ENHANCING ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS THROUGH STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Nwokolo Ugochukwu Lucky¹, Dr. Adekemi Alagah², Prof. B. Chima Onuoha³

¹DBA Student University of Port Harcourt Business School, Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria ²Department of Management, University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Rivers State, Nigeria ³Department of Management, University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Rivers State, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

The study provides a holistic view of how staff development can affect organizational effectiveness. The specific objective is to determine the relationship between staff development and organizational effectiveness. Social exchange theory was adopted as the baseline theory for the study, while extant literature was reviewed to ascertain the relationship between the study variables. Findings revealed that employee development in the organization exerts a great influence on the operations of the organization, and as such organizational management should invest in employee development to stem employee turnover and improve productivity. The study further recommends that organizations should ensure their employees are given adequate support for development.

KEYWORDS: Staff Development, Mentoring, Organizational Effectiveness, Coaching, Training

INTRODUCTION

Organizational effectiveness is one of the most complex and least tackled problems in the study of social organizations. Many difficulties arise with attempts to define the concept of effectiveness adequately. Some stem from the association of the concept with the question of values (e.g., "management" versus "labor" orientations). Other problems arise when researchers choose a priori criteria of effectiveness that seem intuitively right, without trying systematically to place them within a consistent and broader framework. In effect, specific criteria that might be proper in one organization may be entirely inappropriate for other organizations. The question arises whether it is possible to develop a definition of effectiveness and to derive criteria that are applicable across organizations and can be meaningfully placed within a general conceptual framework. Other variables that have been used in various contexts as criteria of effectiveness include "morale," commitment to the organization, personnel turnover, absenteeism, and member satisfaction (Ulrich, Younger, Brockbank, & Ulrich, 2013).

Organizational effectiveness is the extent to which an organization as a social system, given certain resources and means, fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain upon its members. This conception of effectiveness subsumes the following general criteria: organizational productivity, organizational flexibility in the form of successful adjustment to internal organizational changes and successful adaptation to externally induced change; and, the absence of intraorganizational strain, tension, and or conflict between organizational subgroups, Wang (2001). The first relates to the movement of the organization toward its goals (locomotion); the others relate to the requirements of organizational survival in the face of external and internal variability, and the dimension of preservation (or incapacitation) of organizational means, (Liu, 2002).

As the business environment remains dynamic and organizations try to adjust to changes in the environment, the role of people who are considered the organization's most priced asset cannot be overemphasized given that their activities will to a great extent determine the level of success and organization achieves in the pursuit of goals and objectives. Staff development refers to the obtaining or transferring knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) process needed to carry out a specific activity or function; so, the benefits of training and development both for organization and individual are strategic and hence much wider. To meet the current and future challenges of organizations, training and development assume a wide range of learning actions, ranging from training the individual for their present tasks and knowledge sharing to improving the organization's horizon and customer service. Which focuses on their career development and enrichment, thus expanding individual, group, and organizational effectiveness (Niazi, 2011). Staff development strategies go



beyond training to include mentoring, coaching, job rotation, etc. skills gap analysis help organization catalog the skills and competence of their current employees and compare that with their needs.

Friedman (2012) identified that the most difficult asset which managers face in today's contemporary organization is employees. He sees the employees as those who have diverse views and aspirations in the organization and in the desire to achieve them, they form groups and teams which are not always formal (Handy, 2000). Stein (2012) opined that teams are developed out of groups that exist in the organization in an informal setting. In the quest of these groups to achieve their group aims and objectives, they are developed in teams which impact most times affect the organization's performance. Greatman (2013) identified that the teams provide strategies that enhance easy communication among their members and make them cohesive to the decisions of the organization which relatively affects the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization. Therefore, the main objective of this study is one-fold in determining the extent to which training and development opportunities affect organizational effectiveness.

1.2 Aim and Objectives of the Study

This work aims to establish the relationship between staff development strategies and organizational effectiveness and the specific objectives of the study are to:

- i. Investigate the relationship between mentoring and organizational effectiveness.
- ii. Examine the relationship between coaching and organizational effectiveness.
- iii. Examine the relationship between training and organizational effectiveness.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Staff Development Strategies

Staff development is defined as "a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, skill or behavior through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of the individuals and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organization" (Manpower Services Commission, 1981 in Wilson, 1999). Beardwell, Holden, and Claydon (2001) stated that training is a planned process that is used to change attitudes, knowledge, skills, and behavior through the learning experience to achieve effective performance in a specific activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work context, is to develop the abilities of individuals and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organization. This definition links the training and planning process with training as a planned operation aimed at modifying skills through the application of experience and education. Training is an ongoing planned process that replicates many of the stages involved in the task to achieve the intended benefit. Bratton and Gold (2007) define Human Resource (HR) planning as 'the process of systematically forecasting the future demand and supply for employees and deployment of their skills within the strategic objectives of the organization. According to Werner and DeSimone (2006), HR planning helps companies predict how changes in their strategy will affect their HR needs.

It's that section of human resource management that seeks change in direction of the current status of staff and the whole organization to support more growth and it's for general purpose (Anwar & Climis, 2017). Development theory deals with the issues happening now, the situations in this time, and to revise them in case there exists a defect, or there may not be any defect just to improve and support the staff working quality to reach the aimed goal as planned for, Or otherwise there may be a current problem detected during this development process, then efforts made to return them into a state of normality and even seeking better performance and involving series of new styles and changes so that be updated (Anwar & Qadir, 2017).

2.1.2 Mentoring

According to Marquardt and Loan (2006), mentoring can be defined as the "Off-line help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work, or thinking." Marquardt and Loan tried to explain the relationship as a kind of support provided by one person with the necessary expertise and knowledge to someone else who lacked it in through an individual link created through regular communications over a specified period. However, according to Megginson and Clutterbuck (2006), mentoring connections to recognition and development of chances for an individual can be long-term procedures in which the objectives might change but are always determined by the mentees. Mentoring definitions have been examined and debated by scholars (Allen & Eby, 2011). Mentoring can be a life-altering relationship primarily when directed toward professional development (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). Mentoring is often relevant 'when learners are making transitions at critical points in their lives, and mentoring may be associated with selection, career and personal development, career and private support, and change.



Many of the definitions in professional mentoring are due to the kind of professional mentoring applied at the academic level, including the process of helping the individual to make the right professional decision in the academic choice, and thus the profession appropriate to his preparations, abilities, tendencies, preparation, and enrollment. Both Weaver and Chelladurai (1999) defined Mentoring as a process in which an experienced professional plays the role of a mentor who provides support, assistance, and guidance to a less experienced person as a mentee, and steers their career progress and baths him. Pertin (2011) defined mentoring as the professional relationship in which a qualified individual (Mentor) assists another less experienced person called a mentee in developing challenging knowledge and skills which can promote personal and professional growth.

Similarly, Shula and Blanchard (2002) mentioned that mentoring involves supporting people in identifying and defining the needs of their development and setting their personal goals and objectives. Encouraging self-governing learners such as: allowing them to talk and raise their complexities, and challenging; helping them to reproduce their thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and beliefs, and to observe difficulties from various perspectives; encouraging and guiding them in independent solutions and analysis of their opportunities and problems, supporting the settlement of issues by embracing an integrated approach, and enabling them to become effectual in decision making. Mentoring is mainly selecting capabilities possessed by the employee as a whole, working on sponsorship, and directing the employee to the proper methods and tools to achieve their advantage of them. Therefore, mentoring is a long-term collaboration between the Mentor and mentee (The employee) relationship. Such mentoring relationships are important for the career success of an individual (Bower, 2006).

Bozeman & Feehey (2007) defined mentoring as a process for the informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and the psychosocial support perceived by the recipient as relevant to work, career, or professional development and entails informal communication, usually face-to-face and during a sustained period, between a person who is perceived to have greater relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentor) and a person who is perceived to have less (the mentee or protégé). The common element in these definitions is that mentoring is a process of transferring knowledge on a face-to-face basis from a senior, experienced person to another who does not possess the necessary knowledge and experience.

2.1.3 Coaching

Coaching has received attention as an organizational intervention in recent years. According to Bond and Seneque (2013), coaching offers a way to integrate individual, team, and organizational learning and change. To use coaching effectively, it has to be systematically conceived from the beginning. The heart of the coaching process involves the development of the individual and team's capacity to identify and find solutions to their problems in the context of the wider organizational objectives. Coaching targets high performance and improvement at work and usually focuses on specific skills and goals, although it may also have an impact on an Individual's attributes such as social interaction or confidence. To be successful, a Coach requires knowledge and understanding of the process as well as the variety of styles, skills, and techniques that are appropriate to the context in which the coaching takes place" (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2008).

On the other hand, Colomo and Casado (2006) define coaching as a guided, structured, and continuously monitored improvement process that brings a participant closer to the pre-established optimum performance level for one's current function in an organization. These authors essentially view coaching as a conversation between two parties a coach and a coachee in a productive, results-oriented context. Although different coaching definitions have been offered, there is some agreement regarding the core of coaching practices, and most definitions concur that coaching is a process that involves a series of one-to-one interactions between a manager and coachee (Bono, Purvanova, Owler & David, 2010). Alternatively, Feldman and Lankau (2005) argue that coaching relationships involve one-to-one counseling regarding work-related issues, use of 360-degree feedback, and propose improvements in the effectiveness of one's current position.

Additionally, Hannafey and Vitulano (2013) explain that coaching is a partnership between a management-level client and a coach hired by an organization to assist the employee in becoming a more effective and successful manager. It was also highlighted its usefulness in the socialization of employees by Saks and Gruman (2011). Thus, we can state that coaching is a process designed by an organization that involves parties a coach, and a coachee and that aims to correct performance work-related problems and to improve the coachee's skills and capabilities to assist in career development.

Coaching becomes most effective when the coach understands that his or her role is to help people to learn and individuals are motivated to learn. Employees should be aware that their present level of knowledge or skill or their behavior needs to be improved if they are going to perform their work satisfactorily. Individuals should be guided as to what to learn and also be given feedback on their performance Haslinda (2009). Haslinda (2009) defines coaching as "the art of facilitating the enhanced performance, learning and development of



others.' It takes the form of a personal (usually one-to-one) on-the-job approach to helping people develop their skills and levels of competence". According to Swapna, & Kumar (2020), "coaching is aimed at the rapid improvement of skills, behavior, and performance, usually for the present job". This puts a structured and purposeful dialogue at the heart of coaching. The coach uses feedback and brings an objective perspective.

2.1.4 Training

Training is the organized way in which organizations provide development and enhance the quality of new and existing employees. Training is viewed as a systematic approach to learning and development that improve individual, group, and organization (Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Khawaja & Nadeem 2013). It is the series of activities embarked upon by an organization that leads to knowledge or skills acquisition for growing purposes. Training is aimed at contributing to the well-being and performance of human capital, organizations, as well as society at large. Training serves as an act of intervention to improve the organization's goods and services quality and also improvements in the technical skills of employees. This method includes developing employee skills through a combination of lectures, hands-on exercises, videos, podcasts, simulations, and individual/group-based assignments. It includes both formal (classroom-based, instructor-led, eLearning courses) and informal (watching YouTube videos, reviewing educational blogs and posts on peer-group forums like LinkedIn or chat rooms, self-study) approaches to skills development.

Each option will be specific to an organization's needs, and the subject at hand. For example, hands-on, instructor-led training may be the best option to teach a detailed process or trade e.g., a complex manufacturing process or preparing a signature dish for a restaurant. These extremely specific tasks cannot be taught via YouTube or research, which may suffice for more general subjects such as building codes or IT support issues. Employees must actively undergo training (either paid for by themselves or by the organization) throughout their career to enhance skills they (in consultation with their managers/supervisors) deem necessary for the role they are performing. However, organizations must also actively support employee skills development for future roles/responsibilities that the company hopes to entrust these employees.

Training and Development are defined as the opportunities provided by the organization to advance an individual's carrier prospects, such as challenging assignments and being kept informed. Employee training is also likely to affect employee commitment capacity. Continuous professional development is particularly important to knowledge workers. Firms need to offer internal and external training opportunities to develop and nurture the required satisfaction and commitment of employees. Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, (2004) encouraged organizations to assist employees to develop their careers through activities that are beneficial for both employees and the organization. Training is increasingly recognized as an important aspect of best human resource management practices. Training is considered a different form of human capital invested for individual and organizational improvement. Organizations invest a large amount of their capital for training purposes and the development of their employees. It is worthy of probing whether the training is advantageous for the trainees, and to what degree can the process of training be enhanced.

2.1.5 Organizational Effectiveness

Organizational effectiveness remains a pre-eminent concept among management scholars and practitioners and this is traceable to the fact that it is a critical attribute of all organizations notwithstanding their type, size, and age. From the perspective of the practitioner, organizational effectiveness (OE) is a desirable organizational attribute that guarantees a firm's survival and continued support by stakeholders. Effective organizations are usually described as healthy, successful, productive, excellent, high-performance organizations, and full of vitality. Drucker (1977) defines effectiveness as doing the right things. Organizational effectiveness, according to Etzioni (1964) is the degree to which an organization realizes its goals. But Yuchtman and Seashore (1967) see it as the ability of the organization to exploit the environment in the acquisition of critical resources to sustain its functioning. On his part, Price (1968) defines OE as the degree of goal achievement. Such goals include profit, productivity, return on assets, sales growth, etc. Richard, Devinney, Yip, and Johnson (2009) argue that OE captures organizational performance plus the myriad internal performance outcomes normally associated with more efficient or effective operations and other external measures that relate to considerations that are broader than those simply associated with economic valuation (either by shareholders, managers or customers) such as corporate social responsibility. Similarly, Prince and Mihalicz (2019) observe that organizational effectiveness is far more than the ability of a company to make sales or to turn a profit; rather, it focuses on the overall effectiveness in these short-term areas, as well as sustainability, concern for the environment, corporate culture, talent management, leadership, innovation, strategy, engagement, and communication.



Organizational effectiveness is a well-known word used in the field of research and practice. Regarding the research line, this term is back to the time of industrialization and the age of scientific management. In olden times, organizational effectiveness was recognized as a tool to measure productivity and/or profits (Abdulla, Toycan, & Anwar, 2017). Explained that the structure of organizational effectiveness was used to explore the achievement of goals and was sometimes called organizational success and worth. A large number of research articles and publication books were written in the 1960s through the 1980s, but fewer articles were written during the 1990s. Despite that, Goodman, Atkin, and Schoorman (1983) developed and suggested large empirical studies as indicators in the area of like productivity and safety. The given suggestion and implementation for the organizational effectiveness terms were due to the lack of agreement on the definition, framework, or assessment method of organizational effectiveness between the researchers and Scientifics (Anwar & Balcioglu, 2016). The characteristics and properties of organizational effectiveness for different organizations, after the proposed development, become a matter of research among researchers (Hameed & Anwar, 2018). However, different studies have concentrated on the theoretical concepts of organizational effectiveness to investigate the capacity, frame, either multidimensionality of the definition (Anwar & Ghafoor, 2017).

Organizational effectiveness is a broader term encompassing multiple constituents for measuring organizational performance. Therefore, organizational effectiveness has been connoted as one aspect of organizational performance. Organizational effectiveness is a company's long-term ability to achieve consistently its strategic and operational goals. Lewin (2000) elaborated on the concept of Organizational effectiveness that OE is a phrase used almost exclusively by many scholars and one of the most widely researched issues since the early development of organizational theory. Despite some agreement, there is still a significant lack of conformity on the operationalization of this concept. OE has been defined as a practice of fulfilling objectives without devastating organizational means. Among researchers in management, OE is characterized as defining goals, relating resources, and determining if the goals were reached.

Yankey and McClellan, (2003) affirmed that the effectiveness of an organization is the extent to which an organization has achieved its stated goals accordingly and how well it performed in the process. Malik, Ghafoor, and Naseer, (2011) also disclosed that OE is an abridged concept and is practically not possible to measure. Instead of the organization measuring effectiveness, the organization determines proxy measures, which can be used to signify efficiency. However, Lewin (2000) further expanded the concept of organizational effectiveness as characteristics, processes, and inputs: effectiveness is considered a social construction based on the opinions of individuals or groups. Flowing from concerns that capabilities might be difficult to measure as they are mediated by different stakeholder perceptions, this approach examines OE as inputs and processes.

Organizational effectiveness points towards effective, prudent, and strategic use of all the organizational resources, namely, human, financial, and technological resources for creating competitive advantage. Organizational effectiveness also calls for creating sustainable growth and development by taking care of not only the shareholders' expectations but also the expectations of other stakeholders. It also means that management takes the right ethical decisions in the interest of all the stakeholders. Organizational effectiveness can further be defined as the efficiency with which an association can meet its objectives. This means an organization that produces the desired effect or an organization that is productive without waste. Organizational effectiveness is the capacity of an organization to produce the desired results with a minimum expenditure of energy, time, money, and human and material resources (Balduck, & Baleens, 2009). Understanding a company's level of organizational effectiveness is important for several reasons: it serves as a check-in to see how well systems alignments are meeting an initial vision, it provides investors, donors, or employees with an idea of the company's strengths, and it highlights areas of ineffectiveness that can be the focus of improvements. In many cases, a business's success or failure cannot be measured by financial performance alone, this is because even a company that is currently making a profit may be ineffective if it is failing to meet the core values of its mission statement, attract and retain talented workers, and plan for the next generation of projects.

Organizational effectiveness challenges have been experienced as a result of organizations not shifting their mindsets for the inclusivity of new models available (Warren, 2016). With increased globalization, traditional organizational effectiveness definitions are falling short. The ambiguity of language caused by misinterpretation increases stakeholder confusion. For instance, one study asserted that organizations are effective when they reach a consensus on a set of goals, whereas others interpret the goal-based model as the ability of employees to achieve goals (Udayaadithya & Gurtoo, 2014).

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The baseline theory for this study is the social exchange theory (SET) which was introduced to the field of psychology by behavioral sociologist George C. Homans in 1958. This theory presents the idea that every



interpersonal interaction entails an exchange of goods, material or non-material (Homans 1958). To remain engaged in a relationship, the participant's behavior must be reinforced by getting the feeling of receiving at least the same amount of value as oneself is emitting in the relationship. In other words, the social exchange must result in a break-even between the costs and values of the participants to be sustained. Despite the cruciality of reaching balance in social exchange, Homans (1958) points out that each actor always strives to maximize their own (social) profit from the interaction.

Exchange theorists advance a basic image of social structure as a configuration of social relations among actors (both individual and corporate), where the relations involve the exchange of valued items (which can be material, informational, symbolic, etc). Exchange theory increasingly has involved explicit consideration of social structure, as both product and constraint, typically in the form of networks of social relations. We will comment on the similarities and differences in the perspectives on the social structure of three of the principal exchange theorists in historical progression.

Social exchange theory is a broad conceptual paradigm that spans several social scientific disciplines, such as management, social psychology, and anthropology. Despite its name, it is not a single theory but is better understood as a family of conceptual models (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The social exchange process begins when an organizational actor or perpetrator, usually a supervisor or coworker, treats a target individual positively or negatively (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004; McLeanParks, 1997).

The strive for creating balance in social exchange, whether it is done consciously or not, is centered around the concept of reciprocity. Reciprocity refers to the expectation that people will help those who have helped them. In other words, we invest in others and expect dividends (Myers, Abell & Sani 2014). In the process of evaluating the reciprocity of interpersonal relationships, people have certain standards by which their evaluation of social costs and rewards is influenced. One way of evaluating is through comparison level, meaning the level of expectations about what individuals believe they deserve or expect to get out of a relationship. Someone with a high level of comparison expects much from their interactions (Gilovich, Keltner, Chen & Nisbett 2016).

Social Exchange Theory explains the four main constituents of the social behavior of individuals. First, the framework defines reinforcement tools –i.e., the rewards/benefits and resources of exchange - underpinning individuals' motivation to engage in social interaction. A reward is an outcome of relations having a positive connotation, while a resource is an attribute giving a person a capability to enable the reward, stimulating people to embark on exchange relations (Emerson, 1976).

The second dimension of resources refers to concreteness, which is the degree of the resource's tangibility. The resources which have low concrete value could be regarded as symbolic and have more value to receiving parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Overall, resources enable two types of rewards: socioemotional and economic benefits. The socio-emotional benefits result from situations when acquired resources increase self-esteem and tackle social needs, while the economic benefits address financial needs (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). To understand a user's perception, it is important to understand differences among people, in terms of exchange orientation, the differences in the comparison of costs and rewards over time, and the difference in contexts (Varey, 2015).

Third, social exchange relations are stimulated by social structures and social capital factors (Blau, 2017; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The dependence on social structures reflects the contingency of the outcome of interactions on the initial relationship between the parties (Blau, 2017; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Social capital represents different forms of social entities, including norms, rules, information channels, expectations, and obligations. These entities are embedded in the structures of social organizations. Social capital can not only facilitate but also restrict the development of social relations and their outcomes (Wasko & Faraj, 2005). The outcomes may include power and equity distribution within social networks.

The fourth mechanism underpinning social exchange is reciprocity, which creates obligations between the parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976). The explanation of the role of reciprocity in social exchange and interdependence between social actors stems from research on experimental economics and evolutionary psychology, postulating that humans are evolutionarily predisposed to behave in such a way as to ensure reciprocation (Thibaut & Kelley, 2017).

Given the above, the process of social exchange can be initiated from the positive or negative treatment of the target of exchange (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Positive action is rewarding for the target and can represent the provision of support, high-quality service, or goods (Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen, 2009; Cropanzano, 2003). A negative action can represent the sacrifices that the target bears, such as abuse, selfishness, or bullying (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, et al., 2009; Rayner & Keashly, 2005). Thus, this theory is relevant for choosing staff development strategies and the theory also helps in managing expectations concerning employee performance and organizational effectiveness.



2.3 Relationship between Staff Development and Organizational Effectiveness

Nneji and Asikhia, (2021) examined the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. The objective is to determine the influence of organizational culture on organizational performance by focusing on Schein's theory of organizational culture, Denison's organizational culture model, and the theory of organizational excellence by Thomas Peters and Robert Waterman. The review concludes that organizations' employees have spelled out work ethics, are like-minded, and hold similar beliefs and values, guided by values of consistency, adaptability, and effective communication system gives employees a sense of identity which increases their commitment to work and ultimately leads to better performance.

Edeh and Chibundu, (2019) examined the association between employee training and organizational performance of deposit money banks in Abia State, Nigeria. A cross-sectional research survey was employed and the target population comprised all deposit money banks in Abia State, Nigeria. 40 top-level managers were surveyed and a sample size of 36 was ascertained using Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (rho) serves as a statistical tool with the aid of a statistical package for social sciences (SPSS, 20.0). The study found that employee training has a positive significant relationship with organizational performance. It concluded that employee training that is measured in terms of on-the-job training and off-thejob training promotes the organizational performance of deposit money banks.

Janes, (2018) analyze the impact of employee training on the performance of drilling companies in Geita, Shinyanga, and Mara Regions in Tanzania and provides concrete evidence on the contribution of employee training to the performance of drilling companies. The study comprised a sample size of 219 respondents selected using purposive and simple random sampling techniques. Data collection was done through the questionnaire administered to the respondents. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and results were presented using tables. The study results found that employee training has a significant effect on the performance of drilling companies.

Saloni, (2017) studied Employee Engagement as becoming an area of emergent concern in the literature, the purpose of the study is to have a deep analysis of the relationship between Employee Engagement and Organizational Performance and its outcomes. A quantitative approach was used. Data for this study were collected from private banks via a questionnaire. Participants were selected by a convenient sampling method and in total 150 respondents completed the questionnaire. The results were in a positive direction and fulfilled the study aims of the current study.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The existence of an interaction between staff development strategies and organizational effectiveness implies that staff development strategies play a key and integral role in driving required effectiveness outcomes. The findings show that dimensions such as mentoring, coaching, and training play key and positive roles in advancing the success of the organization. The position of the study also identifies organizational culture as necessitating the required organizational forms and relationships which help build and lead to enhanced organizational effectiveness features such as organizational growth, competitiveness, adaptability, and productivity. Drawing from the evidence presented, it is concluded that staff development strategies such as mentoring, coaching, and training, are critical to the operational wellbeing of the organization and contribute to its overall effectiveness, thus we recommend that:

- the choice and related actions concerned with mentoring within the organization should be such that anchors on strengthening the bonds between the management or supervisors and the employees within the workplace.
- ii. the assigning of workplace coaches should anchor on existing levels of rapport and trust between the worker and the supervisor.

REFERENCES

- 1. Abdullah, M. S., Toycan, M., & Anwar, K. (2017). The cost readiness of implementing e-learning. Custos E-Agronegocio on Line, 13(2), 156-175.
- Allen & Eby, 2011
- Anwar, K., & Balcioglu, H. (2016). The relationship between transformational leadership characteristics and effectiveness: A case study of construction companies in Erbil. International Journal of Science Technology and Management, 5(2), 250-256.
- Anwar, K., & Climis, R. (2017). Analyzing the relationship between types of advertisement and customer choice: a study of retailer stores in Erbil. The International Journal of Accounting and Business Society, 25(2), 43-52.
- Anwar, K., & Ghafoor, C. (2017). Knowledge management and organizational performance: A study of private universities in Kurdistan. International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies, 4(2), 53.



- Balduck, A.L., & Baleens, T. (2009). A two-level competing values approach to measure nonprofit organizational effectiveness. Ghent University, Vlerick Leuven Gent Management School. Working paper, 1-30.
- 7. Beardwell, I., Holden, L., & Claydon, T. (2004). Human resource management: A contemporary approach. Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Blau, P. (2017). Exchange and Power in Social Life.
- Bono, J., Purvanova, R.K., Owler, A.J., & David, B. (2009). A survey of executive coaching practices. Personnel Psychology, 62(2): 361-404.
- 10. Bratton, J., & Gold, J., (2007) "Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice," 4th Edition, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke.
- 11. Colomo, R., & Casado, C. (2006). Mentoring y Coaching. It's perspective. Journal of Technology Management and Innovation, 3: 131-139.
- Cropanzano, R. & Mitchell, M.S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review. Journal of Management, 316, 874-900
- 13. Cropanzano, R. (2003). The Structure of Effect: Reconsidering the Relationship Between Negative and Positive Affectivity. Journal of Management, 296, 831-857.
- 14. Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E.L., Daniels, S.R. & Hall, A.V. (2017). Social Exchange Theory: A Critical Review with Theoretical Remedies. Academy of Management Annals, 111, 479-516.
- 15. Drucker, P. F. (1977). People and performance: The best of Peter Drucker on management. New York: Harper's College Press.
- 16. Edeh, F., & Chibundu, N. (2019). Employee Training and Organizational Performance of Selected Deposit Money Banks in Abia State, Nigeria. International Journal of Management Science, 6(2), 1-13
- 17. Eisenberger, R., Lynch, P., Aselage, J., & Rohdieck, S. 2004. Who takes the most revenge? Individual differences in negative reciprocity norm endorsement. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30: 787-799.
- Emerson, R.M. (1976). Social Exchange Theory. Annual Review of Sociology, 21, 335-362.
- 19. Etzioni, A. (1964) Modern Organizations. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
- 20. Feldman, D., & Lankau, M.J. (2005). Executive Coaching: A Review and Agenda for Future Research. Journal of Management, 31(6): 829-848
- 21. Fugate, M. Kinicki, A.J. & Ashforth, B.E. (2004). Employability: A Psycho-social construct. Its Dimensions and Application, Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 65: 14-38.
- 22. Gilovich, T., Keltner, D., Chen, S. & Nisbett, R. E. (2016). Social Psychology. 4th ed. New York: W.W. Norton &
- 23. Goldstein, I.L., & Ford, J.K. (2002). Training in Organizations. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. 4th ed.
- 24. Goodman, P. S., & Pennings, J. M. (1977). New perspectives on organizational effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.Bottom of Form
- 25. Hameed, A. A., & Anwar, K. (2018). Analyzing the Relationship between Intellectual Capital and Organizational Performance: A Study of Selected Private Banks in Kurdistan. International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies, 4(4), 39
- 26. Hamlin, R.G. & Ellinger, A.D. (2009), "Toward a profession of coaching? A definitional examination of 'coaching', 'organization development, and 'human resource development", International Journal of Evidence-Based Coaching and Mentoring, 7(1), 13-38
- 27. Hannafey, F.T., & Vitulano, L.A. (2013). Ethics and executive coaching: An Agency Theory Approach. Journal of Business Ethics, 115(3): 599-604
- 28. Haslinda, A. (2009). Evolving terms of human resource management and development. The journal of international social research, 2(9), 180-186.
- 29. Hezlett, S. A. (2005). Protégés' learning in mentoring relationships: A review of the literature and an exploratory case study. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 7(4), 505–526.
- 30. Homans, G. C. (1958). Social Behavior as Exchange. American Journal of Sociology, 63(6), pp. 597–606.
- 31. Janes O.S., (2018) Impact of Employee Training on Organizational Performance Case Study of Drilling Companies in Geita, Shinyanga, and Mara Regions in Tanzania. International Journal of Managerial Studies and Research (IJMSR) 6(1) 36-41.
- 32. Khawaja, A., & Nadeem, R., (2013). Training and Development Program and its Benefits to Employee and Organization: A Conceptual Study. European Journal of Business and Management. 5(2).
- 33. Lewin, J. (2000). Organizational effectiveness literature review. "Vernon Roche Hodgson, Inc Management Consultants Business Psychologists, News Line, Spring 2003, www.vrhconsulting.com.
- 34. Liu, M. C. (2002). Learning satisfaction and learning performance of Taipei Elementary School (Unpublished master's thesis). National Taiwan Taipei Normal University, Taiwan.
- 35. Malik, M., Ghafoor, M., & Naseer, S. (2011). Organizational Effectiveness: A case study of Telecommunication and Banking Sector of Pakitan. Journal of Psychology and Business, 2 (1): 37-48.
- 36. McLean P.J. (1997). The fourth arm of justice: The art and science of revenge. In R. J. Lewicki, R. J. Bies &B. H. Sheppard (Eds.), Research on negotiation in organizations, 6, 113-144. US: Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- 37. Myers, D. G., Abell, J. & Sani, F. (2014). Social Psychology. 2nd ed. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Niazi, A. S. (2011). Training and Development Strategy and Its Role in Organizational Performance. Journal of Public Administration and Governance, 1, 42-56.



EPRA International Journal of Socio-Economic and Environmental Outlook (SEEO) ISSN: 2348-4101

Volume: 9 | Issue: 10 | October 2022 | SJIF Impact Factor: 7.426 | Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra0314 | Peer-Reviewed Journal

- 39. Nneji, N., & Asikhia, O. (2021). Organizational Culture and Organizational Performance: A Review of Literature. 3. 361-372.
- 40. Pertin, R.D. (2011). Mentoring: A Business Strategy that Works. eBook: Rene D. Pertin Management Mentors Inc.
- 41. Price, J. H. (1968). Pollution, property & prices. Toronto: University of Toronto P.
- 42. Prince, P., & Mihalicz, D. (2019). Manager effectiveness, employee engagement, and client-based organizational outcomes in a mental health setting. Healthcare Management Forum. 32. 084047041881485. 10.1177/0840470418814854.
- 43. Rayner, C. & Keashly, L. (2005). Bullying at Work: A Perspective from Britain and North America. Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets., 271-296.
- 44. Richard, P. J., Devinney, T. M., Yip, G. S., & Johnson, G. (2009). Measuring Organizational Performance: Methodological BestPractice. Journal of Management, https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308330560
- 45. Riggle, R.J., Edmondson, D.R. & Hansen, J.D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. Journal of Business Research, 6210, 1027-1030
- 46. Saks, A.M., & Gruman, J.A. (2011). Organizational socialization and positive organizational behavior: Implications for theory, research, and practice. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences / Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration, 28: 14-26
- 47. Saloni, D. (2017). Impact of employee engagement on organizational performance: A study of select private sector Banks. International Journal of Commerce and Management Research. 2. (4), 33-47
- 48. Shore, L.M., Tetrick, L.E., Lynch, P. & Barksdale, K. (2006). Social and Economic Exchange: Construct Development and Validation. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 364, 837-867
- 49. Swapna, S., & Kumar, V. A. (2020). Impact Of Human Capital Management on Organizational Performance. Studies in Indian Place Names, 40(26), 227-234
- Tepper, B.J., Carr, J.C., Breaux, D.M., Geider, S., Hu, C. & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 1092, 156-167.
- 51. Thibaut, J.W. & Kelley, H.H. (2017). The Social Psychology of Groups.
- 52. Udayaadithya, A., & Gurtoo, A. (2014). Effectiveness of local governance: interactions between social capital and institutional structures. Asian Social Work and Policy Review, 8(1), 71–95.
- 53. Ulrich, D., Younger, J., Brockbank, W., & Ulrich, M. (2013). The State of the HR Profession. Human Resource Management. 52. 10.1002/hrm.21536.
- 54. Varey, R.J. (2015). Social Exchange (Theory). Wiley Encyclopedia of Management, 1-3.
- 55. Wang, C. H. (2001). Learning behavior, learning satisfaction and learning performance in Internet class (Unpublished master's thesis). Da-Ye University, Taiwan.
- 56. Warren, J.S. (2016). The case for trust as a soft or behavioral control for organizational effectiveness (OB). Academy of Business Research Journal, 2, 59. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/1863560945?pq-origsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true#
- 57. Wasko, & Faraj (2005). Why Should I Share? Examining Social Capital and Knowledge Contribution in Electronic Networks of Practice. MIS Quarterly, 291, 35.
- 58. Weaver, M.A., & Chelladurai, P. (1999). A mentoring model for management in sport and physical education. Quest, 51(1), 24-38.
- 59. Yankey, J., & McClellan, A. (2003). The nonprofit board's role in planning and evaluation. Book Seven of the Board Source Governance Series. Quoted in "Non-profit Organizational effectiveness", Kronkosky Charitable Foundation, Research Brief January 2007.
- 60. Friedman, W. C. (2012). Invited reaction: The influence of individual characteristics and the work environment on varying levels of training outcomes. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 12(1), 25-31.
- 61. Handy, M. (2000). Listen up, why good communication is good business. Wisconsin, Business Alumni update.
- 62. Stein, P, M. (2012). Exchange and power in social life: London, Transaction Publishers.
- 63. Greatman, M. J. (2013). Empowering teams: What, why, and how. Empowerment in Organizations, 3, (1) 13-25.