation. In addition, this study was aimed to investigate specific attitudes which were two organisational attitudes (job commitment and work support) and two personal attitudes (self-efficacy and learning motivation) which make the findings limited in dealing with other aspects of trainees’ attitudes.

Nevertheless, some findings can be useful to some individuals, organisations, and societies who share some aspects with this case. Some Islamic countries, such as Afghanistan, Iran, Sudan and some states in Malaysia, have similar organisations that perform the principle of promotion of virtue and prevention of vice with some differences. Some findings may be applied to these countries while paying attention to cultural differences and other circumstances such as the status of employment, education, and economy.
Training in religious organisations though, is not limited to the General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice, as there are other religious organisations in Saudi Arabia and other Islamic countries. In Saudi Arabia as an example, there are public religious organisations such as the Islamic Affairs Ministry, the Hajj Ministry, and the General Presidency of the two Holy Mosques Affairs. The Islamic Affairs Ministry which is responsible for various issues related to organising work in Islamic facilities such as Mosques and Islamic centres. Another example of a religious public organisation is the Ministry of Hajj, which is responsible for facilitating and organising the Hajj and the Umrah and providing the best services for pilgrimages.

The General Presidency of the two Holy Mosques affairs is another religious public organisation which is concerned with the care and operation of the two Holy Mosques. These three examples of public religious organisations in Saudi Arabia have tens of thousands of employees and they must provide job training, hence some findings from this study may be applied to job training in these organisations, with practising caution and paying attention to possible differences. In addition to the public religious organisations, there are some religious charitable organisations and associations that provide human aids, education, and health services. These associations have employees who need to continuous training, hence this study may provide useful insights into the quality of job training.

**Future Research**

Whilst this study is a case study concerning job training in a specific religious public sector organisation in Saudi Arabia, some questions may arise regarding various issues. These questions may lead the way for some future research. First, do other public sector organisations in Saudi share the same issues? It is possible there are be some considerations this study did not highlight. Second, do the cultural dimensions mentioned in this study operate similarly within private sector organisations in Saudi Arabia? Third, as the local
culture in any country is exposed to change, what is the influence of the current cultural changes that are rapidly growing in Saudi Arabia and other countries in the region on the training field? The neighbouring Arab countries may share some cultural effects, though comparative studies could be beneficial in the case of job training.

The five cultural dimensions that showed a mediating role could be investigated further. The cultural aspects which influence on job training in the public sector still needs to be clarified to help in developing productivity in the public sector and optimise job training as well. The social change influence regarding the five dimensions such as attitudes toward public employment should be addressed to better use these changes in upgrading work practices in terms of legislations and policies.

**The Implications**

The study highlighted issues that were neglected in previous research such as the role of religion, social relations, employment issues, educational status, and economic issues. These cultural dimensions should be taken into account in designing job training, especially in religious public organisations. Understanding the effects of culture in job training success would help in enhancing training quality by emphasising what motivates employees to undertake training and avoiding or minimising what decreases training effectiveness.

The findings of this study have implications for possible beneficial social change on individual, organisational, and also on the societal levels. At the level of individuals, the results of this study may inform employees especially from the public sector of some interesting knowledge. First, is the influence of the cultural dimensions mentioned in the study on work-related issues such as development activities and job training. This may help employees to become aware of such influences to take advantage such as building strong and inspiring relations with workmates and also to avoid obstacles such as bringing personal
interests such as favouritism into the workplace. Second, the influence of religion on people’s lives such as religious values that emphasise seeking knowledge, work productivity, and being useful to others also impact job training. These values were found in this study as role players in enhancing interaction and training motivation. Third, this study can enhance understanding about the influence of the social relations and affiliations in personal attitudes toward work life and personal development. Fourth, individuals may realise the influence of the educational experience in making perceptions about job training.

At the level of organisations, there are implications for positive social change to improve development practices. It is worth mentioning that there are implications for the investigated organisation (The Committee of Promotion of Virtue and Prevention of Vice) and these implications might be applicable for other public sector organisations due to the general work regulations that they all share. Firstly, these organisations will be able to take into account the hidden effects of the cultural dimensions on job training outcomes. Secondly, organisations will be aware of the importance of friendly and strong social bonds inside workplace and their crucial role in learning motivation. Thirdly, trying to diminish the centralisation inside the organisations and allowing and encouraging employees to participate in planning and making decisions to stimulate their commitment that in turn encourages work development activities. Fourth, keeping in mind social considerations such as commitment to the extended family; this avoids training obstacles that decrease training satisfaction and effectiveness.

Other types of training organisations may also benefit from this study by taking notice of some key points. First, trainers should be aware of the cultural effects addressed in this study. Cultural background differences should be taken into consideration in courses that include diverse people such as the case of this study; this study found that being in a new environment with trainees from different cultural background which made social engagement
problematic. Friendly reception and ice-breaking activities are recommended to minimise the discomfort of the beginning of the course. Second, trainees’ attitudes should be considered in designing the course to minimise learning barriers such as low motivation and low commitment. Third, attention should be raised toward expectations by declaring important details such as the course’s objectives and training contents. Fourth, varying training methods and learning activities will enhance training outcomes and increase training motivation.

Findings of this study may also have implications at the level of society. Regarding the cultural dimensions highlighted in this study, this study may give a broad understanding of the impact of culture and traditions on work environment and employees’ productivities. Considering that religion is the main influence on Saudis’ lives and choices, implementing the religious values that empower employees’ productivity and learning encouragement is a tremendous opportunity to stimulate employees’ development. Social relations play a crucial role in employees’ attitudes; therefore more understanding of social interferences could help to increase training outcomes and employees’ productivity.

Similarly, employment, education, and economy dimensions have a remarkable role in work related issues, thus more understanding of these dimensions may help decision makers in developing public sector organisations and evolving their services. Due to the connection between education and training, this study may contribute implications to developing the educational systems in higher education in particular. For example, training methods meant a lot to participants as they disliked lecture style training and preferred practical implementation. Therefore, undergraduate students may share the same attitudes toward teaching style, which support the importance of varying teaching methods and giving more practical implementations and hands-on activities.

It is worth noticing that approaching the problem of this study using mixed-methods research that employed both of quantitative data and qualitative data is beneficial. First, the
quantitative data from the survey provided the result of each of the study’s constructs, the relations among these constructs, and differences among the demographic groups. Consequently, the qualitative data provided a broad vision that led to a recognition of cultural dimensions. However, matching both phases of the research was not that easy as it required vast amount of time to find connections and build new knowledge. To sum up, implementing a mixed-methods approach was beneficial in understanding the case as the trainees’ perspectives in the interview added to the data collected by the survey.

The course’s strengths and weaknesses from participants’ perspectives.

Interviewees indicated some pros and cons for the course which may be helpful in drawing some recommendations. This feedback is very valuable to evaluate the course. Starting with the course strengths:

1- Trainers were competent, well familiarised with the work’s rules, and with high ability to impress and change negative attitudes related to work.

2- The course is very important in implanting and enhancing work values.

3- The information enlightened trainees and helped in correcting attitudes.

4- Training environment was very encouraging and inspiring.

5- The training venue was well facilitated.

6- Some trainers are well known in training field which gave trainees high motivation.

7- The course has monetary incentives.

8- The content is very appropriate especially for new employees to explain the nature of work requirements.

9- The diversity in the contents that covered many areas in either work or personal life.
The course weaknesses are summarised below:

1- Being held in one place which means that trainees have to travel from their own regions.

2- The difficulties of finding a proper house for those who came from other cities.

3- The course is compulsory.

4- There were no practical applications.

5- Some content was not quite related to the work in this organisation.

6- The delay in announcing the course.

Recommendations.

Lessons that can be derived from this study are divided into two sections. This study provided some practical suggestions to public organisations in regard to employees’ development activities, training providers, and individuals. Next I start with the recommendations for the organisations.

Recommendations for the public organisations.

Due to the valuable benefits of job commitment, organisations should take care of what ensures employees’ commitment such as involving them in planning for the organisation, listening to their concerns, giving the required support, and providing solutions to their issues. Organisations should avoid the management’s unjust behaviours, which significantly reduce employees’ commitment and loyalty. Involving employees’ in job practices should be given a high priority inside the organisation because of its significant role in job commitment. Justice should be practised in giving promotions and nomination to training as lacking work justice causes negative attitudes toward job commitment and training.
effectiveness as well. Bureaucratic practices should be avoided as much as possible due to its negative impact in employees’ commitment and learning motivation.

Additionally organisations could enhance employees’ commitment by employing the religious motivation that stimulates employees’ commitment to their religious organisation. Asserting that job training is a kind of knowledge-seeking that is favoured in Islam, could be a beneficial way to increase learning motivation and in turn increase job commitment. Some Islamic principles such as the need for unity, Islamic brotherhood, and cooperation could be also employed to enhance job commitment and reduce negative practices such as discrimination.

Regarding work support there are some recommendations that organisations may benefit from. Organisations should provide all the support employees need, for instance showing gratitude toward their efforts and accepting all of them in order to gain their commitment and increasing their motivation to learn and develop. Any kind of discrimination or racism must not be tolerated as it decreases the desire to work and engage in content and activities. Management should promote training in a desirable way to stimulate employees’ motivation and encourage them to participate. Job training should be convenient and every effort in facilitating training would make trainees more comfortable and reflect their satisfaction.

In addition, offering proper material incentives could be received as a work support which increases the desire to learn and the attitude of training satisfaction. Training rewards should be paid based on trainee’s performance during training to ensure trainees’ interaction and attention. Organisations should pay more attention on novice employees by giving them tailored training that focuses on raising their confidence about themselves and increasing their self-efficacy. Training should be held in trainees’ region because making employees
travel a long distance to attend training decreases their motivation and influences their reaction to the program.

Due to the influence of social connections inside the organisation, these effects could be directed to benefit the organisation’s development practices. For instance, organisations will benefit from building healthy and strong bonds among employees so management should pay attention to this aspect. Management also needs to diminish affiliations that work against the organisation’s interest by encouraging employees’ cooperation and prioritising work’s interests.

There are some recommendations regarding issues related to self-efficacy and learning motivation. As training was more beneficial when the trainee is highly motivated, employees should have tailored training based on their needs and preferences. Organisations should convince employees of the effectiveness of training during their work experience. Older employees are recommended to have a special care in order to increase their motivation to learn and develop. Exploiting the positive view about the public sector may help in enhancing learning motivation. Regarding trainees’ expectations, organisations should provide thorough information about the course and the benefits expected well before the beginning of the course. Also employees should have enough information about trainers before training start.

**Recommendations for the training providers.**

This study also has recommendations for training institutions or any training provider as following:

Trainers should be aware of each individual’s differences in terms of self-efficacy to treat all trainees based on their needs and facilitate the learning process. Encouraging trainees’ involvement in training activities has a crucial role in increasing self-efficacy and in turn
develops a great feeling of inclusion in such a new environment. Self-efficacy issues such as how to optimise trainees’ abilities during work with practical applications should be covered sufficiently in job training. Trainers should apply more practical applications to increase the tangible usefulness of the course.

The evidence from this study shows high motivation of people from five to ten years old experience, therefore training courses should be targeted more to that group. Gathering employees with different levels of experience may have some benefits, however some older employees may not prefer that. As a result, this study suggests to design specify courses for older employees to meet their needs and interests. To stimulate internal motivation, awareness should be raised about the importance and significance of training, giving older employees more attention to increase their motivation.

Announcing the expected program’s advantages in terms of personal development and job benefits may influence trainees’ motivation. Trainers’ reputations are crucial therefore trainees should have know about them before starting training. Convincing trainees of the course’s outcomes and its worthiness should be highlighted before, during, and after the course. With regard to the role of religious motivation, training providers and trainers should emphasise the religious role to stimulate learning in the training course. The training course needs to be rich in new knowledge and skills to ensure trainees’ trust in terms of gaining new knowledge. Training content should be bonded to the Islamic concepts that promote the obligations of building and spreading the right manners.

Considering the significant role of social relations in enhancing the training experience, encouraging social bonds among trainees’ should be fostered through training activities. Any type of social relations that are built on family, tribe, and regional considerations, should be dissolved in the training environment by building trainees’ relations
regardless of these considerations. Job training also should be performed with variety of training style to avoid trainees’ boredom. The convenience of training is required so time, location and length of the course should be well arranged.

**Recommendations for individuals.**

Individuals may benefit from this study as there are some recommendations employees should bear in mind to get the most out of their job training. The religious dimension should be utilised as it may benefit in terms of enhancing self-efficacy, interaction with others, and learning motivation. Individuals should remind themselves of the shared values between them and the organisation to increase motivation to learn and to benefit more from the training course.

With regard to social connections, employees should not let relations outside work intervene or control his/her work. In case of remote work training, it is recommended to exploit the course time in seeking new knowledge and networking with others. Individuals are also recommended to dispose of their negative impressions about educational experience, as job training may differ from the educational system. Non-official works have to be in line with the official job and its development activities because some may sacrifice training opportunities in favour of their side works.

**Summary**

As we approach to the end of this study, this chapter includes ideas for future research, as well as implications and recommendations to fulfil the purpose of this study, which is exploring the influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on job training satisfaction in a particular public sector organisation. The relationships were proved and the cultural dimensions were found to have a mediating role in these relationships. Organisations,
training providers, and employees may benefit from this study though some aspects still need to have more investigation in future research.
References


Almuraykhy, S. (2005, 22th November). King Abdullah has doubled reforms in the kingdom over the last 10 years since he was crown prince. *Alriyadh*. Retrieved from http://www.alriyadh.com/109626


Khal, A. (2013, 25th August). Who hinders the reform of the Commission? *Okaz*. Retrieved from http://www.okaz.com.sa/article/599513/%D9%85%D9%86-%D9%8A%D8%B9%D8%B7%D9%84-%D8%B5%D9%84%D8%A7%D8%AD-%D8%A7%D9%84%D9%87%D9%8A%D8%A6%D8%A9-


Appendices

Appendix 1: the survey
Demographic information

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<td>d)</td>
<td>36 – 40</td>
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<td>f)</td>
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<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>31 – 35</td>
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Please state your educational qualification

| a) | secondary           | b) | diploma |
| c) | bachelor            | d) | master   |
| e) | doctorate           |   |   |

Please state your work experience

| a) | Less than 5 years   | b) | 5 – 10 years |
| c) | 11 – 15 years       | d) | 16+ years    |
|   |                     |   |   |

Please state your work position

| a) | general manager     | b) | manager |
| c) | assistant manager   | d) | employee |
|   |                     |   |   |

The questionnaire

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<th>Neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
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<td>I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful</td>
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<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization</td>
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<td>I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar</td>
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<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Often. I find it easy to agree with this organisation’s policies on important matters relating to its employees</td>
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<td>I really care about the fate of this organisation</td>
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<td>Deciding to work for this organisation was the right decision on my part</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>I have been given training to help develop my career</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>My boss has made sure I get the training I need for my career</td>
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<td>I have been taught things I need to know to get on in this organisation</td>
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<td>I have been given work which has developed my skills for the future</td>
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<td>My boss has given me clear feedback on my performance</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>I have been given impartial career advice when I needed it</td>
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<td>I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough</td>
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<td>If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations</td>
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<td>I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort</td>
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<td>I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities</td>
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<td>When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions</td>
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<td>If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>I can usually handle whatever comes my way</td>
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<td>I was trying to learn as much as I can from the program</td>
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<tr>
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<td>I was very interested in the content of this course</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>I like the subject matter of this course</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>I was expecting that the trainer will be excellent in giving this program</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>I was expecting that the content will be very useful and related to my job</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>I was expecting that the training environment in this program will be comfortable</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>This program has met my expectations</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>The objectives clearly show what they aim to achieve</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>The information I received about the training is suitable</td>
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<td>33</td>
<td>The objectives of the training were in line with my needs and interests</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>The content of the training can be applied in practice</td>
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<td>35</td>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with the content addressed in the training</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>Any doubts were resolved effectively</td>
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<td>I like the training method</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>The trainer knows the subject</td>
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<td>The trainer does not know how to explain the content to the participants</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with the trainer’s work</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>The classroom is well lit</td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>The resources used (slide projector, videos, computers, etc.) are suitable</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>The cleanliness, hygiene, and healthiness of the training centre are acceptable</td>
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<td>The furniture can be considered suitable and comfortable enough</td>
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<td>45</td>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with the physical conditions of the training area</td>
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<td>46</td>
<td>The training received is useful for my specific job</td>
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<td>47</td>
<td>The training received is relevant for my workplace</td>
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<td>48</td>
<td>The training received is useful for my personal development</td>
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<td>49</td>
<td>In general, the training left a very good impression on me and I was satisfied</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>This training was well organized</td>
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Appendix 2: The questions for the study’s interview

First of all, let’s talk about your attitudes about your work in terms of job commitment and job support
1. How does job commitment affect employee’s motivation to training?
2. How does job commitment affect trainee’s performance during training?
3. How does job commitment affect trainee’s satisfaction with the course?
4. How does job support affect employee’s motivation to training?
5. How does job support affect trainee’s performance during training?
6. How does job support affect trainee’s satisfaction with the course?

Now let’s move into self-characteristics:

7. What makes employees motivated to training?
8. How does motivation to training affect trainee’s performance during training?
9. How does motivation to training affect trainee’s satisfaction with the course?
10. How does self-efficacy affect employee’s motivation to training?
11. How does self-efficacy affect trainee’s performance during training?
12. How does self-efficacy affect trainee’s satisfaction with the course?

Finally, let’s talk about expectations:

13. What does employee expect of the trainer?
14. What does employee expect of the content?
15. What does employee expect of the training environment?
16. How do trainee’s expectations affect trainee’s performance during training?
17. How do trainee’s expectations affect satisfaction with the course?
18. Why do people differ in their expectations of training context?
19. How does job commitment affect employee’s expectations of training?
20. How does job support affect employee’s expectations of training?
21. How does motivation to training affect employee’s expectations of training?

22. How does self-efficacy affect employee’s expectations of training?
Appendix 3: The consent form

Consent Form

Research Title: The influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on Trainees’ Satisfaction with Training Courses Offered by Training Department in Umm Al-Qura University

NOTE: This consent form will remain with the Monash University researcher for their records

I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project specified above. I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement and I hereby consent to participate in this project.

☐ I agree to be interviewed by the researcher in all the phases of the research
☐ I agree to allow the interview to be audio-taped.
☐ I would like to be sent a transcript of the interview for my approval before it is included in the write up of the research.

☐ Yes ☐ No

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw from the project prior to approving the interview transcript, without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

I understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the interview can be used in reports, conferences, publications and for other educational purposes. However, publications will not, under any circumstances, contain names or identifying characteristics.

I understand that any information I provide is confidential, and that no information that could lead to the identification of any individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party.

I can change my mind about use of the data for the purposes listed above. However, due to the nature and timing of a PhD case study, I cannot withdraw data retrospectively after 12 months from the commencement of the research.

I understand that data from the interview, including the audio-tape and transcript will be kept in secure storage and accessible to the research team. I also understand that the data will be destroyed after a ten-year period from the conclusion to the research.
Participant’s Name:

Signature:

Preferred contact mean:

Date:
Appendix 4: Arabic version of the survey:

معلومات عن المتدرب:

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<td>(ج) 31-35 سنة</td>
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<td>(ه) 41-45 سنة</td>
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فضلاً اختر مدى خبرتك الوظيفية

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<td>(ب) 5-10 سنوات</td>
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<td>(ج) أكثر من 16 سنة</td>
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<td>(د) أكثر من 16 سنة</td>
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<th>العنصر</th>
<th>م</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أنا حريص على بذل جهد فوق المعتاد لإنجاح هذه المنشأة</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أشعر بشكل كبير بالإخلاص لهذه المنشأة</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أشعر بتوافق كبير جداً بين ما أحمله من قيم وقيم هذه المنشأة</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أشعر بالفخر عندما أخبر الآخرين بأنني أنتهي لهذه المنشأة</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>غالباً ما أجد نفسي متفقا مع سياسة المنظمة في القضايا المهمة المتعلقة بالموظفين</td>
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<td>إذا أتهم جدأ بمصير هذه المنشأة أشعر بشكل كبير بانعدامه</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أختار قاري بالعمل في هذه المنشأة كان قراراً خاطئاً مني</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>تم ارسالي للتدريب لتطوير نفسي وأدائي في العمل</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>مديرى متأكد أنى حصلت على التدريب المطلوب في مجال عملي</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>تم تدريبي على مهارات ومعارف احتاجها لأنجح في هذه المنشأة</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>تم تكليفي بالعمل الذي سيطور مهاراتي في المستقبل</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مديرى غالباً ما يزودني بملاحظات تعود بالنفع على أدائي في العمل</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>في مجال عملي غالباً ما أعطي النصائح الموضوعية كما احتاج لها</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أستطيع دائماً أن أحل المشاكل الصعبة إذا حاولت بما فيه الكفاية</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إذا عارضني شيء ما؛ أجد دائماً طريقة ما لأحصل على ما أريد</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إنه سهل بالنسبة لي أن أحافظ على اهدافي وحقق ما كنت له</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أنا واثق أنني استطيع أن أعمل مع الأحداث الغير متوقعة بشكل فعال</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>بسب سعة الحيلة لدي؛ أستطيع التعامل مع الحالات غير المتوقعة</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أستطيع حل أغلب المشاكل إذا بذلت الجهد المطلوب استناعاً على التحليل</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>عندما أصابني مشكلة غالباً أجد عدة حلول</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>إذا كنت في مشكلة ما غالباً أستطيع أن أفكر في حل</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
 غالباً أستطيع التعامل مع ما يواجهني في طريقي أياً كان

23 24 25 26

قد بدأت جدياً في المستطاع للتعلم والاستفادة من هذا البرنامج

كنت مهماً جداً بمحتوى البرنامج التدريبي

قبل المشاركة في الدورة كنت محباً لفكرة ومحتوى البرنامج

العنصر

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>العناصر التي تلقيناها مناسبة</th>
<th>موافق</th>
<th>موافق بشدة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>العناصر التدريبية كانت منسجمة مع احتياجاتي واهتماماتي</td>
<td>موافق</td>
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<tr>
<td>كل التساؤلات التي طرح أثناء البرنامج تتائجها بفعالية</td>
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<tr>
<td>الدرب كان عارفاً وملمًا بموضوع البرنامج</td>
<td>موافق</td>
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<tr>
<td>الدرب لا يعرف كيف يشرح المحتوى للمتدربين</td>
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<tr>
<td>على وجه العلوم أنا راضي عن أداء الدرب</td>
<td>موافق</td>
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<td>القاعة كانت مهيئة بشكل مناسب</td>
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<tr>
<td>المصادر المستخدمة (عرض الشرائح والفيديو والكمبيوتر) كانت مناسبة</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>النظافة والتهوية صحية مفر التدريب كانت مقبولة</td>
<td>موافق</td>
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<tr>
<td>الآلات يعتبر مناسبة بما فيه الكفاية</td>
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<tr>
<td>على وجه العلوم أنا راضي عن الأدوات والتجهيزات المعدة للتدريب</td>
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<tr>
<td>البرنامج كان مفيداً لجهة عمي</td>
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<td>البرامج متيب بمجال عمي</td>
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<td>البرنامج مدفوع من حيث تنظيمي الذاتية</td>
<td>موافق</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>على وجه العلوم البرامج ترك في انطباعاً جيداً جداً وأنا راض</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>البرنامج كان منظماً بشكل جيد</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

وفي الختام، تقبل شكري وتقديري تجاه تعاونك في الإجابة على هذه الاستبانة،

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.

أخوك: مثيب بن محمد البقمي
Appendix 5: Arabic version of the consent form

نموذج الموافقة على المشاركة في الدراسة

عنوان البحث: تأثير توجهات المتدربين وتوقعاتهم في رضاهم عن التدريب، الدورات المقدمة بقسم الدورات التدريبية بالمعهد العالي للأمر بالمعروف والنهي عن المنكر بجامعة أم القرى نموذجاً

ملجزة: هذه الموافقة سيتم الاحتفاظ بها مع الباحث من جامعة موناش لأغراض البحث فقط.

لقد طلب مني أن أكون جزءاً في الدراسة المقام من جامعة موناش المحدد أعلاه.

لقد قرأت وفهمت الإفادة التوضيحية لذلك أنا أوافق أن أشارك في هذا المشروع البحثي.

 أنا أفهم أن المشاركة في الاستبيان، مقابلة، التسجيل الصوتي، نسخة المقابلة بعد تفريغها، ونقل الاستفادة منها في كتابة البحث، ساقوم بالموافقة.

 أنا أفهم أن مشاركتي تطوعية، ومن ثم فإن مشاركتي في أي جزء من مشروع البحث، وبما يكانت الانسحاب قبل اعتذاري للنسبة المكونة من المشاركات، بدون أن يترتب على ذلك أدنى مسؤولية.

 أنا أفهم أن المعلومات المستخرجة من المقابلة يمكن أن تستخدم في التقارير، المؤتمرات، النشر العلمي، وغير ذلك من الأغراض التربوية، وبالرغم من ذلك ما سيئ من نشر محتوى المقابلة في تدريس البحث العلمي لا يمكنني القبول.

 أنا أفهم أن المعلومات التي ساقوم بتزويدها سرية جداً وأنها لن تقدم أبداً بالدلالة على أي شخص بعينه أي كان.

 أنا أفهم أن المعلومات المسجلة في الصندوق والأرشيف، ساقوم بالاحتفاظ بها في مكان آمن مع صلاحية الوصول فقط للفريق المشاركون في الدراسة.

 أنا أفهم أن المعلومات المستخرجة من المقابلة المذكورة أعلاه، المعلومات التي تخصصي بعد مضي النصف عشر شهراً.

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عزيزي المشارك في حال حدوث طارئ أو أي خطر فلا تتردد بالاتصال بالشرطة على الرقم 999.

اسم المتدرب الراغب في الاشتراك:

التوقيع:

وسيلة التواصل المفضلة:

التاريخ:
Appendix 6: Ethical approval
Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

This is to certify that the project below was considered by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Committee was satisfied that the proposal meets the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and has granted approval.

**Project Number:** CF16/946 - 2016000500

**Project Title:** The influence of trainees’ attitudes and expectations on trainees’ satisfaction with training courses offered by training department in Umm Al-Qura University

**Chief Investigator:** Prof Jeffrey Brooks

**Approved:** From: 8 June 2016 To: 8 June 2021

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**Terms of approval - Failure to comply with the terms below is in breach of your approval and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.**

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must include your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Require the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.
Professor Nip Thomson  
Chair, MUHREC

cc: Dr Damon Anderson, Mr Motheeb Albogami
Appendix 7: The permission of the training department
To whom it may concern

According to the request from the researcher: Motheeb Albogami, I agree to receive complaint and inquiries from participants in his project that will be conducted in the training department in Umm Al-Qura University. Therefore, I am happy to put my name and contact details in the required document.

Phone: [redacted]
e-mail: [redacted]

The head of the department:

[redacted]

Dr. Aysh Albishri