

Impact of Training Patterns upon the Social Relations of Employees (A Meta Analysis)

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Abstract

This research explains and explores the 'Effects of training patterns' on 'Social relationships' within organizations. The study demonstrates a link between unstructured training patterns and formal social relation networks and structured training patterns and informal social relation networks. To justify the study, a theoretical research is conducted by reviewing the literature and various training models and the relationship establish between training patterns and social relationship networks existing in the employees. The theoretical frame work of this study is based on literature that explores concepts like, training, learning, training model, training pattern, training methods, organizational relationships and social networks. In conclusion, the research also states its limitations and recommendations for further research.

Keywords: Training, Social relations, Training patterns, Organizational performance

1. Introduction

In this era of globalisation, organizations are taking careful to steps in order to stay ahead in competition and to please their customers. According to Kuemmler and Kleiner (1996) organizations are putting more emphasis on training of their employees. They further suggest that once an employee is recruited the first step is to provide training. Different organizations have different methods for the delivery of training. Some organizations are giving off-the-job training where as some organizations are giving on-the-job training. According to Sloman (2007) coaching and mentoring are the training patterns that are gaining popularity among employers. Coaching and mentoring is described by authors (Jarvis et al, 2006; Parsloe and Leedham, 2009) as a one-to-one relation between a coach/mentor and coachee/ mentee.

According to Rao and Sawminathan (1995) cited in Conner (2001) organizations in the twenty first century are more flexible and relationship based. Relationships of employees are forming networks within the organizations which are helping employees to work in a team and for managers these networks are rich source for knowledge sharing and problem solving capabilities. With the growth of formal as well as informal relationships among employees more networks are formed in the organizations.

The primary aim of the research was to study the effect of different training patterns practiced within an organization and to analyse the social relations of the employees. The secondary aim of the research was to establish a concrete relationship between the training patterns practiced in an organization and the social relations made within it.

This research enables to understand the connection between training patterns and relationship networks formed within an organization. Understanding relationship networks and the reasons for their formation gives an insight into the necessity to further explore the positive and negative effects that they have on employees. These networks can further be interlinked with other aspects of work like motivation and job performance to study their effectiveness within an organization. The effectiveness of these networks can be analysed and used by the organizations for their benefits.

2. Objectives of the Research:

In order to achieve the aim of the research the objectives set forward for conducting the research were:

1. To explore the different training patterns.
2. To study and analyse the effect of different patterns on employees.
3. To explore social relationships and networks.
4. To study and analyse the difference between different social relationships and networks within an organization.
5. To show a connection between training pattern and relationships within the organization.

3. Training:

According to Harrison (2009:6) training is “to instruct and discipline in or for some particular art, profession, occupation or practice; to exercise, practice, and drill”. CIPD also defines training as an instructor led and content based intervention which leads to desired changes in behaviour (CIPD Factsheet 2008). As cited in Garavan (1997), the Oxford English Dictionary defines training as a practical education of any profession, craft or art. Gravan et al (1995);

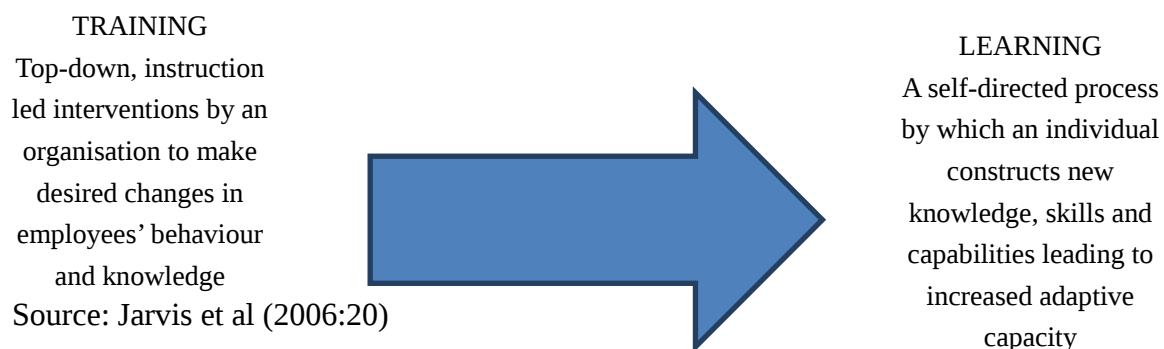
Harrison (1993) and Reid et al (1994) cited in Garavan (1997) also defined training as planned and systematic strength to transform or develop knowledge, skills and attitudes through learning experiences to achieve effective performance in an activity or variety of activities. Van Wart et al (1993) defined training as an application driven system which aims to impart skills that are useful immediately in particular situations.

According to Blanchard and Thacker (2007) training provides employees with knowledge and skills to perform their job more effectively. Training is used extensively to help employees understand their role in meeting corporate objectives. They further discussed that training is an opportunity for learning and learning depends on factors such as design and implementation of training and the learning climate of the organization.

Reid and Barrington (1999) suggested that before the era of globalisation the focus of training was on individual employees and training methods commonly relied on teaching. But with the changing time training became more complex and involved learner centric activities alongside those that were teacher or tutor led. The twentieth century was the era of globalisation and economic growth. Many organizations changed in size, management philosophy and structure. In this rapidly changing environment the approaches towards training changed which broadened the scope and became more sophisticated in practice.

4. Learning:

Foot and Hook (2008) suggested, in the recent years many organizations recognised that, in order to stay competitive in the rapid changing environment of globalisation they must utilise the knowledge and skills of their employees. As a result of this, the focus of their activities switched from training to learning. This change was observed due to the movement of economy, largely from manufacturing economy; where training the human capital was considered appropriate to carry out specific tasks; to service based economy where skills and attitudes of the employees were considered as a competitive advantage towards a knowledge-based society. Hence, employers started encouraging individual learning over top-down instructor-led approach.



Harrison (2009) suggested that learning occurs by individual's curiosity, intelligence, desires shaped by their social intelligence at the workplace. Jarvis et al (2006) defined learning as a process in which an individual constructs new knowledge, skills and capabilities. Maples and Webster (1980) cited in Garavan (1997:41) defined learning as a process by which behaviour

changes as a result of experience. Learning is “a self-directed, work based process leading to increased adaptive capacity” (CIPD Factsheet 2010).

Foot and Hook (2008) discussed that the ideology of individual learning occurs in all situations, not only in traditional but also in formal training patterns. Learning includes less of formal and more of learner centric approaches such as coaching and mentoring. According to Sloman (2003) Kolb introduced the concept of the learning cycle. This Kolb learning cycle has four stages. At stage one learner starts off with an experience which is planned or accidental. At stage two the learner observes and reflects on the experiences gained in stage one. Stage three is to develop certain principles and concepts from reflection and stage four is to test the principles and concepts either by repeating the initial experience or by trying the concepts in new circumstances and this will produce the new experience (stage one again) and the cycle will continue.

The responsibility of the fulfilment of the training given in organizations takes place through the Kolb Learning Cycle. However, in order to deliver appropriate training and to achieve best results it is done through a systematic approach towards training for which there are different training models suggested by academics and practioners over a period of years. The basic systematic Model of Training suggested by Sloman (1999) underlines the training cycle.

5. The Systematic Training Model:

According to Sloman (1999) the most significant model for the role of training in the organizations is ‘The systematic training model’. The systematic training model can be defined as “training undertaken on a planned basis as a result of applying a logical series of steps” (Sloman, 1999:45). The systematic model consists of four steps which are identification of training needs, development of training objectives and plans, implementation of planned training and evaluation of training (Appendix 2). The first stage involves identification of training needs which consider factors such as organizational needs and goals, need of trainers and learners. This then leads to the second stage in the model which is planning and designing of the training, that include the judgment of training pattern involved to deliver training. Third stage is the implementation of the decisions taken in the first and the second stages through active training sessions given to the learners. Final stage of this model is assessment and evaluation of the training given and the outcomes of training and these four stages of the systematic model is a continuous process.

Harrison (2009) suggested that the framework of systematic model was to make training methodology more reliable and scientific. The model represents a systematic successive cycle of well-designed training tasks. The model works and relies on tools like training needs analysis, objectives of training, learning strategies and training patterns, materials used for training, guidelines used by trainers and training evaluation instruments. According to Sloman (1999) systematic model has two main characteristics. Firstly the training is perceived as a set of sequential steps and secondly the identification of training needs can be introduced in to the training cycle at appropriate stage. The systematic training is very useful as it start and gets the trainers attention to act in a structured way and mainly emphasises on

the evaluation of the training activity and the benefits that it can bring to the other parts of the training cycle.

Harrison (2009) discussed that the main drawback of systematic training model is that it operates in a free standing closed system controlled by functional tasks. The task that operates in the training cycle takes place in predetermined sequence and requires the application of specialist expertise to ensure its success. In practice, events are not simple and training has to be carried out even in disorganised and complicated situations due to interaction of practical factors. She further suggested that even impeccable design and delivery of the systematic model can lead to failure if it does not give significant importance to the practical situations in the context. Its failure is mostly linked to lack of support from front line managers and learners.

6. Training Patterns:

According to Sloman (1999) design and delivery of the training is the essence of systematic training model. The choice of the training pattern through which training is delivered depends upon the organizations in order to complete the training cycle. Over a period of years different patterns of training are observed in the organizations which are group training, on-the-job training, coaching, mentoring and e-learning.

6.1 Off The Job Training:

According to CIPD Factsheet (2010) any type of learning carried out away from the place of work is known as off-the-job training. Off-the-job training can be done through various activities and exercises like conducting lectures in groups or outdoor activities. According to Sloman (1999) off-the-job training activities are mostly conducted when new employees are recruited. These activities mainly consist of lectures and group training sessions for a fixed number of days. Learning from these activities is measured at the end of the sessions before the employees start with their jobs.

6.2 Group/Lecture Training:

According to Blanchard and Thacker (2007) group or lecture training is one of the most frequently used and traditional pattern of training. This training pattern mostly includes lecture component and demonstrations. Lecture and demonstration however have same characteristics. Group training is always led by an instructor or trainer. Blanchard and Thacker (2007) further discussed that the trainer begins the training sessions by discussing the training objectives, the agenda for training and the process that will be used in the training sessions. Variations in the lecture format allow the sessions to be more or less formal or interactive. The trainee's role is to absorb the information given by the trainer in the form of lectures. The lectures however do not include any interaction between the two; but, adding discussions, questions and answers at the end of the sessions can make the sessions more interactive. Demonstration used in this method of training is based on visual display of how to do things or how do things work. The demonstration is most useful when training objectives are used to increase the knowledge and skills of the trainees. The demonstration provides each trainee with the resources (equipment and materials etc.) to do what is

demonstrated by the trainer. In this way the trainee is able to copy the demonstration process after watching the trainer.

Blanchard and Thacker (2007) suggested that lectures and demonstrations training (group training) patterns provide a high degree of trainer control over the training process. The material and demonstration covered in the training is predetermined by the trainer.

6.3 On-The-Job Training (OJT):

According to Broadwell (1986) cited in Jacobs (2003:14) on-the-job training (OJT) is “a process in which one person, most often the supervisor or lead person of a work area, passes job knowledge and skills to another person”. Sloman (1999) further discussed OJT as a training pattern used in the organizations for various purposes. OJT is majorly used when there is a need to move forward newly hired employees, for developing apprentices, making employees aware of new skills when there is a change in technology, equipment or methods if any. OJT is fundamental way of updating and upgrading the skills and attitudes of existing employees.

Blanchard and Thacker (2007) observed some loopholes in OJT pattern which were lack of preparation for the training sessions on the part of trainers, trainers agreed to train on ad hoc basis without pre determination of content or process, goals and objectives of the training were not developed, most of the times the chosen trainers lack the skills and ability to train but are technical experts within the area and most of the times formal training is not given to the trainers.

According to CIPD Factsheet (2008) the main advantages of OJT are quick deliveries of training with optimum use of materials available within the organization, live experience of situations occurring within the work place, immediate feedback from the trainer and integration of the trainee with the team already present within the organization.

Most commonly used methods for OJT are Coaching, Mentoring and Computer-Based Training (CBT). According to CIPD Annual Survey Report (2009) current changes in learning and training methods have been observed over the past three years. Introduction of new training programs by and for line managers have been observed as a current trend to explore areas like employee skills, technological management, economic influence and talent management of the employees. Rapid increase has been observed in development of new programs for line managers with methods like coaching, mentoring and CBT.

6.4 Coaching:

“Coaching is a process of providing one-on-one guidance and instruction to improve knowledge, skills and work performance.” (Blanchard and Thacker, 2007:248). Parsloe and Wray (2000:42) suggested a definition of coaching which says, “Coaching is a process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve.” According to Sloman (1999:150) coaching is “an intervention where one person assists another to achieve their potential over an extended period”. Coaching is a form of on the job development and similar to OJT. He further discussed that the process of coaching consists of direct

discussions and guided activities by a manager that help to solve problems or manage tasks more effectively. Feedback from these activities and exercises is given on the spot so that any suggestions can be put to use immediately. Coaching may also induce employees to have personal development and action plans. Coaching is mainly considered as a task-centric method of OJT.

According to Sweeney (2008) coaching is a two way relationship between a coach and a learner. According to Redshaw (2000) coaching is a broader concept as compared to training. He suggested that coaching is a pattern of training which needs a particular kind of environment and positive climate within the organization for it to work well. Controlling rules and directive management styles can demotivate rather than motivating the learner. Organizations need to develop the culture and climate that is suitable for coaching and also encourages coaching, driving their managers to act as coaches. Redshaw (2000) suggested that when things go wrong in the practice a greater importance should be placed on learning from mistakes rather than blaming the learners. This provides a bridge to build trust between coaches and learners, creating right kind of environment for coaching. Sweeney (2008) suggested that boosting the morale and motivating the learners play a major role in coaching hence, making learners feel the connection towards the organization.

According to Jarvis et al (2006) coaching by managers is popular practice in the service sector. It is an important activity because in the service sector the main requirement for the work to be done is the soft skills of the employees in order to develop a trust and rapport with the customers. They further discussed that one-to one personalised learning (coaching) from managers is an effective technique that can transfer skills and knowledge to team members. According to CIPD Annual Survey Report (2005), 88 per cent of 100 organizations surveyed are using coaching by managers and 74 per cent of organizations are planning to increase this practice.

According to Purcell et al (2003) and Lane et al (2000) cited in Jarvis et al (2006) there are a number of factors that can affect the learners performance at work. Jarvis et al (2006) also argued that in the practice of coaching by managers the main drawback is that managers struggle to give attention to the learners due to their other work commitments and pressures. They further argued that managers accept coaching as another responsibility apart from their job profile which is assigned to them; hence, sometimes managers hardly find time for this activity from their routine work duties. Due to the difference in the roles played in the organization, for some managers this ad hoc practice of coaching brings in issuesw like role ambiguity. According to CIPD Annual Survey Report (2006) 21 per cent of 100 organizations surveyed, stated their respondents said their line managers took serious responsibility towards coaching, 12 per cent said their managers took no responsibility and 21 per cent said that their managers took responsibility to some extent.

According to CIPD Annual Survey Report (2008) 71 per cent of 518 organization surveyed are using coaching as a learning and development tool. The other key findings from the survey were, 44 per cent of organizations are offering coaching to all employees, 39 per cent organizations are offering coaching to their directors and senior managers and 33 per cent

offering coaching to their line managers and supervisors.

6.5 Mentoring:

According to Sloman (1999:150) mentoring is “a process which helps a person handles significant transitions in responsibility or status.” Parsloe and Wray (2000:81) defined mentoring as “a process that supports and encourages learning to happen”. According to CIPD Factsheet (2010) mentoring is “a technique for allowing the transmission of knowledge, skills and experience in a supportive and challenging environment much like coaching”.

Blanchard and Thacker (2007) suggested mentoring is a form of coaching. In this form of training a relationship develops between a senior and junior employee. The process of mentoring delivers the organization’s goal and mission statements to the junior employees with a clear understanding of improving the employee’s fit within the organization. Mentoring focuses more on employee’s attitude development. This form of training is widely used at the management and the front level. They further discussed that in the mentoring process the responsibility of learning is taken by the individual who is involved in the process. The mentor explains the procedures and insights and makes the learner understand the responsibility towards the set objectives; development of strategies for learning and the evaluating outcomes. Thus this agreement between mentor and learner forms the strong bond between them.

According to Parsloe and Leedham (2009) there are three main types of mentor.

6.6 The Corporate Mentor:

The corporate mentor acts as a guide, counsellor and adviser to a junior employee at various stages of his career. In this type of mentoring, a mentor and learner develops a relationship and trust between them that guides the learner from training through formal development towards a senior management position. The main role of corporate mentor is to ensure smooth running and functioning of day to day working activities and relationships between the learner and the line manager and it should not be compromised by the mentor’s actions or activities. A corporate mentor is a sound support to the learner and not a trouble shooter. A corporate mentor always gives advice and guides the learner rather than giving sets of instructions.

6.6.1 The Qualification Mentor:

The qualification mentor is usually appointed by educational institutes and professional associations to guide the candidates through their program of study which leads them towards professional qualifications. The main role of qualification mentor is to encourage the learner to plan a formal evaluation. The qualification mentor reminds the learner to self-assess their performance at different stages. Mentors use reflective questions for the learners to analyse the causes of any barriers to their learning that occur in the programme that is undertaken.

6.6.2 The Community Mentor:

The community mentor acts as a friend and adviser to individuals in different situations

where the learner may be in potentially disserved position. Community mentors have an extended range of networks and relationships which support and encourage the learners towards learning new things. The primary objective of these relationships used by the mentor is to form a trust-worthy relationship with the learners usually to reduce isolation and to provide support where none currently exists.

Parsloe and Leedham (2009) said that many organizations are using all three types of mentoring. According to CIPD Annual Survey Report (2005) 72 per cent of 100 organizations surveyed are using mentoring.

6.7 The Coach-Mentoring Process Model:

A four stage coach-mentoring process model suggested by Parsloe and Wray (2000) and Parsloe and Leedham (2009) requires completion of each stage for the entire process to work successfully. Omission of any stage or concentration on just one stage may lead to chaos or poor results. Successful completion of every stage of the cycle is mandatory for achieving the desired results in the coach-mentoring process.

The first stage consists of analysing for awareness of the learner towards need for improvement of their performance or a change in the way of doing things. The coach-mentor helps the learner to develop this awareness, whereby he or she guides the learner towards achieving results through planned actions. Having clear understating between the two and deciding on learning style or preferences of the learner and the coach-mentor is very important at this stage. This speeds the process and avoids any obstacles in the learning process and achieves the desired results.

The second stage consists of planning for responsibility is an important stage from the learner's point of view. Where the learner under the coach-mentor prepares a personal development plan (PDP). PDP answers questions towards result to be achieved, process undertaken to achieve results, places where learning takes place, start and end period of the process and people involved in the process. It is advisable to review the PDP on regular basis during the process of coach-mentoring as it may become a part of performance management process.

Third stage of the coach-mentoring process is implementation of the plans, styles, techniques and skills used during the process. Coaches-mentors need to adapt to appropriate styles and techniques to the situation in which the learner operates, making it an easy learning process for the learner. Coaches-mentors and their learners have to provide a space for exploration of professional and personal learning to take place as and when the learners face their challenges.

The final stage of the coach-mentoring process is evaluating for success and learning that occurs during the first three stages. Evaluating the PDP allows the coaches-mentors and the learners to measure the development goals achieved towards the end of the coach-mentoring process. It also allows the coaches-mentors and the learners to review other aspects of the programme, example, cost-effectiveness, unexpected and intangible benefits received, learning outcome and scope for further improvement if any. If in this stage it is observed that

there is a scope for further improvement, then, the whole coach-mentoring process needs to be reviewed critically to start all over again, in order to achieve the desired results.

6.8 Computer-Based Training (CBT):

Bettis and Hitt (1995) cited in Harrison (2009) observed a push in the pattern and methods of training as a consequence of rapid change in technology in the past few decades. This change gave a new level to the intensity of knowledge with information, communication and computation rich applications within the organizations which enhanced the traditional factors of capital raw material and labour.

According to Blanchard and Thacker (2007:273) CBT can be defined as “any training that occurs through the use of computer”. This pattern is fairly new and different from traditional training because in this pattern of training face to face interaction with the trainer is not mandatory. In the era of globalisation, electronic technology and connectivity grew rapidly giving rise to computation and internet usage. Blanchard and Thacker (2007) observed that E-learning is often used as a synonym for CBT. In practice, e-learning is described as the delivery of training through an electronic media. According to CIPD Fact sheet (2009) e-learning is “learning that is delivered, enabled or mediated using electronic technology for the explicit purpose of training in organizations.” According to Horton (2000:2) CBT can be defined as “any purposeful, considered application of electronic technologies to the task of educating a fellow human being”.

Blanchard and Thacker (2007) discussed that internet and intranets are the most common ways adopted by many organizations for delivery of training. The training material is developed from the knowledge base created by subject matters and the content developed is then translated into some type of electronic format through the use to learning development tools. The training material is then delivered through e-learning systems such as LANs, CDs, intranets and internets making learning more interactive. CBT provides the good control of learning process because learner can pause, resume and go back through the training material. However, the main disadvantage of the WBT is that it does not provide the discussion that addresses learners concerns. According to Roffe (2004) CBT has made a major impact on the flexibility of training and learning process. CBT has merged employees in to networking and has given the ability to learners to participate in the online discussions. Blanchard and Thacker (2007) suggested that CBT can be blended with other training patterns to maximise learning. According to CIPD Fact sheet (2009) the main benefit of CBT is that it is available in time and be used continuously for learning and reference and it also has ability to reach unlimited number of employees simultaneously.

According to CIPD (2005) current trends observed in different training patterns from the 100 organizations surveyed were, 90 per cent of organizations used off-the-job instructor led training method; 99 per cent organizations used on-the-job training, where 88 per cent organizations delivered coaching by managers and 72 percent used mentoring and buddying scheme. E-learning pattern of training was used by 54 per cent of organizations.

7. Organizational Relationships:

According to Koot et al (2003) the post-modern era of globalisation came along with many changes and revolution in organizations which also affected other core factors of the organizations like managers, employees, clients, suppliers and stake holders. This phenomenon added the aspect of complexity and uncertainty of relationships not only between different organizations but also the human capital within the organizations. According to Maffesoli (1999) cited in Koot et al (2003) this change was due to the interference of socio cultural element which increased individualisation and cultural diversity within the organizations. In order to deal with this phenomenon employers and managers turned towards strategies such as team working, networking, empowerment and self-steering to cope with conflicting and demanding responsibilities towards the organization. Organizational relationships came to limelight to bring about organizational binding and bonding among active human actors within the organizations which formed organizational networks by which they managed their relationships not only within the organization but also outside the organization.

According to Boessenkool et al (2003) cited in Koot et al (2003) people develop commitment and trust towards each other with interaction. The relationships that are produced within the organizations with these interactions have certain characteristics of their own. According to Wasserman and Faust (1994:20), “the collection of ties of a specific kind among members of a group is called a relation”. Heerikhuizen and Wilterdink (1993) cited in Koot et al (2003) observed four distant relationships within an organization. These different types of organizational relationships are economic, political, affective and cognitive relationships. These relationships express the way in which people within the organization communicate with each other and depend on one another.

7.1 Economic Relationships:

According to Boessenkool et al (2003) cited in Koot et al (2003:28) “Economic relationships originate from dependencies associated with the production and distribution of scarce goods”. Economic relationships are formed within the organizations in order to maximise the use of available sources. Employer’s interest to optimum use of its human capital, effective and efficient utilisation of available resources drives both parties (employer and employee) in developing economic relations.

7.2 Political Relationships

According to Boessenkool et al (2003) cited in Koot et al (2003:28) “Political relationships refers to those based on the compulsion which people can exert over others”. Mainly these political relationships are observed where hierarchy of positions is maintained in the organizations. These organizations observe a trend of widespread of control, power and pressure to be exerted over other employees. Thus, pressure from seniors or management creates political relationships within an organization. These relationships are formal in nature.

7.3 Affective Relationships

According to Boessenkool et al (2003) cited in Koot et al (2003:28) “Affective relationships relate to processes of identity and belonging, with all positive and negative feelings people have for one another”. An employee feels a part of the organization when he/she is committed and willing to contribute towards organizational performance. This makes the employee identify with others working within the organization making him feel a part of a larger collective group. These affective relationships within an organization make the organization more than just work organizations. The sense of belongingness towards colleagues takes formal work relations to another level. However, Guest (1987) cited in Koot et al (2003) referred to a phenomenon in affective relationships where an employee can identify with one or more organization (double identification), for example, with his work organization and trade union.

7.4 Cognitive Relationships:

According to Boessenkool et al (2003) cited in Koot et al (2003:29) “Cognitive relationships involve dependencies resulting from processes of acquiring and transferring knowledge”. With an increasing interest in new concepts like knowledge management and learning organizations since the 1990’s it has given rise to new form of organizational relationship which places emphasis on commitment towards an organization at a different level. These cognitive relationships develop with respect to organizational functions like training and development of individual employee or groups of employees and career development for hire high skilled and professional employees. Schomaker (1999) cited in Koot et al (2003) stated that even with the high degree of organizational commitments employees can still leave the organization for various reasons which are personal in nature or due to work/private life arrangements.

7.5 Model of working Relationships and Dimensions

A model of relationship formation was developed by Dwyer et al (1987) by studying social exchange and contract framework between business buyers and sellers. This model showed five stages of relationship, from relationship formation to development and ultimately to termination of the relationship. These stages were; awareness, exploration, expansion, commitment and dissolution. The duration of the stages and their extension depends on the parties involved.

Awareness is the very first stage where the formation of a new relationship begins. In this stage, both the parties begin to realize the potential, proximity and feasibility of a relation that can be developed among them. There may be very little or may not be any interaction between the two parties in this stage.

Exploration is the next stage in any relationship where the two concerned parties consider the possibility of exchange among them. In this stage of relationship formation both the parties consider and review obligations, responsibilities, and benefits from the relationship if any. According to Scanzoni (1979) cited in Dwyer et al (1987), this phase of exploration is dependent on the concept of five sub-processes, namely, attraction, communication and

bargaining, development and exercise of power, norm development and expectation development.

Expansion is the third stage of relationship formation and development process. This stage mentions the increase in benefits that are obtained from the relationships and also the interdependence of both the parties in a relationship. It is observed that in this phase the level and depth of dependency increases and varies from case to case.

Commitment is the next stage in a relationship where the two parties decide on an implicit or an explicit pledge towards the continuation of the relationship between them. According to Scanzoni (1979) cited in Dwyer et al (1987), the three measurable principles considered for commitment within a relationship are inputs, durability and consistency.

The fifth and final stage of the relationship phases is Dissolution. In this stage the two parties think about the possibilities of disengagement or withdrawal from the relationship. Termination of the relationship of the parties has always been significant throughout the formation of the relationship but it is in this stage that the decision is taken by both the parties either mutually or independently.

7.6 Actors and Relations

Wasserman and Faust (1994), defines actors as discrete individual, corporate, or collective social units. According to Knoke and Yang (2008), actors are individual persons, collective informal or formal groups and formal organizations. Examples of individual actors are corporate employees working in a team or staff, and example of collective actors is firms who are competing in an industry. Sometimes a network consists of mixed types of actors. Example of mixed actors are, an organizational field comprising of suppliers, producers and customers.

Knoke and Yang (2008:7) defines relation as, “a specific kind of contract, connection or tie between a pair of actors, or dyad”. A relation can be directive or nondirective in nature. Directed relation is a relation where one actor initiates set of instructions towards the second actor where the second actor is on the receiving end, for example, advising. Nondirected relation is a relation which occurs with mutual understanding, for example, conversing, friendship or kinship. There are many relationships that occur between various social actors. These relationships that determine a network structure are dependent on variety of factors. Depending on their effectiveness and effects on the nature of the network other components of a network are formed.

7.7 Social Networks:

Co-operation between human capitals is achieved through the social construction of groups (Somerville, 2000). According to Knoke and Yang (2008) the two most important elements of any social network are its actors and relations formed by the actors. The combination of both these elements constitutes towards building a social network and decides its strength and type. Actors within a social network can be an individual or a group of people. These groups may be formal or informal in nature. A network within an organization may have actors of mixed

types such as employees working within the organization, suppliers, customers who are an external extended part of an organization and governmental regulators. According to Wasserman and Faust (1994:20), “a social network consists of finite set or sets of actors and the relation or relations defined on them”

Relations within a network make comprise of various types, for example, directed, non-directed, advisory, formal, informal, supportive, and mutually effective. Interpersonal relations forms within an organization are due to various levels of interaction between people which may be advice, trust, friendliness, betrayal, confidence, understanding, discussions and other communicative activities that happen during day to day work.

According to Knoke and Yang (2008:8), “a social network is a structure composed of a set of actors, some of whose members are connected by a set of one or more relations”. Different types of relations determine different networks with peculiar characteristics, for example, friendship network form amongst a set of office employees is very different from a set of advice seeking network. All actors within a network do not necessarily have direct link to all members of the network. Occurrence of a few dyadic relations is also observed within the networks. Network analysis takes into consideration both the present and absent ties within a network.

According to Kilduff and Tsai (2003) networks within an organization do not exist only because of cognitions inside the minds of individuals and actors within the organization but it also depends upon interaction between the individuals and actors within the organization. Mehra et al (1998) cited in Kilduff and Tsai (2003) observed a likelihood of formation of networks among individuals who connected with each other due to distinctive attributes. Each network consists of individuals with different personality types; hence, the formation of the group is distinctively different from each other. Some networks are helpful in an organization to form healthy ties amongst employees; however, some are of less relevance to the organization or the employees.

A network also consists of sub-groups that exist within a network. These sub-groups are based on actors and their relationship and ties with each other.

7.8 Dyads, Triads and Cliques in Social Networks:

There are different relationships consisting of finite set/sets of actors that exist in a social network. According to Wasserman and Faust (1994) two main types of relations observed in a social network depending upon number of actors involved in a relation are dyad and triad. Kilduff and Tsai (2003) also suggested a type of relation that developed among the rest of the relations within a network as clique.

According to Wasserman and Faust (1994) a link or relationship between two actors at most basic level within a network is called a dyad. A two person group is usually known as dyad. A triad is relationships between three actors within a social network. Any link between these three actors whether direct, indirect, formal or informal is a part of the subset network. According to Holland and Leinhardt (1977), cited in Kilduff and Tsai (2003) triads are considered as the building blocks of any informal subset of groups that are formed within a

network. According to Kilduff and Tsai (2003), cliques are sub- groups where actors within a network who have no common links with each other, but do interact with one another.

7.9 One-Mode and Two-mode Networks

According to Wasserman and Faust (1994), there are various different categories of networks that have been studied so far. These types of networks that are formed depend upon the set of actors and the relationship ties between them. Nooy et al (2005), one or two mode networks can be decided by the vertex or vertices that join the vertex or vertices of other sub-groups. However, according to Wasserman and Faust (1994), three-mode or more than three mode networks can also be considered but there are not many social network systems where these higher mode complex networks exist.

8 Gaps in the Literature:

From the study of academic literature, it is clear that training patterns develops relationships between trainers and trainees. Social networking and relationships of employees exists in the organizations. But the gap between the literature of training and social networking lacks the evidence that different training patterns effects the relationships of employees within the organizations.

9. Conclusion:

The aim of the research was to study the effect of training patterns and to analyse the social relationships of the employees. Hence, different training patterns through Meta analysis were conducted to understand and explore the effects of training patterns on social relationships of employees and on the basis of this analysis following conclusions could be drawn.

Different training patterns do have an effect on the social relations of employees. There is diversity within different training patterns and training methods can be used in a mix method approach for training. The diversity in the training patterns has an effect on social relations of employees. Employees build social relations within the organization where unstructured training methods are practiced. Employees build relations in order to survive in the company. They tend to make advice relations to seek the advice from senior employees on how to do things, friendly relations to share the knowledge, to get the work done and to build a support system at the workplace. On the other hand the organization that provides structured training method helps employees in understanding their role and job responsibilities. In this situation employees tend to build social relations of friendship.

Since the research conducted was in a customer orientated industry, customer level relations are also formed but the organization support and culture is very important in order to achieve those relations. The support of the employees also helps in building customer level relations and social level relations among employees.

Hence, from the research it was concluded that unstructured training pattern encouraged the employees to have more of formal relations, where, advice and knowledge seeking networks were dominant over friendly networks and structured training pattern stimulated the employees to have more informal relations, where, friendly networks dominated the formal

advice seeking or knowledge sharing networks.

10 Recommendations:

According to Mangham (1995) Coral a betting organization operating in UK betting industry launched a program called “train the trainer”. The main aim of the program was to train the managers who provide training to the shop level staff. Secondary aim of the program was that the trained managers run further training programs in the shops. Training organizations can arrange for this type of program and off-the-job group training sessions can be given to the managers who give training to the new staff. From the group training the managers can interact with other managers, they can share knowledge and see each other as a source of knowledge. This type of program may give rise to network of trainers in the company. According to Williams (2000) networking between trainers is a long term strategy where trust and sincerity relationships are the main ingredients that flourish within the network. Subsequently, after the training, managers who work as trainers can apply the ‘Coach and Mentoring Process Model’ with a systematic approach that can be applied as observed in the literature review. This will in turn increase the trainer’s efficiency to give training where they will be benefited from the relationship formed with other trainers and with the new employees. The benefit can be knowledge and expertise which can help in their career development.

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