

The Effectiveness of Training in the Tourism Context: Examining the Training Impact on Individual and Organizational Performance

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Abstract

Education and training are widely thought to be the most important investments in human capital. Measuring the impact of training to determine results are beneficial to organizations and create value for stakeholders. This study was carried out to evaluate the effectiveness of training by measuring its impact on organizational performance and individual performance. A quantitative method was approached and a survey was conducted for gathering employees' perceptions about training effectiveness with reference to the Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Fayoum University as a case study. A two-step modeling technique was adopted in the data analysis. A pilot test was conducted to check the instrument validity and reliability. The structural model and study's hypotheses were tested by using SPSS 19 and AMOS 22, and running descriptive analysis, regression analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM). The study made a contribution to the understanding of training effectiveness in the context of tourism industry. The empirical results supported hypotheses and ensured that training has positive impact on individual performance and organizational performance. Also, the results revealed that individual performance has a mediating effect on the relationship between training and organizational performance and has positive impact on organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Tourism leaders should consider these results especially in assessing training needs, developing training plans and designing training course. Future studies can evaluate the effectiveness of training with larger sample and investigate factors that influence the process of training transfer.

Keywords: Training, Performance, Tourism, SEM, Egypt.

Introduction

Nowadays, the literature on business management highlights the role of intangible assets as the basis for creating competitive advantages, due to the fact that these resources can easily differentiate an organization in a way that is not easily available on the market. Within intangible assets, human resources, as included in the concept of human capital, are one of the elements that best explain the improvement in performance.¹ Education and training are widely thought to be the most important investments in human capital.² There are a number of reasons why tourism organizations should train; at the macro-economic level, the accumulation of human capital drives economic growth³, while at the micro level the human capital is considered to contribute to sustained competitive advantage.⁴ The need for a more educated society and better-trained workforce is more critical today than in the past due to significant and emerging trends. These trends are the changing demographics of our society, the speed of technological change and the impact of globalization on our society.⁵ Furthermore, the fact that work-related knowledge is outdated quickly.⁶ These trends make not only the need for training and development more important but also the evaluation of our training and development methods. This is to ensure that training programs and methods are sufficient enough to meet the demands of a changing environment. Thus, it is imperative for tourism organizations to continuously advance employees' knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes.

In literature, the word training is often used interchangeably with words like learning and development. It is defined as "a systematic approach to learning and development to improve individual, team, and organizational effectiveness" (p. 452).⁷ Also, training refers to end-oriented, organized, logical, on-going planned attempts to bring about the desired change in the knowledge, skills, capability and attitude of employees. The process of training consists of four stages include defining of training needs as well as the evaluation of training outcome. Given the sheer size of training investment, significant attention should be directed towards training transfer evaluation, which is particularly defined as the "degree to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in a training context to the job" (p. 63).⁸ Training impact is about "showing tangible results that more than pay for the cost of the training" (p.69).⁹ Brinkerhoff and Apking defined training impact as "the transfer of knowledge and skills to on-the-job performance" (p.1).¹⁰ Here by, determining the impact or results on an individual and/or a organization due to training is one of the greatest challenges to workplace learning professionals⁹. Measuring training impact to determine results would be of benefit to the organizations and show value to the stakeholders. Training has multiple results, some are related to productivity, others to staff benefits and growth of human capital that will benefit different dimensions of an organization in different ways. One benefit of investing in human capital that is demonstrated via training impact is that the employees participating become motivated to believe that the organization highly regards them because it sent them to training and invested in their development.¹¹

Kirkpatrick¹² created the first model of training effectiveness evaluation that illustrated the causal relationships between the variables. The model included four levels of analysis – reaction, learning, behavior, results – for determining

the effectiveness of a training program. The four levels consisted of participant's reaction to the training, the learning that takes place as a result of training, the changes in behavior that result from training, and the final results that occur due to training.¹² The model portrayed the assumptions that the four levels are arranged in ascending order, causally linked, and positively correlated.¹³ There is a tendency to assess only at the reaction level of this model¹⁴, whereas most academic researchers emphasize the evaluation of learning criteria.¹⁵ However, transfer is insufficiently considered in both practice and academic research. This is regrettable in light of a rather weak relationship between reaction criteria and transfer¹⁶, and despite Kirkpatrick's assumption that the four levels are hierarchically influential.¹⁷ A recent study by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) reported that 90% of surveyed executives gathered trainees' reactions data; however, these executives felt that this information was the least valuable to them.¹⁸ This is because reaction data only tells about the trainees' satisfaction to the training and not whether or not the training was effective.¹⁹ Conversely, in the same study only 37% of participants measured training program performance outcomes and 18% conducted some type of return-on-investment (ROI) analysis.¹⁸ The resulting problem is that those responsible for the training and development function do not understand if and how their programs might be effective in producing the productivity and performance gains that are intended – in the first place - to be realized from the capital and resource investment.¹⁹

The present study links the behavior and result levels by examining the transfer of learning to the field of work and its influence on performance. Owing to the fact that human capital can be obtained and accumulated by means of permanent training and learning, in this study we analyzed whether training is really the effective instrument that will contribute towards transfer of training to allow tourism organizations to improve their results or performance. Furthermore, neglecting training outcome evaluation in tourism organizations and the lack of research surrounding training transfer in tourism higher education inspired this study. Based on training evaluation research and the growing body of literature surrounding the development of the theory of training transfer, this study was designed to address the training transfer link through examining the impact of training on individual and organizational performance. As such, the main research question is: Does training influence individual performance of employees and the overall organizational performance? To answer this question, the following research minor questions were proposed:

1. Does training have a significant positive impact on individual performance in tourism organizations?
2. Does training have a significant positive impact on organizational performance in the tourism context?
3. Does individual performance play a mediating role in the relationship between training and organizational performance?

To carry out this study, the previous theoretical and empirical studies that analyzed the effects produced by training on performance are reviewed. This is in order to be able to design hypotheses to be verified during our empirical study. Next, we put forward our empirical study approach, the population and sample being studied, the measurement of variables, and the methodology used during the research. Finally, the results and the conclusions are then discussed.

Literature Review

The Effectiveness of Training

The effectiveness of training depends ultimately on whether the learned outcomes are used in the workplace.²⁰ There is a difference between acquiring knowledge during training and applying it on the job. Training leads to business impacts only if employees use new skills and knowledge in everyday job performance.²¹ Transfer of training is the degree to which trainees can apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes gained in training to the job.¹⁰ Transfer is said to occur when learned behavior is generalized to the job context and maintained over a period of time.^{8 10} In this regard, successful transfer does not simply mean that employees are using new skills; it means that they are using new skills in a way that is likely to make a difference.^{11 21}

Additionally, transfer occurs when the trainee exits training and applies what he/she has learned directly or indirectly to work. Direct training transfer to the workplace means that the trained employee is able to apply the knowledge and skills acquired to his work. Indirect transfer means that the trained employee may transfer to the workplace skills or attitudes that were developed in training, not as part of the training objectives but as a result of the interactions and methods used (e.g., working in a group, promoting self-confidence, self-esteem, being responsible, reliable, punctual, etc.).²² Several authors developed models for the evaluation of training, but the most used models are the four-level model of Kirkpatrick and Pineda's holistic model of evaluation.²³ Both models propose that identifying the results of training in terms of transfer is the key element of evaluation. Baldwin and Ford⁸ indicate that transfer of training is the application of knowledge, skills and attitudes learned during training to the workplace and the subsequent maintenance of these over a period of time. In his performance, learning and satisfaction (PLS) evaluation model, Swanson²⁴ insists on the need to detect performance leverage points, so as to facilitate the evaluation of training results, in terms of learning and changes in the workplace. Thus he established an interesting link among needs, learning, and results that proves to be essential for the evaluation of training.

His evaluation system connects the performance goals specified in the previous analysis with the obtained performance results. This is why it is very useful to measure training implementation in workplace. These three evaluation models contribute to the theory development, since they identify the difficulties to evaluate transfer, and provide new angles for research into the identification of transfer factors as an alternative way to evaluate training transfer.

Expanding on Baldwin and Ford's review and model of the transfer process, Holton²⁵ compiled a summative review of the state of training evaluation research and the development of a theory of training transfer. He convincingly argued for a more inclusive model of evaluation which captured the specific outcomes correctly, accounted for the effects of intervening variables that affect outcomes, and indicated causal relationships. He argued there was a critical need for research to move away from the taxonomic nature of Kirkpatrick's model to a fully specified model that captures the relationships associated with the transfer of training. In designing his model, Holton recognized all of the complex relationships that exist between the various intervening variables and identified learning, individual performance, and organizational performance as major outcome factors. The study carried out by Yamnill and McLean²⁶ is of particular interest. In this study, they offered a simplified version of Holton's training transfer model that recognized learning, individual performance, and organizational performance as outcome of the transfer process. This model was utilized as the theoretical framework for this study and is presented in Figure ure (1).

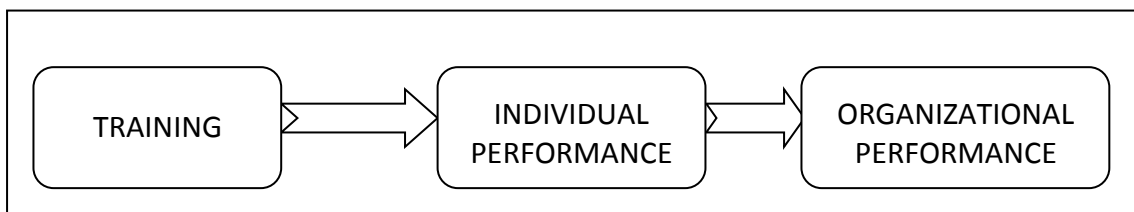


Figure ure (1): A simplified model of training transfer

(Millar & Stevens, 2012, P. 3)²³

Training and Individual Performance

The acquisition of knowledge, skills, behaviors, and attitudes through training is of little value if the learned characteristics are not generalized to the job and are not maintained over time.²⁶ As such, learning must be examined in combination with performance outcomes in order to encompass all areas of training transfer. Baldwin and Ford⁸ emphasized the application of learned material on the job, initiating a trend towards the inclusion of individual performance as an essential measure of training transfer. Holton²⁵ further supported the need to recognize performance as a training transfer outcome variable by critiquing Kirkpatrick's reactions level of evaluation. He argued that examining trainee reactions was one of the greatest flaws of Kirkpatrick's levels because it diverted attention away from the truly important training outcomes, such as performance. The importance of individual performance as an outcome and successor of learning in training transfer generated the first hypothesis:

H1. Training has a significant positive impact on individual performance in tourism organizations.

Performance measurement on the individual level has been driven by numerous theories (table (1)), including frameworks of learning outcomes, general theories of human performance, human information processing (HIP), and theories of expertise. According to Robinson & Robinson²⁷, individual performance may be defined by the type and level of competencies necessary to be effective in performing job tasks in achieving operational results. In addition, Individual performance needs are defined by the gap(s) between current and desired performance in term of job-related competencies. Training effectiveness can thus be defined by the difference of performance levels desired before training and performance measured after training. Worley²⁸ stated "A competency is a critical knowledge, skill, or attitude that a person needs to perform a specific task within a job" (p. 42). While some organizations define competencies for skills, values or personality traits such as initiative, self-esteem, assertiveness, discipline, commitment and independence, there is general agreement that competency refers to a set of related knowledge, skills and attitudes that influence a significant aspect of one's job.²⁹

Table (1): Summary of Theories of individual Performance

Theory	Description
Learning Outcomes Framework	The outcomes of learning drive effective performance, and different types of tasks require different types of learning outcomes (cognitive, skill, and affective); theories of learning and performance are generalizable within, but not across, categories of learning outcomes.
General theory of performance	Performance is determined by three primary factors: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation.
Human-information processing	People perform various internal manipulations of information received from the environment; performance is determined by the efficacy of these transformations.
Expertise	Superior performance is a function of specialized psychological mechanisms developed during extended practice activities.

Source: (Salas et al., 2009, P. 332)³⁰

According to the first theory – learning outcome framework, there are several domains of learning outcomes for any training program. These domains are categorized by Kraiger, Ford and Salas³¹, these include: cognitive, skill-based or psychomotor and affective domains. The cognitive domain is related to acquiring and applying information in solving problems. The psychomotor domain is related to the development of physical and skills. The affective domain is related to attitudes, feelings, values, commitment, and desires. According to Vogler’s model for sorting and measuring competency, the cognitive domain has three levels: facts, understanding and applications. Also, the skill-based psychomotor domain has three levels: imitation, practice and habit. Finally, the affective domain also has three levels: awareness, distinction and integration.³² These domains should be assessed and taken into account when designing and evaluating effective training in order to fill the gap(s) between the real and desired individuals’ performance. Based upon these three competencies of an individual with referencing to training transfer, the following hypotheses are generated:

- H2. Training has a significant positive impact on cognitive competency of an individual.
- H3. Training has a significant positive impact on psychomotor competency of an individual.
- H4. Training has a significant positive impact on affective competency of an individual.

Training and Organizational Performance

Despite the significance of organizational performance, the construct lacks a clear definition and reflects a very complex and controversial issue in management studies.^{33 34} However, since organizations are evaluated predominantly at the organizational level rather than at the individual level, it is essential to evaluate organizational performance as an outcome of the transfer of training. Training practices aim to provide and improve necessary skills in order to increase the workforce’s contribution to organizational performance.²² Despite frequent demand, organizational data are rarely gathered in training studies.¹⁵ Nevertheless, there are indications that employees’ competencies pay off for organizations.³⁵ Hence, we expected that increased competencies on the employee side would result in improved performance of the organization side. Bearing in mind our previous assumption concerning the effect of training on individuals’ competencies, it is hypothesized that:

- H5. Individual performance has a mediating effect on the relation between training and organizational performance (effectiveness and efficiency).

Generally, authors used many criteria for measuring organizational performance with referencing to training transfer. Diverse accounting indicators have been used in studies of reference. For example, return on assets (ROA) and return on equity (ROE) have been employed^{18 36}, return on sales (ROS)³⁷, net sales per employee⁴, etc. Also, subjective indicators such as earning^{38 39}, productivity^{40 41}, growth⁴², effectiveness and efficiency⁴³, etc. have been used. This study use effectiveness and efficiency indicators for measuring organizational performance as an outcome of training transfer. Therefore, the following hypotheses are generated:

- H6. Individual performance has a significant positive impact on organizational effectiveness.
- H6a. Cognitive competence has a significant positive impact on organizational effectiveness.

H6b. Psychomotor competence has a significant positive impact on organizational effectiveness.

H6c. Affective competence has a significant positive impact on organizational effectiveness.

H7. Individual performance has a significant positive impact on organizational efficiency.

H7a. Cognitive competence has a significant positive impact on organizational efficiency.

H7b. Psychomotor competence has a significant positive impact on organizational efficiency.

H7c. Affective competence has a significant positive impact on organizational efficiency.

Methodology

Research Design and Model

As it was mentioned previously at the introductory section, the main purpose of this study is to examine the impact of training on individual and organizational performance; therefore, the type of investigation could be preferably characterized as quantitative and not qualitative research. Kvale⁴⁴ simplifies the difference between the two types of research by stating that in quantitative research, data is in the form of numbers, while in the case of qualitative it has no numerical nature. Also, the research design can be considered as causal-effect research as it tries to investigate and tests hypotheses about cause and effect relationships. Figure (2) presents the suggested research model. This model is designed based upon the training transfer model of Millar and Stevens²³ that is outlined previously in the literature review. The revised model of this research is consisted of three variables and eight constructs. The hypothesized relationship among research variables is illustrated in Figure (2). It indicates a theoretical path of the relationship among variables: training – individual performance – organization performance. As indicated in the proposed research model, training plays the role of antecedent that affects individual performance, and thus individual performance is the antecedent of organizational performance.

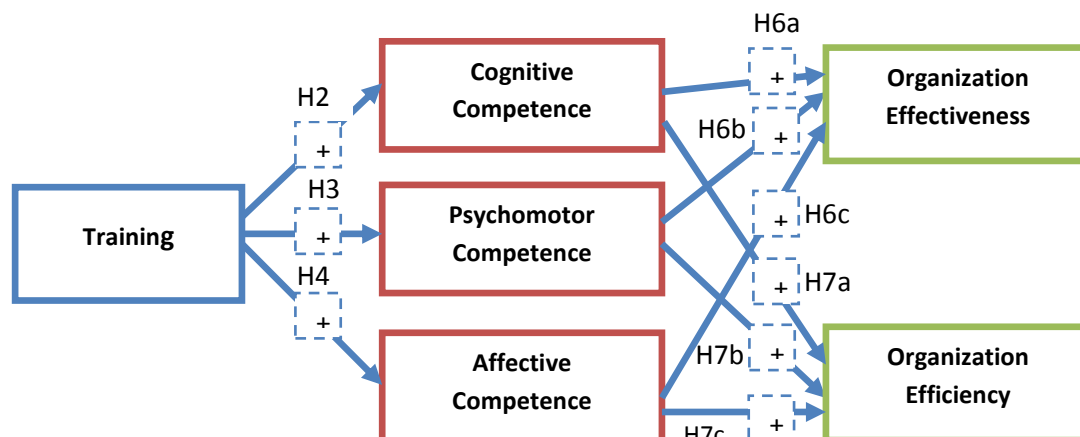


Figure (2): Proposed research Model

Instrument Development

Based on the review of literature, a preliminary questionnaire was developed using self-administrated format. The questionnaire was designed in Arabic language to measure variables and consisted of four sections. Section I is developed to obtain the demographic profile of respondents including; education, occupation, department, and experience. Sections II to IV included measurements of training, individual performance and organizational performance.

Measurement of Training

Training is usually measured by using several subjective and objective indicators. The time spent on training per employee is the most used indicator.^{35 45 46 47 48 49} Another usual indicator aims to measure the scope of training through the percentage of trained employees.^{47 48 50} In addition to training course assessment⁴⁹, and training expenditures regarding wage costs or training program length^{47 48}, the type of courses taken can also be used as another criterion.^{4 35 45 47} For the current study, three dimensions and ten indicators were developed to measure training variable as indicated in table (2). The dimensions developed are: number of training programs taken per year, nature of training content, and training methods used. The first indicator is considered to be objective one and the others are considered to be subjective indicators. These dimensions have

been measured for all training programs taken by faculty and administrative staff. As these dimensions and indicator related to facts or real life date, a nominal scale was used; where 1 equal to “No”, and 2 equal to “Yes”. There is one exception related to number of training programs that expressed by numerical.

Table (2): Dimensions and indicators of individual performance scale

Dimensions	Indicators	
No. of Training programs	TP1	Total no. of training programs per year
Training Nature	TN1	Training related to job specifications
	TN2	Training related to weak performance of individuals
Training methods	TM1	In-house training
	TM2	Ex-house Training
	TM3	Training depend on outside learning professionals
	TM4	Training depend on inside learning professionals
	TM5	On-job training
	TM6	Off-job training

Measurement of individual performance

Based on what are cited in the literature review and for the training context, the learning outcome framework may be considered more appropriate framework for evaluating individual performance for the current study. According to that framework, three domains of learning outcomes are assessed through subjective criteria: cognitive, skill-based or psychomotor and affective domains are measured through 9 indicators as indicated in table (3). A 5-point Likert scale was used to evaluate the individual performance (where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree).

Table (3): Dimensions and indicators of individual performance scale

Dimensions	Indicators	
Cognitive Competence	EPC1	Fully knowledge of technical issues related to employee's job
	EPC2	Enable employees to effectively use resources in accomplishing tasks
	EPC3	Improve technical skills such as planning, organizing and controlling
Psychomotor Competence	EPP1	Enable employees to smoothly interact with students and other colleagues
	EPP2	Improve team working skills
	EPP3	Improve communication skills
Affective Competence	EPA1	Enabling employees to coordinate, correlate and integrate among activities and/or departments
	EPA2	Understanding the extent to which each activity/department depends on other activities/department
	EPA3	Developing conceptual skills such as critical thinking, systematic thinking, contingency thinking, problem solving and analyzing

Measurement of organizational performance

Both objective and subjective measures are used for measuring the organizational performance. Diverse accounting results indicators have been used in studies of reference such as ROA and ROE³⁵, return on sales³⁶, net sales per employee⁴, and average sales growth or profit margin.⁵¹ In turn, subjective indicators such as earning^{37 38}, productivity^{39 40}, growth⁴¹, and effectiveness and efficiency⁴² have been used. This study use effectiveness and efficiency indicators for measuring organizational performance as an outcome of training transfer. Based on close examining of literature review, 11 indicators were developed to measure effectiveness and efficiency of organizational performance as indicated in table (4). A 5-point Likert scale was used to evaluate the organizational performance (where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree).

Table (4): Dimensions and indicators of organizational performance scale

Dimensions	Indicators	
Organizational Effectiveness	OPEFFC1	Improve quality of work
	OPEFFC2	Maintain and improving ethics in the workplace
	OPEFFC3	Improve waste and resources management
	OPEFFC4	Eliminate employees stress
	OPEFFC5	Increase employees satisfaction
	OPEFFC6	motivate employees and increase performance
Organizational Efficiency	OPEFFI1	Reduce student complaint rate
	OPEFFI2	Reduce the number and cost of employees
	OPEFFI3	Reduce employees turnover
	OPEFFI4	Reduce work accidents and crises
	OPEFFI5	Reduce the direct supervision

Data collection and analysis

To test hypotheses and achieve research objectives, this research used a real life case study at tourism higher education in Egypt to explore employees' perception regarding the training outcomes with reference to the Faculty of Tourism and Hotels- Fayoum University. A case study is appropriate for this research for several reasons. First, it is a real life example of the dilemma tourism organizations face when trying to understand the effectiveness of their training and development programs. Second, instead of focusing on the theoretical, it emphasizes the practical and real needs that the faculty has to grow their business in an increasingly competitive business environment. Finally, despite the resulting generalization limitations that we may have as we are working on only one case, we can eliminate the heterogeneity problems of working with diverse cases. The data collection methods depend on primary sources through conducting survey with all faculty and administrative staff at Faculty of Tourism and Hotels- Fayoum University, Egypt. Ninety six questionnaires were distributed during the academic year 2012/2013. A two-step modeling technique recommended by Anderson and Gerbing⁵² was adopted in the data analysis, namely, measurement model and structural model. Measurement model was established with convergent validity, and discriminant validity to validate the instrument before testing research model and hypotheses. Structural model was established with regression analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the research model and hypotheses. Descriptive analysis was conducted using normality tests, mean, standard deviation and chi-square test.

Pilot Test

Validity and reliability tests were conducted on the research instrument. In order to test the scales validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is the degree to which conceptually similar concepts are distinct. Discriminant validity can be assessed by measuring to what extent the scale can differentiate between lower and upper scores. To do that we compared between the means of lower and upper scores and tested the differences by using independent samples t-test. The results indicated that all scales have satisfied discrimination validity, where all t-values are significant at 95% confidence interval (table (4)).

Convergent validity refers to that the indicators for a given construct should be at least moderately correlated among themselves and it can be assessed by the item-total correlations, item-construct correlations, and construct-total correlations. High correlations indicate that the scale instrument is measuring its intended construct. Thus, items of the scale instrument should load strongly on their common construct.⁵³ As indicated in table (5), all constructs/dimensions of training scale are significantly related to the total scale score at 1% confidence interval. Item-total correlation results of training scale indicate that three indicators of training method dimension have not significant item-total correlation coefficients. These items are: in-house training ($r = -0.183$, $p\text{-value} = 0.309$), on-job training ($r = -0.048$, $p\text{-value} = 0.791$), and off-job training ($r = 0.239$, $p\text{-value} = 0.181$). The same three items have also insignificant item-construct correlation coefficients as follow: in-house training ($r = -0.043$, $p\text{-value} = 0.812$), on-job training ($r = 0.082$, $p\text{-value} = 0.650$), and off-job training ($r = 0.275$, $p\text{-value} = 0.122$). Regarding individual performance and organizational performance scales, as indicated in table (5), all constructs have significant correlation with total score of the relevant scale at 1% confidence interval. Also, their items have significant item-total correlation coefficients and item-construct correlation coefficients at 1% confidence interval.

Table (4): Discrimination Validity (N= 33)

Construct		Value	T-value	DF	Sig.
Total training programs	1 st quartile	1	-4.758	21	0.000
	4 th quartile	2.5			
Training Nature	1 st quartile	2	-6.348	21	0.000
	4 th quartile	4			
Training Method	1 st quartile	9	-9.384	31	0.000
	4 th quartile	10			
Cognitive Competence	1 st quartile	11.5	-9.336	23	0.000
	4 th quartile	13			
Psychomotor Competence	1 st quartile	12	-4.888	31	0.000
	4 th quartile	13			
Affective Competence	1 st quartile	12	-4.846	31	0.000
	4 th quartile	13			
Effectiveness	1 st quartile	22	-16.267	19	0.000
	4 th quartile	27			
Efficiency	1 st quartile	16	-8.345	21	0.000
	4 th quartile	20			

The reliability of the internal consistency of the scale was examined using Cronbach's alpha test. The cut-off point of alpha coefficient at 0.7 indicates an acceptable level of reliability for each scale.⁵⁴ Therefore, only scale with high alpha reliability coefficients are considered internally consistent and reliable. As observed from table (5), the alpha scores are 0.757 for training, 0.923 for individual performance, and 0.862 for organizational performance. Therefore, the identified scales under study have satisfied internal consistency, where all Alpha Coefficients are above 0.7.

Table (5): scales convergent validity and reliability tests (N= 33)

Construct/Item	Item/Construct- Total Correlation	Item- Construct Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted	Reliability Coefficient
TRAINING ($\alpha = 0.757$)				0.757
<i>No. of Training Programs</i>	.830**		0.701	
<i>Training Nature</i>	.767**			
TN1	.797**	.845**	0.716	
TN2	.529**	.869**	0.736	
<i>Training methods</i>	.702**			
TM1	-0.183	-0.043	0.790	
TM2	.379*	.453**	0.749	
TM3	.343*	.453**	0.750	
TM4	.431*	.343*	0.748	
TM5	-0.048	0.082	0.782	
TM6	0.239	0.275	0.759	
INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE ($\alpha = 0.923$)				0.923
<i>Cognitive Competence</i>	.964**			
EPC1	.735**	.733**	0.918	
EPC2	.862**	.920**	0.908	
EPC3	.759**	.786**	0.917	
<i>Psychomotor Competence</i>	.981**			
EPP1	.718**	.722**	0.919	
EPP 2	.816**	.845**	0.916	
EPP 3	.813**	.818**	0.912	
<i>Affective Competence</i>	.975**			
EPA1	.779**	.790**	0.915	
EPA2	.750**	.759**	0.917	
EPA3	.891**	.930**	0.905	
ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE ($\alpha = 0.862$)				0.862

Organizational Effectiveness	.906**		
OPEFFC1	.584**	.705**	0.854
OPEFFC2	.755**	.726**	0.84
OPEFFC3	.662**	.663**	0.849
OPEFFC4	.397*	.497**	0.864
OPEFFC5	.508**	.631**	0.858
OPEFFC6	.617**	.715**	0.852
Organizational Efficiency	.941**		
OPEFFI1	.626**	.715**	0.856
OPEFFC2	.664**	.797**	0.850
OPEFFC3	.802**	.871**	0.835
OPEFFC4	.562**	.565**	0.856
OPEFFC5	.862**	.785**	0.828

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results and Discussions

Data Screening

The survey was conducted during the academic year 2012/2013. Among 96 distributed questionnaires, 89 questionnaires were returned, which represent a response rate of 92.7%. However, this was not the valid size for the structural model testing. During the data entry process, it was found that in addition to double checks for the same items, a group of items had all been doubtfully checked consecutively with the same point on the scale. As a result, 15 dubious cases had been eliminated. The remaining 74 cases were finally used as the validated dataset for the analysis.

Missing value analysis was conducted, as the first analysis under data screening. The results indicated some few missing data that had been handled. Outlier exclusion analysis was also conducted to identify extreme data. Only few cases were observed and handled. As per the importance of normality distribution in parametric analysis, data normality tests were used to determine whether a dataset is well-modeled by a normal distribution or not. Two methods are used to test the normality of data distribution: Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) test. Results indicated in table (6) ensured the normality of data distribution for all constructs and items, where all K-S statistics and S-W statistics are significance at both 95% and 99% confidence intervals for all items.

Table (4): Normality tests and descriptive statistics for all items (N= 74)

	Normality Tests				Descriptive Statistics			
	K-S Test		S-W Test		Mean	SD	X ²	Sig.
	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.				
TRAINING								
<i>No. of Training Programs</i>	0.383	.000	.000	.000	1.54	0.762	28.00	0.000
<i>Training Nature</i>								
TN1	0.382	.000	0.627	.000	1.58	0.497	1.95	0.163
TN2	0.43	.000	0.59	.000	1.32	0.471	9.14	0.003
<i>Training methods</i>								
TM2	0.395	.000	0.619	.000	1.61	0.492	3.46	0.063
TM3	0.382	.000	0.627	.000	1.42	0.497	1.95	0.163
TM4	0.395	.000	0.619	.000	1.61	0.492	3.46	0.063
INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE								
<i>Cognitive Competence</i>								
EPC1	0.312	.000	0.824	.000	3.69	0.992	36.92	0.036
EPC2	0.308	.000	0.823	.000	3.66	1.264	55.87	0.000
EPC3	0.299	.000	0.85	.000	3.68	1.035	33.43	0.000
<i>Psychomotor Competence</i>								
EPP1	0.399	.000	0.739	.000	3.46	1.137	42.22	0.000
EPP 2	0.376	.000	0.752	.000	3.39	1.156	89.78	0.000
EPP 3	0.255	.000	0.837	.000	3.97	0.936	77.62	0.000
<i>Affective Competence</i>								
EPA1	0.348	.000	0.804	.000	3.5	0.954	19.51	0.000

EPA2	0.362	.000	0.793	.000	3.55	1.087	69.65	0.000
EPA3	0.264	.000	0.866	.000	3.72	1.104	68.16	0.000
ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE								
<i>Organizational Effectiveness</i>								
OPEFFC1	0.249	.000	0.817	.000	3.95	1.109	37.62	0.000
OPEFFC2	0.232	.000	0.865	.000	3.64	1.041	5.46	0.141
OPEFFC3	0.258	.000	0.869	.000	3.46	0.924	16.16	0.001
OPEFFC4	0.311	.000	0.837	.000	3.77	0.837	35.08	0.000
OPEFFC5	0.276	.000	0.809	.000	4.12	0.776	40.05	0.000
OPEFFC6	0.264	.000	0.839	.000	4.01	0.802	30.97	0.000
<i>Organizational Efficiency</i>								
OPEFFI1	0.258	.000	0.866	.000	3.38	1.352	14.24	0.007
OPEFFC2	0.196	.000	0.907	.000	3.03	1.134	16.54	0.002
OPEFFC3	0.246	.000	0.879	.000	3.15	1.155	36.27	0.000
OPEFFC4	0.226	.000	0.869	.000	3.77	0.869	18.43	0.000
OPEFFC5	0.189	.000	0.911	.000	3.27	1.126	18.30	0.001

Demographic information

Table (7) explores demographic data about the respondents. It indicates that non-academic employees represent the largest category of the respondents (58.8%) and occupied administrative jobs. The remaining (41.2%) are academics who work at three departments: hotel management department (23.5%), tourism studies department (3.9%), and tourism guidance department (13.7). While the largest percent of the respondents (96.1%) have bachelor degree and more, there is a small percent of respondents (3.9%) have a secondary school or post-secondary school.

Table (7): Demographic data of the respondents

Demographic data	Frequency (%)	Median	St. Deviation
<i>Qualification:</i>			
Secondary and post-secondary diploma	3.9	4	1.12
Bachelor degree	37.3		
Post-graduate diploma	9.8		
Master degree	31.4		
PhD degree	17.6		
<i>Occupation:</i>			
Non-academics	58.8	1	0.49
Academics	41.2		
<i>Department:</i>			
Hotel department	23.5	4	1.26
Tourism department	3.9		
Guidance department	13.7		
Administrative departments	58.8		
<i>Experience:</i>			
< 5 years	37.3	2	0.74
5-10 years	43.1		
>10 years	19.6		

Scale: Education (1=Post-graduate diploma, 2=Master degree, 3= PhD degree, 4= Bachelor degree, and 5=Secondary and post-secondary diploma), Occupation (1= administrative staff, and 2= faculty), Department (1=Hotel department, 2= Tourism department, 3=Guidance department, and 4=Administrative departments), and Experience (1= <5 years, 2= 5-10 years, and 3= >10 years).

Descriptive Analysis

It is vital to conduct descriptive analysis before testing structural models to identify the characteristic of constructs and items and describe the perception of respondents regarding the relationship between training and performance. Frequencies, means, standard deviation and chi-square were calculated and the results of central tendency tests and chi-square test are presented in table (6). While the majority of all respondents (62%) got less than 5 training programs per year, the lowest percent of respondents (16.2) got more 10 training programs yearly. The number of training programs for the remaining respondent percent (21.6%) ranged from 5 to 10. 58.1% of respondents agreed that training programs were related to their job specification. A lower percent of respondents (32.4%) agreed that training programs were related to their weak

performance. The majority of respondents (60.8%) got ex-house training programs that were depended on inside learning professionals.

As could be perceived from table (6), the mean values of individual performance indicators ranged from 3.39 to 3.97 which is implied that all items have mean value higher than three (3=neutral), which means the overall individual performance indicators are positively perceived by academic and administrative staff. This result is supported by significant chi-square for all attributes ranged from 19.51 to 89.78 (p -value < 0.05). Cognitive competence was perceived as the first competence affected by training (mean value = 3.70) followed by psychomotor competence (mean value = 3.61), and affective training (mean value = 3.60). 70.2% of respondents perceived that training enable them to effectively use resources in accomplishing tasks. 68.9% of all respondent perceived that training provide them with the knowledge of technical issues related to their job. 67.6% of respondents perceived that training improve technical skills such as planning, organizing and controlling. The majority of respondents agreed that training positively affects employees' psychomotor competence as it improve employees' communication skills (74.3%), enable employees to smoothly interact with students and other colleagues (71.6%), and improve team working skills (67.6%). Also, training leads to the improvement of employees' affective competence as it enable employees to understand the extent to which each activity/department depends on other activities/department (70.3%), develop conceptual skills such as critical thinking, systematic thinking, contingency thinking, problem solving and analyzing (66.3%), coordinate, correlate and integrate among activities and/or departments (64.9%).

Regarding organizational performance, the mean values ranged from 3.03 to 4.12, with significant chi square values, to imply that all indicators had been positively perceived by respondents. The majority of respondents (68%) perceived organization effectiveness as a positive outcome for training (mean value = 3.83). They ensured that training has positive impacts on increasing employees satisfaction (83.8%), motivating employees and increasing performance (77%), improving quality of work (73%), eliminating employees stress (70.3%), maintaining work ethics (59%), and improving waste and resources management (53.2%). A lower percent of respondents (56%) perceived organization efficiency as a positive outcome of training (mean value = 3.32). while they agreed that training has positive impacts on reducing work accidents (62.1%), students complaints (58.1%), direct supervision (50.8%), they indicated that training has a weak influence on reducing the number of employees (36.5%) or employees' turnover (32.5%).

Training, Individual Performance, and Organizational Performance

By using regression analysis, the impacts of training on individual performance and organizational performance were tested. Table (8) presents the results of regression analysis for all constructs. While all training constructs have positive impacts on both individual performance and organizational performance, not all impacts are significant. Number of early training programs and training methods have positive impacts on individual performance and its constructs, yet these impacts are not significant as shown in Table (8). Training nature has significant positive impacts on individual performance ($\beta = 0.363$, $t = 2.951$, p -value = 0.004) and its constructs including: cognitive competence ($\beta = 0.388$, $t = 3.167$, p -value = 0.002), psychomotor competence ($\beta = 0.391$, $t = 3.176$, p -value = 0.002), and affective competence ($\beta = 0.291$, $t = 2.308$, p -value = 0.024). Also, the results revealed an evidence that training method has significant positive impacts on individual performance ($\beta = 0.194$, $t = 1.704$, p -value = 0.049), and only two individual performance constructs including psychomotor ($\beta = 0.195$, $t = 1.707$, p -value = 0.049) and affective competence ($\beta = 0.241$, $t = 2.063$, p -value = 0.043). As for organizational performance, the results show that training has positive impacts on organizational performance and its constructs (effectiveness and efficiency) but not all impacts are significant. Organization performance is affected by both training nature ($\beta = 0.360$, $t = 3.012$, p -value = 0.004), and training method ($\beta = 0.223$, $t = 2.019$, p -value = 0.047). While the same happened for organizational efficiency that is affected by both training nature ($\beta = 0.213$, $t = 1.776$, p -value = 0.050) and training method ($\beta = 0.344$, $t = 3.104$, p -value = 0.003), organizational effectiveness is influenced only by training nature ($\beta = 0.481$, $t = 3.954$, p -value = 0.000).

Furthermore, the results indicated that while 27.2% of changes in individual performance is coming from training, 31.5% of changes in organizational performance is happening due to changes in training. Also, changes in training are responsible for changes in cognitive competence (27.9%), psychomotor competence (27.3%), affective competence (23.8%), organizational effectiveness (29%), and organizational efficiency (31.1%). Finally, based on descriptive and regression results, it is clear that training (especially training nature construct) has significant positive impacts on individual performance and its constructs (cognitive competence, psychomotor competence, and affective competence). Given the above, the first four hypotheses are supported

The Mediating role of Individual Performance

For testing the last three hypotheses which proposed that individual performance has a mediating effect between training and organizational performance, there are generally three major frameworks: the causal steps approach, differences in coefficients, and product of coefficients.⁵⁵ Baron and Kenny's⁵⁶ causal steps approach was used in this study as it has been

adopted by the majority of prior studies of management⁵⁴ as well as in hospitality and tourism^{57 58}. Four conditions were recommended by Baron and Kenny⁵⁵: (1) the independent variable must be shown to affect the mediator in the absence of the dependent variable; (2) the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the absence of the mediator; (3) the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the presence of the independent variable; and the independent variable must affect the dependent variable in the presence of the mediator; and (4) once the above conditions all hold in the predicted direction, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third condition than in the second condition.

Table (8): Results of Regression Models

Dependent Variables	Path To	Independent Variables	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	T-Value	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
Individual Performance	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.109	0.870	0.387	0.272
	←	Training Nature	0.363**	2.957	0.004	
	←	Training Method	0.194*	1.704	0.049	
Cognitive Competence	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.142	1.133	0.261	0.279
	←	Training Nature	0.388**	3.167	0.002	
	←	Training Method	0.134	1.180	0.242	
Psychomotor competence	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.074	0.589	0.557	0.273
	←	Training Nature	0.391**	3.176	0.002	
	←	Training Method	0.195*	1.707	0.049	
Affective Competence	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.108	0.838	0.405	0.238
	←	Training Nature	0.291*	2.308	0.024	
	←	Training Method	0.241*	2.063	0.043	
Organizational Performance	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.134	1.096	0.277	0.315
	←	Training Nature	0.360**	3.012	0.004	
	←	Training Method	0.223*	2.019	0.047	
Organizational Effectiveness	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.085	0.688	0.494	0.290
	←	Training Nature	0.481***	3.954	0.000	
	←	Training Method	0.063	0.581	0.563	
Organizational Efficiency	←	No. of Yearly Training Programs	0.164	1.341	0.184	0.311
	←	Training Nature	0.213*	1.776	0.050	
	←	Training Method	0.344**	3.104	0.003	

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

The results shown in table (8) satisfy the first two conditions, where the independent variable (training) affects the mediator (individual performance) in the absence of the dependent variable (organizational performance), and affects the dependent variable (organizational performance) in the absence of the mediator (individual performance). For satisfying the third condition, extra model was developed as shown in Figure (3). To test this model, Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used. SEM has been frequently used in psychology and social sciences because it enables researchers to assess and modify theoretical models.⁵⁹ According to Anderson and Gerbing⁵¹, structural testing involves a two-stage process. The first stage ensures good measurement of the constructs while the second involves an assessment of the structural relationships. The first stage was conducted through measuring validity and reliability of identified constructs under study. The results of measurement analysis are indicated in pilot testing section. Based on the satisfied validity and reliability results of the measurement model, the structural relationships were assessed by running SPSS AMOS 22 developed by IBM.

The first step with AMOS is running some descriptive fit statistics to assess the overall fit of the research model to data. The structural model revealed a significant chi-square statistics ($\chi^2 = 332.07$, $p\text{-value} < 0.01$). To obtain a superior goodness of fit, a modification index was conducting and minor modifications on the research model diagram were done. The descriptive model-fit statistics ensured that the overall model fit in this study is quite reasonably adequate for further

analysis. The goodness of fit index (GFI= 0.891), the comparative fit index (CFI= 0.889), and the incremental fit index (IFI= 0.907) are over 0.80 for satisfactory model fit. Table (9) presents the results of SEM analysis that met the third and fourth conditions of Baron and Kenny. It is shown that the mediator (individual performance) affects the dependent variable (organizational performance) in the presence of the independent variable (training); and the independent variable (training) affects the dependent variable (organizational performance) in the presence of the mediator (individual performance). The fourth condition is met where the standardized regression coefficients of training constructs presented in table 9 (-0.006, 0.109, 0.237, 0.179, -0.074, 0.160) are less than that presented in table 8 (0.085, 0.164, 0.481, 0.213, 0.063, 0.344). Therefore, individual performance has a mediating effect on the relationship between training and organizational performance. Accordingly, the fifth hypothesis is supported.

Table (9): Results of Structural Equation Modeling

Exogenous Variables	Path To	Endogenous Variables	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	P-value
No. of Training Programs	→	Organizational Effectiveness	-0.006	0.948
		Organizational Efficiency	0.109	0.079
Training Nature	→	Organizational Effectiveness	0.237*	0.024
		Organizational Efficiency	0.179*	0.046
Training Method	→	Organizational Effectiveness	-0.074	0.398
		Organizational Efficiency	0.160	0.007
Cognitive Competence	→	Organizational Effectiveness	0.464***	0.000
		Organizational Efficiency	0.221***	0.000
Psychomotor Competence	→	Organizational Effectiveness	0.140	0.107
		Organizational Efficiency	0.768***	0.000
Affective Competence	→	Organizational Effectiveness	0.244**	0.004
		Organizational Efficiency	0.258***	0.000

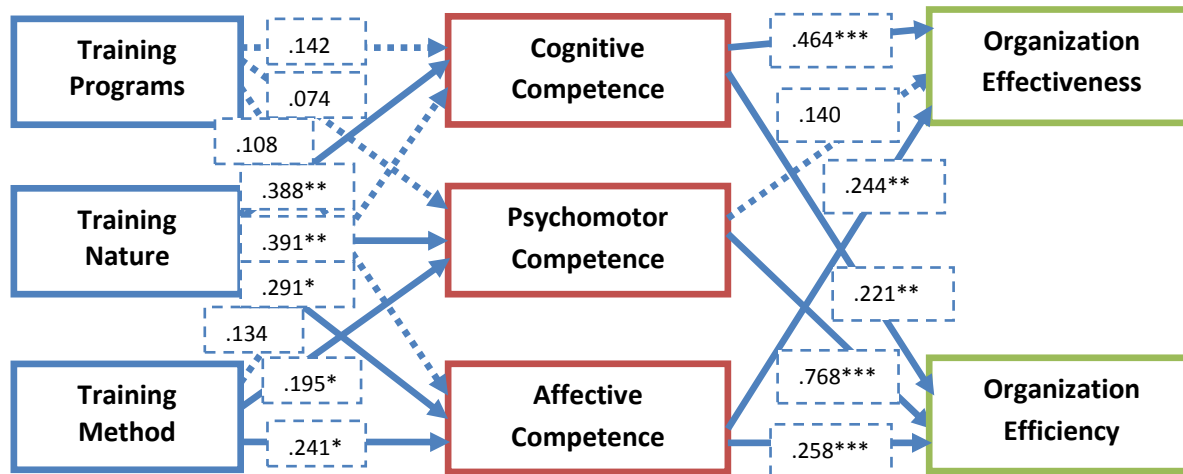
Fit Statistics: $\chi^2 = 332.07$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $GFI = .891$, $CFI = .889$, $IFI = .907$

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Regarding the impacts of individual performance on organizational performance, the results presented in Figure .3 support the sixth and seventh hypotheses except hypothesis (H6b). Cognitive competence positively affects organizational effectiveness (H6a is supported) and efficiency (H7a is supported) at $p < 0.001$. While psychomotor competence positively affects organizational efficiency at $p < 0.001$ (H7b is supported), it has no significant impact on organizational effectiveness (H6b is rejected). Affective competence has significant positive impacts on both organizational effectiveness and efficiency (H6c and H7c are supported).

Conclusion and Future Research

The present study tries to contribute to the understanding of training effectiveness in the context of tourism industry. Perceptions of the staff of the faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Fayoum University, Egypt have been explored. The results of descriptive analysis and regression analysis supported the first three hypotheses and ensured that training has significant positive impacts on both individual performance and organizational performance. In relation, most of prior studies of training of the human resources have supported the same results indicating that training courses upgrade employees' skills and increase productivity in organizations. A study by the management association of the United States, with study population of 2400, indicated that in 86% of the cases, it is been showed that evaluation depends on decision-making, 65% depends on consolation, 64% on training, 45% on promotion, 43% on employment scheme, and 30% on the human resources.⁶⁰ Hitt et al.³⁶ found that training investment first generates a negative effect on results (deriving from the cost of the same), which later become positive, as far as the transfer of knowledge to the post is concerned. Also, it was noted by Lee et al.⁵⁰ who highlighted the fact that training is one of the few practices where a consistent, positive impact on performance is found. Recently, Pool⁶¹ revealed that training is feasible and productive at both business and staff engagement levels.



* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Solid line: significant causal path

Dashed Line: insignificant causal path

Figure (3): Estimates of the Research Model

Individual performance and organizational performance indicators are perceived by academic and administrative staff as positive outcomes for training. Cognitive competence was perceived as the first competence affected by training followed by psychomotor competence and effective training. Training nature is the most important training construct perceived by employees to influence their performance and organizational performance. They recommended linking training to their job specifications and weak performance of individuals as major factors of the training transfer. Training method also perceived to be the second influencer on individual performance and organizational performance.

Asserting the same results, in a study applied a survey to a sample of 108 salespeople in a business-to-business context and archival sales performance information, the results indicated that the use of sales force automation tools enhances salesperson efficiency and effectiveness under conditions of adequate user support and training.⁶² Jantan et al.⁶³ indicated that multinational firm sales managers perceived greater improvement in all five hypothesized measures of performance: company information and policies, sales presentation and communications skills, sales objectives, product information and technical skills, and customer relation skills, as a result of their sales force completing initial sales training. The results of Van-Vuuren and Botha⁶⁴ proved that the respondents' business performance indicators as well as their performance motivation increased after the programs. Furthermore, the paper highlighted that entrepreneurial and business skills transfer took place after the programs and the respondents gained or increased these skills.

The current results indicated that training has positive impacts on employees' motivation and satisfaction, service quality, work ethics, and resource management. Likewise, Aragon et al.⁴⁸, find a positive influence of training activities on business results. And the results of Danvila-del-Valle et al.¹ gave clear empirical support to the hypothesis that training activities are a positive influence on company performance (using earning indicator). A study examining the relationship between training and firm performance in middle-sized UK companies recognizes that there is evidence that high performance work practices including training function appear to be associated with better performance using subjective financial indicators: Return On Sales (ROS) compared with industry average, Return On Capital (ROC) employed compared with industry average, cash flow in the business and firm profitability in previous financial year.⁶⁵ Reflecting on this study, the results of SEM test revealed that individual performance has a mediating effect on the relationship between training and organizational performance. Also, it is found that all individual performance constructs have significant positive impacts on organizational performance constructs with minor exception. While organizational efficiency is positively affected by all individual performance constructs including cognitive, psychomotor and affective competencies, organizational effectiveness is positively affected by only two constructs including cognitive and affective competencies.

Likewise, other investigations have found only some indirect evidence of the relation between training and organization performance. The study carried out by Koch and McGrath⁴ does not directly analyze the relationship of training with performance; instead, it uses a personnel development index that showed a slightly significant effect on work productivity, measured by net sales per employee. Along with other studies, a recent study conducted by Martínez-Rosa and Orfila-Sintes⁶⁶ to analyze the relationship between innovation and employment skills in the service industry found that using training programs helps improving a firm's competitive edge through developing employee's innovation and skills. Tourism educational leaders, whether at faculty level or university level, should take these results in their considerations especially those related to assessing training needs and designing training programs. Future studies may evaluate the training effectiveness with larger sample and investigate factors that influence the process of training transfer.

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فعالية التدريب في السياحة : قياس أثر التدريب في أداء الأفراد والمؤسسات

يُعتبر التعليم والتدريب من أهم الاستثمارات في رأس المال البشري. كما يعتبر قياس أثر التدريب وتحديد نتائجه ضروري وهام لكل من المؤسسات السياحية ومتخذي القرار. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تقييم فعالية التدريب من خلال قياس أثر التدريب في أداء الأفراد والمؤسسات في قطاع التعليم السياحي. اعتمدت الدراسة على المنهج الكمي في جمع وتحليل البيانات، وتعتبر من الدراسات السببية المقارنة في كونها تبحث في دراسة الأثر. وقد تم الاعتماد على دراسة إحدى مؤسسات التعليم العالي في مصر كدراسة حالة، فتم إجراء دراسة مسحية على العاملين بكلية السياحة والفنادق - جامعة الفيوم من أعضاء هيئة التدريس وإداريين. وأسفرت نتائج الدراسة الاستطلاعية على صدق وثبات الاستبيان المكون من ثلاثة مقاييس أساسية (التدريب- أداء الأفراد- أداء المؤسسة). وباستخدام برامج التحليل الاحصائي (SPSS 19, AMOS 22) تم تحليل البيانات وإختبار الفروض الاحصائية من خلال إجراء التحليل الوصفي وتحليل الانحدار وتحليل النماذج البنائية (SEM) للبيانات. أكدت النتائج صحة غالبية الفروض الاحصائية، وأوضحت أن للتدريب تأثيراً إيجابياً في كل من أداء العاملين تمثلت في تحسين المهارات المعرفية والسلوكية والذهنية، والمؤسسية، مثل تحسين مستويات رضا العاملين وتحفيزهم، وتقليل ضغوط العمل، ورفع مستوى جودة الخدمات المقدمة، وتحسين أخلاقيات العمل، ودعم الإنتاجية وإدارة الموارد التنظيمية. وتوصي الدراسة القيادات السياحية بضرورة الأخذ بعين الاعتبار نتائج الدراسة الحالية، خاصة عند تحديد الاحتياجات التدريبية وتصميم الخطط والبرامج التدريبية. كما تقترح الدراسة ضرورة البحث في العوامل التي تؤثر في عملية نقل التدريب والإستفادة من نتائجه في العمل.

الكلمات الدالة: التدريب، السياحة، الأداء، تحليل النماذج البنائية (SEM)، مصر