Glossary Terms

Training Terms

Coaching: A high-value management technique that allows manages to serve as a coach to others. This technique is often used for executives, new managers and leaders, and other professional who need assistance overcoming performance challenges (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Cognitive Task Analysis (CTA): Cognitive task analyses are methods for decomposing job and task performances into discrete, measurable units with special emphasis on eliciting mental processes and knowledge content. This type of analysis emphasizes HOW a task gets done (Kraiger, 2002, p. 83). The four steps of conducting this analysis include: planning the CTA, eliciting knowledge, representing knowledge, and applying the results.

Competencies: A set of clearly defined knowledge, skills, and abilities that are used to evaluate, assess, and develop employees. These competencies can be used to assess skills gaps, identify and prepare leaders, and develop competency-based learning programs (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Continuous Learning: Directed and long-term effort to learn, a desire to acquire knowledge and skill, participate in activities that facilitate learning, and apply what is learned from personal and organizational benefit (Kraiger, 2002, p. 55).

E-learning: Uses the web or company intranet to deliver instruction. It is a fairly new method that provides a good learning environment and facilitates knowledge sharing (Kraiger, 2002, p. 55).

Embedded Learning: Comprised of institutionalized processes that promote learning, such as management practices and regularly scheduled learning processes, which can help to develop a culture of learning within an organization (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Engagement: "The harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694).

Engagement Strategy: An organization's strategy for engaging critical talent and ensuring employees are engaged in meeting the organization's goals (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Gap Analysis: A process used by organizations to identify various performance gaps present in their organizations. This process seeks to assess these gaps to gather information about the cause of the gaps and the type of performance improvement programs that would be required to close the gaps (Clark & Estes, 2008, p. 41).

Intellectual capital: the cognitive knowledge, advanced skills, system understanding, and creativity, and self-motivated creativity (Kraiger, 2002, p. 55).

Knowledge & Skills Gap: This type of gap includes those deficiencies among organizations that are caused by a lack of knowledge or skill. Examples of factors that could cause this type of gap include a lack of proper training and insufficient information being shared about how to succeed (Clark & Estes, 2008, p. 58).

Motivation Gap: This type of gap includes those deficiencies among organizations that are caused by a lack of motivation. It is suggested that in order to close this gap, organizations need to eliminate unnecessary "demotivators" (i.e., threats of punishment) and replace them with positive motivational support elements (i.e., reinforcing behaviors); (Clark & Estes, 2008, p. 86).

Needs Analysis: Assesses the tasks, behaviors, and environment that are needed before conducting a training program. A needs analysis is an intervention that requires organizational support, an identification of goals, determination of the job and participants of interest, determination of relevant tasks and KSA's, and determination of KSA gaps as well as a plan to resolve these gaps (Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

Negative Transfer of Training: This is what occurs when a person actually performs worse than they would have performed as a result of the training (Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

Organizational Gap: This type of gap includes those deficiencies among organizations that are caused by a lack of efficient and effective organizational work processes and material resources. An example of barriers to work processes include inadequate and inefficient policies and processes among the organization (Clark & Estes, 2008, p. 107).

Transfer of Training: "the extent to which the trainee applies the knowledge and skills to the job and adapts or customizes what has been trained to meet the trainee's specific needs on the job" (Goldstein & Ford, 2002, p. 86).

Individual Trainee Characteristics
The following terms have been classified as characteristics that a trainee should bring along with them to be successful:

Career exploration: A person's self-assessment of strengths, weaknesses, values, interests, goals, or plans and search for information from peers, friends, managers, and family members (Kraiger, 2002, p. 67).

Job Involvement: The degree to which employees identify psychologically with their job and the importance of their work to their self-image (Kraiger, 2002, p. 67).

Organizational Commitment: A dedication to an organization that includes an affective component (belief in the organization's goals and values) and a behavioral component (willingness to make an effort for the organization) (Kraiger, 2002, p. 67).

Self-efficacy: Describes an individual's belief that he or she can successfully organize and perform courses of action to attain certain outcomes (Kraiger, 2002, p. 66).

Valence: Refers to the attractiveness of training outcomes. Trainees who value such outcomes related to increased job performance, feelings of accomplishment, and greater potential for promotion, show more training motivation (Kraiger, 2002, p. 67).

Theories of Motivation
Motivation: A construct that determines the direction, intensity, form, and duration of the work-related behavior (Pinder, 2008)

Motivational Theories: A system of ideas developed to explain employee motivation. These theories can be divided into 5 categories:

Behavioral Approaches to Motivation: This theory assumes that motivation is largely a function of the consequences of the behaviors of people.

Punishment: Any consequence to a behavior that seeks to reduce the probability of that behavior reoccurring (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Reinforcement: Any stimulus that increases the probability of a given behavior (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Self-Determination Theory: This theory of motivation assumes that human beings are motivated by the desire to develop their interests and skills to connect and contribute to other people and move toward their fullest potential (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Job-Based Theories of Motivation: These approaches to motivation propose that the key to understanding what motivates people lies in content of their jobs (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Job Characteristics Theory: This is the most influential job-based theory of motivation. This theory, developed by Hackman and Oldham, addresses the deficiencies of the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. According to this theory, there are various links between job characteristics and outcomes that come as a result of motivation. Those links include skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy and a referred to as the five core job dimensions (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Motivation-Hygiene Theory: The basic premise of this theory is that the primary source of motivation in the workplace is in the content of people's jobs. According to this theory, the work environment can be divided into two main categories: those aspects that are distinct from

the content of the employee's work, also known as hygiene factors, and those aspects that reside primarily in the content of a person's job, also known as motivators. This theory suggests that the presence of hygiene factors impact negative feelings of satisfaction. Pay, for example is considered to be a hygiene factor. The presence of pay does not necessarily lead to feelings of satisfaction, but its presence can result in a person not feeling completely dissatisfied. The presence of motivator factors impact the positive feelings of satisfaction. The presence of motivators, such as level of autonomy, lead to increased levels of job satisfaction (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Need-Based Theories: These theories posits that the needs that individuals have, physical and psychological, drive their behavior (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) Theory: According to this theory, which came after Maslow's theory, says that there are primarily three basic needs people desire to satisfy, the need for existence, the need for relatedness, and the need for growth. This theory is also different from Maslow's because it does not require that the needs be fulfilled in a hierarchical fashion.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy: According to this theory, there are five basic needs people desire to satisfy, physiological needs, safety needs, love and belonging needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. The first two needs constitute physical needs, and the last three constitute psychological needs. This theory requires that the needs be fulfilled in a hierarchical fashion.

Need for Achievement Theory: This theory focuses specifically on the need to achieve and distinguishes characteristics of persons who have this need. People who have a high need for achievement tend to have a strong desire for feedback, a tendency to become absorbed in their work, and engage in tasks that have moderate levels of risk (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Cognitive Theories of Motivation: These theories emphasize the cognitive processes underlying motivation among individuals.

Equity Theory: Equity theory underlines the idea that human beings view social interactions much like they view economic transactions. This theory focuses on how people view the fairness of the social exchanges that they experience (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Expectancy Theory: This theory examines motivation by exploring the characteristics of people that allows them to anticipate the future and adapt their behavior accordingly. According to this theory, employees will direct effort toward action when there is a high probability that they will actually be able to perform the behavior if they try, their actions will lead to a desired outcome, and the outcome of their behavior will produce results that they value.

Goal-Setting Theory: This theory asserts that behaviors are motivated and regulated by the goals and aspirations people set for themselves. Goals are said to have motivational value

because they direct our attention and focus our efforts in a direction, helps us maintain task persistence, and facilitate the development of task strategies (Jex & Britt, 2014).

Leadership Theories According to Jex and Britt
Charismatic and Transformational Leadership: This theory states that there are certain leadership traits and behaviors that serve as an inspiration and influence subordinates to excel above their typical performance level (p. 392).

Contingency Approach to Leadership: An approach to leadership that emphasizes that the characteristics of the situation influences leader behavior, trait and effectiveness (p. 379).

Fielders Contingency Theory: A contingency approach to leadership that states that situation favorability depends upon the leader member roles, task structure, and leader position of power, which works in tandem with leader orientation (task or relationship oriented) to determine leader success (p. 380-382).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory: A leadership theory that emphasizes the two-way social exchange between leaders and their subordinates in which the nature of the relationship determines subordinate responsibilities and their access to resources (p. 389 – 390).

Path Goal Theory: A leadership theory in which the leader's main role is to help subordinates work towards success by adapting their leadership style to that of their employees in any given organizational situation (p. 385).

Transactional Leadership: A leadership theory that relies on the traditional behavior principles of punishment and reward in relation to organizational rules, to emphasize the leader's expectation for the employee (p. 392).

Miscellaneous
Bench Strength Assessment: A type of aggregate skills-gap analysis in which an organization assess internal talent readiness, which is measured by collective competence for a certain skill set, as well as the number of employees deemed ready to replace a specific role, or meet the talent requirements for a business initiative (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Balanced Scorecard: A process that establishes a "strategy-focused organization," where targets for each operational process and support unit are measurably established. This process breaks business strategy into four different levels of goals, which include: financial, customer, process, and people (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Development Plan: A set of activities, goals, and objectives that are created to assist emplyees improve their performance and career mobility. This plan usually consists of a training schedule and development activities mean to assist employees reach their goals (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

High Potential Employee (HiPo): An employee who has been identified as having the potential, ability, and aspiration for successive leadership positions within the company (Source: http://www.bersin.com/Lexicon/).

Special Interest Group (SIG) - A group that comes together on an "as need basis" to complete a project or solve a problem within an organization (Source: http://www.hram.org/get-involved/special-interest-groups/).

User Group: A group of people that use a common product or service, commonly used to reference products related to computers and other technologically advanced appliances (Source: https://www.collinsdictionary.com/us/dictionary/english/user-group).

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