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Learning, Education and Development in Comparative Human Resources Management

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Abstract
Recognizing the phenomenon of learning represents the recognition of all changes appearing as the result of learning. To understand better the way in which people learn, we have to get to the heart of the foundation of our (human) development. Learning is the result, i.e. creation of our mind where numerous invisible processes are developing, and it makes researching the problem difficult. The "capacity" of learning greatly differs from person to person. Besides, there are substantial differences in learning style and personal creativity. (Mullins, 2002, p.354) Eight eminent authors have published their joint opinion on the nature of learning, benefit. They have also given their recommendations regarding the application of different techniques for the result to be optimal. We select some thoughts from the works of these authors: Learning is the central resource in the 21st century; Learning is the strongest, most responsible and most pleasant experience that an individual or group can live. The capability to learn more about learning and become the master of learning is the main challenge of this century. According to their claims, it would be irresponsible to treat learning as one of the many automatic human processes. In their opinion, some individuals, often without special plans, without planning and organizing learning activities, simply approach learning as a chance in life, i.e. as changing the quality of life. In contemporary conditions, characterised by strengthening and global economic competition, faster and shorter economic changes, as well as shorter time of activities in relation to the lifespan, the "normal" growth of unemployment, structural unemployment – all of these point to the conclusion that the classic way of education is not enough for managing the cited tensions.

Keywords
education, learning, knowledge, resource, training, career.

Introduction

In the past, organizations used to support stability and predictability in all fields, including the field of learning, too. Managers were satisfied by such an organization of production where a senior, "experienced" worker possessed the necessary know-how and had the task to help all others with advice. This great knowledge was accumulated during the working time in the "head" of only one worker, who, in this way, became the most experienced and wisest worker. There were no formally organized databases, and exchange of information with workers was superficial. Such a volume of accumulated and inexpressible knowledge could not be easily transferred to the young generations, and represented a significant element of organizational culture and the process of socialization. Besides representing an important source of information, mature workers, appeared to act as potential teachers, They were treated as mentors in the organization and were highly respected by younger workers.
Today, in contemporary conditions, the traditional approach is no longer maintainable for many reasons. Strategic reduction of the employees, i.e. redundancies, has a negative impact only on this

category of workers. Reduction in workforce harms, above all, the relationship between the employees. Besides, it ruins the powerful and significant reserve of knowledge and skills.

In the opinion of Nonaka (1991), companies can reach a significant competitive advantage if they are able to create new forms of knowledge. According to him, knowledge can be identified as one of the permanent competitive advantages of the company.

Kolb's learning cycle represents one alternative of learning theory, while Piaget's theory of cognitive development combines internal and external learning factors. Practice shows that companies have different approaches to knowledge management. The Business processes Resource Centre of Warwick University, cites four basic approaches to knowledge management appearing in organizational practice:

- companies that evaluate knowledge, for them, knowledge is intellectual capital;
- companies that intensively use intellectual property and have sectors for research and development, as well as the possibility to discover new, unconventional ways to use the current knowledge databases;
- companies that "do not forget" knowledge; new information, formed by realizing individual projects, is available to all workers and those not included in projects; and
- companies recognizing the importance of human resource management, recommend the need for experts, identify contemporary ways to manage them and support innovativeness and creativity.

Although the contemporary literature in the field of management supports the idea that organizations must become "learning organizations"; nevertheless, "knowledge management" hardly penetrates into organizations, as the task is not very simple. Knowledge develops with individuals, i.e. in organizations differently, in the form of processes that are very different and hard to understand. Even today, there is no consensus on how to form knowledge in a complex and unified science.

The question relating to integral parts of intellectual property is also extremely disputable. This subject has been in the focus of attention of many well-known universities researching the way to commercialize intellectual property and disseminate it widely.

Many contemporary terms used as elements of the approach to knowledge management trace their origin to the concept of learning organization.

The theoretical part is followed by three-year research organized by CRANET. This research was carried out in the period from 2005 to 2008 in 40 countries, and the data was received from employees in the private and social sectors. Data processing, however, has not been finished, so our comment is supported by (still unprocessed) data from 15 countries, as well as from our country. Comparing CRANET research in 2005 and the questionnaire for 2008, we have noticed that there is a substantial difference in the character of data in 2008, in the section TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE EMPLOYEES. First, we have more data from the questionnaire for 2008 and they can be used for serious analyses. Besides, a great number of methods is given for evaluating training efficiency (eight methods), and methods for carer development (14 methods). Most data are graphically presented, explained and analyzed.

1. Training and career development as the activity of human resource management

Related to thus formulated topic, there are many problems that are mutually interwoven. It is therefore difficult to assume an attitude about what precedes these activities and what can be qualified as the result, as well as capabilities exerting influence on the successfulness of these activities in the field of training and development. The result of learning is knowledge, while training includes such activities, which enable, facilitate and accelerate knowledge acquisition necessary for successful business activity. Intellectual capabilities are the basis of all these notions, and intelligence is inside them. Intellectual capital represents the sum of all knowledge of the employees and forms the basis of the competent advantage of the organization. The notion, related to all of the above, is the organization's participation, which is the result of developing individual and collective potentials.

We start from the broadest concepts, i.e. education and learning. Education means the dissemination of all cognitions, knowledge, skills and capabilities with which an individual is trained for independent decision-making and work in different situations. The levels of educational needs are arranged

according to the multi-level hierarchy. The first level includes the forms of education, which enable qualification for the work they currently do and with which they attain improvements of business performance. The second level enables knowledge acquisition and skills to attain horizontal mobility suitable for job enlargement. The third level involves developing individual career and prepares individuals for complex tasks connected with responsibility. The fourth level projects educational needs in the future.

Learning is knowledge and skill acquisition resulting in a relatively more permanent change of behaviour. The learning characteristic is the adoption of knowledge, skills and habits through education and practice, but we can conclude about learned knowledge based on behaviour change. We can draw a conclusion when the individual's behaviour or performance is changed (Bahtijarević-Šiber, 1999, p. 721).

Reynolds (as cited in Armstrong, 2007, p. 549) emphasizes that learning differs from training: "Learning is the process where an individual attains new knowledge and skills, and training is one of more possible answers which the organization can offer to advance learning".

"Learning is a permanent change in behaviour (or tendency) of a human as the result of his/her interaction with the environment. We learn by means of our senses, perception and experience. The result of learning becomes evident when the human start to behave in the new way" (Zimanji & Štangl Šušnjar, 2005, p. 105).

As we have already said, the process of learning is the change of individuals in the course of new activities. What is not obtained by biological inheritance is acquired by learning; it is the process that is necessary for a human to survive and the process responsible for developing a human being and forming his/her personality (Šušnjar, 1995, p. 164). We can talk about learning in case when an individual consciously reaches new knowledge, but it can be also considered as a spontaneous process – learning because of unintentional actions, when we reach and memorize information automatically.

Learning capability is determined by inborn capabilities, as well as experiences, attained in the process of socialization. Learning connects the world of individuals with the social environment and at the same time it is both individual and social.

The speed at which people learn can be measured by the learning curve. The learning process develops in several phases, the first of which represents the starting progress, which is frequently and relatively fast, because previously acquired knowledge is used. The second phase develops in the conditions of slow progress because it is necessary to connect the previously learned into new entities, while the third phase points to the repeated accelerated progress after the previously learned has been determined and mutually connected. The period of slow progress in learning represents the plateau or slowdown in learning. This is caused mostly by difficulties in transition to more complex activities, but sometimes it is because of weakening and losing interest for work and further learning. "Learning develops in the combination of two characteristics; it can be attained by learning from experience, being considered to be passive, but learning can mean the problem solving, considered as the active process. Learning rarely develops according to the one or the second process." (Torrington, Hall & Taylor, 2004, p. 423).

Further, learning can be classified as (a) motoric, sensorial or perceptive, verbal, and (b) unintentional, intentional, explicit, latent, conscious knowledge, automatic knowledge, objectivised knowledge and collective knowledge.

In researching the learning process, numerous theories have appeared. The most important development directions of behavioural theories are classical conditioning theories (connected with Pavlov's theories) and operant conditioning theories (connected with Skinner's theories) considering that operant behaviour is voluntary and learned behaviour, in contrast to the reflex, i.e. non-learned behaviour. Social learning theories represent further development of behavioural theories (connected with Miller and Dollard's social learning theories), who focused their research on the social learning, and imitation and simulation are the basic factors of this learning.

As these classical theories do not explain the process of complex learning, cognitive theories appear which interpret the reasons for differences in the way of learning from individual to individual. The most important representatives of the cognitive psychology school are Kholer, Tolman, Piaget, Davies and Kolb. Kolb's learning cycle states that it modifies depending on the characteristics of individuals,

i.e. the subjects of learning. Kolb identified four distinct learning styles (as cited in Zimanji & Štangl Šušnjar, 2005, p. 113):

- accommodating form, where impression and experience dominate;
- diverging form, where concrete experiences are preferred, considered from different standpoint;
- assimilating form (comparative form), ranging from reflexion and conceptualization, oriented to developing new theories; and
- converging form, which prefers new ideas and their testing in practice.

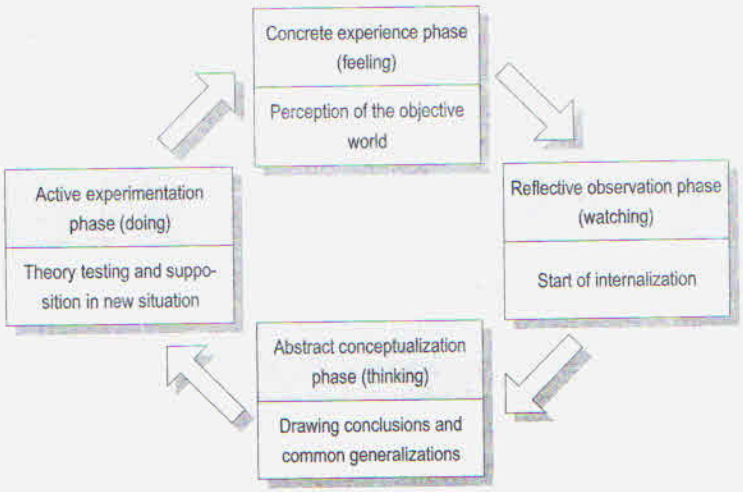

Figure 1 Kolb's learning style
Source: Adapted from Kolb Learning styles, 2006.

Learning effect is what we call the experience of an individual, i.e. the habit, skill and knowledge. Knowledge includes the adoption of symbolic material (forms) such as notions, facts, principles, laws and models of intellectual operations. We can acquire knowledge by adoption and retention of contents, as well as thinking by noticing, and discover substantial connections among different data. Therefore, the perceivable field is divided into knowledge and development of those skills enabling the application of this knowledge. The perceivable continuum starts from the categories relating to details, then more complex categories designating higher levels of abstraction and generalization. At the beginning of the continuum, there is (1) knowledge, the knowledge of details, then (2) ideas and understanding (capability to retell and interpret acquired knowledge. (3) Application comes after that (the use of abstraction in some determined and actual situations), followed by (4) analysis (the degree of knowledge enabling to disassemble the entity into pieces and determining the relationship among parts). The next step is synthesis (ability to compose the entity from elements, to make plans and programs and to formulate hypotheses based on given factors), and, finally (6) evaluation (relating to the capability to evaluate the value of adopted knowledge).

There are essential knowledge categorizations. Knowledge typology is interesting, which differentiates declarative (adopted) knowledge, procedural (dynamic) knowledge, causal, conditional and relational ones. Knowledge can be considered as individual and collective. In the opinion of Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995), the most significant division is into tacit and explicit (or formal) knowledge.

In knowledge acquisition, Nonaka (1991) differentiates between two cited ways, complementing each other, in the opinion of the author. He emphasizes that these components are basic for an individual, but the social interaction has a decisive role in knowledge development.

The critics of Nonaka's approach consider that tacit knowledge is a constituent element of knowledge, as knowledge acquisition (individual) is possible only if individual participates in the social practice. Further, Nonaka's approach is criticized because he considers that it is a special entity formed in the human mind independently from material factors (technology) that structuralizes the organization. For this criticism, it is necessary to avoid the sharp division of individuals and society, i.e. the community that is the social secession, from technology. Knowledge should be interpreted as an unbreakable part of learning and activity.

Developing this categorization of learning, Spender (2002) tries to divide knowledge types theoretically, and it will be suitable for establishing one dynamic and knowledge-based theory of organization. Spender (2002) differentiates four "ideal types": conscious knowledge; quite understandable automatic knowledge accepted in practice; objectivised knowledge, for which science provides examples; and collective knowledge, accepted in the process of socialization.

The sum of all that the employees in the organization know represents the simplest interpretation of the notion of intellectual capital. It includes knowledge, skills, information, intellectual property, technological knowledge, processes and many other things. Intellectual capital, according to one approach, is divided into human capital (all that an individual possesses – knowledge, skills, experience etc.) and structural capital. Structural capital is divided into organizational, which can be process capital (organizational strategies, organizational structure, organizational rules and procedures, and organizational culture) and innovative capital (patents, data and technology). The second subgroup of structural capital is consumer capital.

By means of this, we come to a very important notion, that is, innovation, which results in innovative capital and innovation organization. The result of innovation activity is such an organization, which permanently changes, renovates and restores, therefore qualified as innovative organization.

The question relating to the constituent elements of intellectual property is extremely controversial. This subject, which deals with researching the way to commercialize knowledge as intellectual property, has drawn the attention of many well-known universities, which deal with researching the way to commercialize knowledge as intellectual property. The idea, that universities should be the place of research and development, is a widespread opinion. However, at the same time, there is a problem of the ownership of ideas and invention, i.e. the copyright. While universities are interested in innovations to become available to the public, industry is interested in patenting and protecting inventions.

The problem of the financial value of an invention and innovation further complicates the situation, but we cannot forget the question of property and legal protection of intellectual property.

The new term knowledge management is completely in harmony with the opinion that new people are the fixed assets, the so-called human assets of the organization. It involves the protection of human experiences and wisdom, and supports the efforts of the organization to use available knowledge. Elements necessary for efficient knowledge management in the organization are: (1) paying attention to permanent learning, (2) combining knowledge and experience, (3) sharing current knowledge, cooperation and communication, (4) easy information availability, and (5) using and developing current knowledge. Many contemporary terms used, such as elements of approaching knowledge management come from the concept of participation of the organization.

Research in the field of organizational learning can be classified depending on its entirety (individual or organization) or depending on the research targets (descriptive or normative). Argyris & Schön (1978) developed the models of learning called the model of single-loop learning and the model of double-loop learning.

Learning according to single-loop learning model is the response to changes happening in internal and external organizational environments, i.e. such method for correcting faults with the aim to make and maintain stronger elements of the current systems of organizations. The double-loop learning model includes problem solving in accordance with current aims, norms, values, and at the end, in conditions of cognitive map of the organization serving as the basis.

The basic category of organizational learning is routine: it can be followed as the unity of accumulated "quantity" of capabilities, rules and time-established patterns of behaviour, which repeat always in the same form. These routines can become completely independent – be independent of participants of activity, taking into consideration that the organization can repeat routine activities even when its members are changed. In this way, routine becomes part of such phenomenon, which is called the "memory of the organization".

The routine performance of activities is done at the level of organization to the single-loop learning model with a view of attaining good performances, and members of the organization repeat the former forms of behaviour, sometimes modifying them according to acquired experiences.

The individual can have his/her own cognitive map, as well as the organization, and it is really the collective set of individual cognitive maps. The cognitive map has the similar role as organizational culture; it insures that the cognitive map of the organization in case of the change of its members is kept relatively unchanged.

In the process of learning according to the double-loop learning model, new, different innovative problem solutions appear at the individual level. These new solutions are incorporated in the cognitive organizational map in coded forms. The organization is considered ideal if it stays with the earlier set aims, norms, value systems, views of the world, i.e. its activity is not tied by old-fashioned rules, work methods and problem-solving schemes.

Organizational learning is such a process, which has two forms: use of old attitudes and already tested methods, i.e. discovering new possibilities. The goal of using old, tried-out methods is to improve and develop current organizational capabilities, technologies and paradigms. The result of this process is uncertain, far-fetched and, as a rule, negative. In the long run, this can be self-destructive. To provide the balance between these two forms is the basic question the organisation's survival.

The third level of learning or triple loop learning concentrates on the tenets and principles of the organization and poses the question if the suppositions and principles are appropriate. This level of learning is the most difficult to attain (Štangl Šušnjar & Zimanji, 2005, p. 197).

Graphically, these tree kinds of learning are illustrated in Fig. 2.

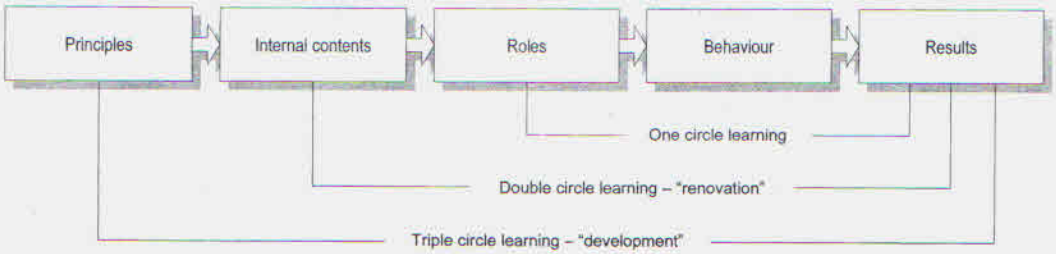

Figure 2 Organizational learning model according to the simple-loop, double-loop and triple-loop learning
Source: Authors.

Learning, therefore, has its traps. If the efficiency of experience from the near past fogs the possibility of learning in the further future, then the motivation of the organization to experiment radically with new technologies and paradigms falls.

Knowledge in the organizational culture is a critical factor, which points to the extent to which learning is evaluated in an organization. In some organizations, values such as confidence, openness and creativity are more supported, while in others, more attention is paid to communication system development and information networks. Selected strategy of human resource management and applied policy substantially limit the existence of favourable climate for learning.

2. Employee training and career development

Training is a learning process which includes skill acquisition, rule adoption and attitude formation. In general, training relates to planned attempts of companies to advance the process of acquisition of knowledge, skills and capabilities of the employees.

"Training generally means that any more or less organized program of practice of some physical or intellectual activity, i.e. physical or mental characteristics" (Bahtijarević-Šiber, 1999, p.721). "Training includes formal procedures which the company applies to enable learning so behaviour resulting from it can contribute to realize the company's goals" (Štangl Šušnjar & Zimanji, 2005, p. 241).

These definitions point to the fact that training is more than acquisition of knowledge, skills or capabilities. It means the process of changing behaviour and attitudes of the employees in a way which will contribute to attaining the goals of the organization.

Under the influence of changes in enterprises, differences between training and education increasingly disappear. Instead of simple training, which instructs workers how to work, organizations stimulate the employees to think, learn and develop permanently, supporting knowledge acquisition by educational processes.

Career involves employment, motion between jobs, positions, responsibility levels and challenges. Career can be considered as keeping one's position inside job. Career is also considered within the framework of mobility in the organization. Career can be further considered as a characteristic of the employee. Every career includes different jobs, positions and experience. The most adequate

consideration of the career means that it is "limitless", and can include motion through several jobs or even different professions.

In the traditional opinion, development and success in the career are defined as business success, which can be easily measured. Today, however, it is necessary to consider the new model, as career increasingly has a cyclical character, i.e. it includes periods of initial steps of becoming acquainted with skills, and transfer to new ones. Career development usually consists of lateral rather than vertical movement, and experience from various fields is necessary to acquire varied capabilities and permanent employment. Late careers are increasingly defined as the retirement phase. In these, contemporary conditions, the final goal is psychological success, feeling of pride and personal realization, which is the result of attaining the most important goals in the individual's life, regardless of whether it is success, family happiness, internal peace, or something else.

Experts have been engaged for years in determining the career phases and placing development tasks into broader phases of career development. Experts do not quite agree, if they agree at all, if career phases are connected with life or not. Most theoreticians set age frameworks for every age phase, which differ highly. Therefore, it is better to think about career phases in relation to time, which would enable the "career clock" to start from different points for different individuals, depending on their past and previous experience (Štangl Šušnjar & Zimanji, 2005, p. 262).

Such an approach accepts the existence of differences in the phases through which individuals can pass, then task overlapping and problems they can encounter in every phase, and the importance of transitional periods between the phases.

Many authors have tried to illustrate ideal phases of successful careers, connecting phases to age. Hall & Nougaim (1968) suggest five career phases, as well as Greenhaus & Callanan (1994).

This subject would remain incomplete if we did not point, even for short, to international aspects of training and career development. Intercultural training is much more than language learning; it should provide understanding the value of new culture, including details of its history, folklore, economy, policy, religion, social climate and business practices. To understand possible training diversities of managers engaged from abroad, Tung (1981) suggests a continual network of decision-making relating to the training level.

This model emphasizes two criteria for decision-making during training: (1) level of expected interaction between an individual and members of the host country and (2) similarities between the host culture and the source culture of individuals. The key questions Tung discusses are (Dowling, Festing & Engle, 2008, p.141.):

- If the expected interaction level between individual and the host country is low, and the level of dissimilarity between the source culture of individuals and members of the host country is low, then training should be oriented towards the tasks and goals, which are connected with assignments more than with goals connected with culture.
- If the expected interaction and dissimilarity between the individual and host culture was high, then training should focus on cross cultural skill development as a supplement to the new assignment.

Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou (1987) propose the Tung-oriented model and cite three dimensions: (1) training method, (2) training level, and (3) training length, which is connected with the level of interaction and similarities in culture. Therefore, for example, if the required level of interaction is low, and the degree of similarities between the source culture of individuals and the culture of the host country high, training length should last less than a week.

If the individual goes abroad as a representative for 2-12 months and if the expected level of interaction with the members of the host country is on average, then training level should be higher and training length about 1-4 weeks or more.

There is a different calculation: an individual goes to the new country of a different culture, and the level of interaction is high, the level of multicultural training should be high, and it should last about two months.

We shall continue with the cross-cultural training model of Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou (as cited in Dowling, Festing & Engle, 2008, p. 141-143).

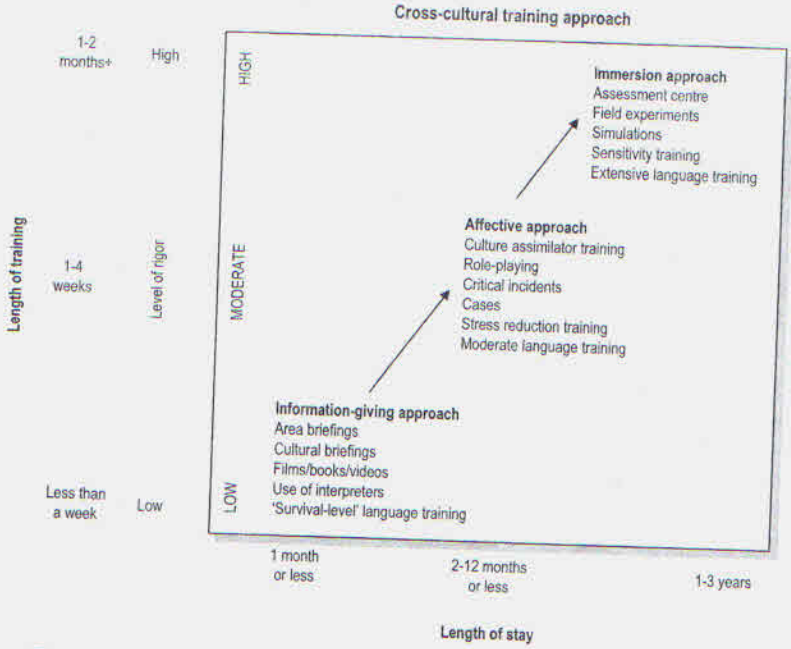

Figure 3 Cross-cultural training model of Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou
Source: Nelson Education, 2008.

One of the goals of management development programmes in the global environment is to develop management leadership taken as the global mindset. The global perspective means sensitivity to different cultures and their differences, work experience in many countries, knowledge of and readiness to look for consumers, financial resources and supplies, technology, innovation and employees all around the world.

Knowing how to live and work in foreign cultures is the essential capability of people with the global mindset. For the majority of people, mindset development is emotional education at the same time with intellectual one. This is the orientation in the world allowing individuals to see things, which other people do not perceive. The global mindset means perception capability of the world from the wide perspective, always looking for unexpected trends and possibilities, which can be threats or chances to reach personal, professional and organizational goals. Opinions on characteristics of those possessing the global mindset are very different; however, synthesis of these opinions enables to describe these characteristics.

3. Results of CRANET research of comparative human resource management for some countries of Europe and the world in 2008

Cranet research is based on questionnaires containing questions on human resource management policies in organisations or organisation segments such as departments, business units, departments and data collected on training and employee career development. The research was conducted in the public and private sector of forty countries. The present analysis includes data for fifteen characteristic countries in the period from 2005 to 2008.

The processed data and research results are placed and shown in the Appendix, Fig. 1 to 32. The section below is the summary of qualitative analysis.

3.1. Employee training

In most countries, training costs range from 2% (Czech Republic 2.04) to 5% (Slovakia 4.83). Two countries, Japan with 45.15% and Russia with 18.71% have a surprisingly high percentage of earmarked funds and it points to the determination of companies to advance the process of acquisition of knowledge, skills and other capabilities. (see Fig. 4 and 5 in the Appendix)

Concerning the average training length, (as shown Fig. 6, 7 and 9 in the Appendix), Japan and Russia provide the longest average training length. The average training length for physical labour in all the countries is exceptionally shorter (except Japan) comparing to other employee categories.

We shall continue the analysis by evaluating training efficiency dependent on the selected evaluation technique for the companies stating that they systematically evaluate training efficiency. The following techniques are offered:

1. Total number of days per year per employee.
2. Attaining training goals and carrying out staff development plan.
3. Evaluating student response immediately after the training.
4. Evaluating student response before and after the training.
5. Student performance measurement before and several months after the training.
6. Feedback from line managers.
7. Feedback from employees
8. Return on investment in employee training

Note: Reviews are given for some of the cited techniques[1].

By the method of goal attaining and staff development plan, we get answers which will serve as the result in education plan programmes. Training goals can relate to work performance increase, and they can be behavioural, where goals relate to observable and measurable actions or behaviour.

Staff development plan has the key role in realizing the total strategies and business plans of the organization. The planned goal of career development should: identify talents, employees with high development potentials and future management; improve job satisfaction and the identification with the organization, and, in general, develop a positive attitude with the employees. In career planning, greater emphasis is placed on organizational activities. When an individual considers options in career development, he/she takes into consideration those outside the organization, while the organization is oriented to employee retention and development within its own frameworks (Bahtijarević-Šiber & Sikavica, 2001, p. 833) (see Fig. 11).

Return on investment, i.e. determination of economic usefulness training program is the final step, i.e. the final component of training process. There are different kinds of economic training usefulness as, for instance, control of direct and indirect training costs, results attained, i.e. influence of training on work and performance. The need to evaluate the value of investments is often done based on profit, and it draws attention to the short-term thinking. Reasons to measure the influence and contribution of training are more operative than strategic in character. Data for evaluation is usually used as feedback to individuals about training, rather than for considering investment decisions (see Fig. 12).

3.2. Employee career development

Career development is evaluated by means of the following methods:

a. special tasks/projects for stimulating on-the-job learning/training
b. involvement in cross-organizational/cross-disciplinary/cross-functional tasks
c. participation in project team work
d. networking
e. formal career plans
f. development centres
g. succession plans
h. planned job rotation
i. 'high-flier' schemes
j. experience schemes (internal movement to other departments, whether within the same country or abroad)
k. secondment to other organisations (temporary external transfer to other organizations)
l. coaching

[1] Data for all techniques researched by the Questionnaire are given in the basic version of this report.

m. mentoring
n. computer-based packages / e-learning
o. other

All answers are evaluated to the five-degree scale from "not at all" (0) to "to a very great extent" (4).

Note: Review is given only for some of the cited techniques[2].

In development centres, strength and weaknesses of individuals are evaluated and feedback is given, as well as development plans, so that everybody can use their potential to the maximum (see Fig. 14).

A succession plan represents the method including plans for exchange of current employees in the key positions. As a rule, the purpose of using this method is to prepare the organization for unpredicted changes in the key positions, top and middle management. Succession plan includes the evaluation of knowledge, skills and capabilities of current executives and potential candidates for these positions in the future (see Fig. 15).

Employee exchange plan lists current employees in all positions, evaluates their performance and their readiness to advance. This technique enables experts to take care of identifying individual career development needs and integration of individual goals in accordance with the company's goals. The aim of this technique primarily involves providing competent executives in the future. Therefore, it relates to current knowledge and possibilities of exchange rather than development potentials and employee development programmes (see Fig. 16).

Coaching is a form of advising aimed to help in problem solving or developing personal potentials of individuals or teams. The coach is a competent communicator possessing techniques and skills necessary for recognizing capabilities and advancing employees' performances at all levels. Coaching is used (1) as support in managing functions, (2) in positioning and developing inside the firm, (3) as stimulus for personal development, (4) in time management and self-control, (5) in conflict management, (6) for team creation, etc. (see Fig. 17).

A mentor can be an individual's immediate superior, but he/she is often a superior manager from the same or any other organizational entity. The most usual advantages of mentoring are giving examples and advisory. Mentoring is mutually beneficial. Mentoring as the best method for converging managerial skills implies supervision and direction of senior managers. (Leković, 2006, p. 161) Mentors can profit from receiving recognition from associates and pleasure for working it. Disadvantages of mentoring come from risk of over-reliance on mentors and danger of acquiring bad habits. It is because of the fact that the trained person is deprived of other sources of expert opinions and the pro to the feeling of loss when the mentor goes away (see Fig. 18).

E-learning requires extensive investment in hardware and software and a lot of time for justifying. It is worthwhile in the long run, if fast and flexible training is provided (see Fig. 19).

4. Conclusion: Comparative data analysis obtained by research

At the end of our report, we are analyzing data obtained by the CRANET questionnaire, which will enable us to compare the past three years to the three-year period before that (2002-2005). This longitudinal research will answer the question of trend changes in the field of human resource management. The questionnaire is organized according to several fields:

Section I:	HRM activities in the organization
Section II:	Staffing practices
Section III:	Employee development
Section IV:	Compensation and benefits
Section V:	Employee relations and communication
Section VI:	Data on the organization

Section III is divided in two parts: (a) Employee training, and (b) Employee career development. We start our analysis by comparing data on labour share passing through the regular and formal evaluation system.

[2] Data for all techniques researched by the Questionnaire are given in the basic version of this report

Comparing data from 2005 to 2008, we can draw the conclusion that labour share passing through the regular and formal evaluation training system decreased in all observed countries. In some countries (Iceland and Denmark) this percentage was halved (see Fig. 22, 23 and 24).

Finally, we present the parallel review of cost share in the aggregate annual earnings (for research periods 2002-2005 and 2005-2008), as well as the number of training days in some employee categories (managers, expert and technical staff, administration, physical workers) for the cited two researching periods (see Fig. 28, 29, 30, 31 and 32).

Having compared these, we draw the following conclusions:

- The share of training costs taken together (annual earnings) in the period between 2002 and 2005 ranged from 2% (Iceland) to 4.04% (Sweden), while in the period between 2005 and 2008 it ranged from 2.04% to 45.15% (Japan).
- Considering the period between 2005 and 2008, we see that the share of training costs in the total (annual) earnings increased in most of these countries. Our country ranked the bottom of the range of 2.64%
- Comparing the number of training days according to some employee categories (managers, expert/technical staff, administration, physical workers), we can conclude that, with the exception of two countries (UK and Denmark), all the countries in the word provide the lowest number of days for employees training in the category of physical workers (2002-2005). The same conclusion applies to the period between 2005 and 2008, with the exception of Australia, Japan and Switzerland.
- Looking at the complete picture, we see that there is a significant correlation between costs and the number of training days. Of course, this conclusion is not valid for all the countries. There are, for instance, countries spending less on training, but they report more training days per year in all the categories of workers.
- Additionally, the connection between the number of training days and costs varies across employee categories. There are several examples (Denmark, Czech Republic, and Austria) where the tendencies of cost trends do not follow the trend of training days in the category of administration and physical workers (training costs decrease and the number of training days increases).
- For the methods used in evaluating training efficiency, we analysed only data for Serbia. We found out that from cited techniques, the companies in Serbia mostly prefer the informal feedback method of line managers (the share of organizations where evaluation is done by this method is 84.6%).
- From the 14 cited methods used in evaluating the efficiency of employee career development, where answers are evaluated according to the five-degree scale from zero (0) to a very high extent (4), the frequency of using the method for career development is the highest: special tasks/projects for learning stimulation, i.e. on-the-job training.

Note: Data for Serbia was collected by polling 50 companies.

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Appendix

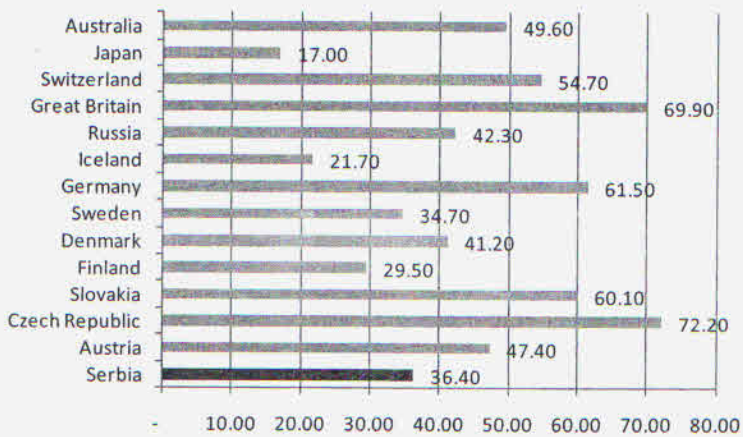

Figure 4 Share of organizations where systematic training evaluation was completed
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

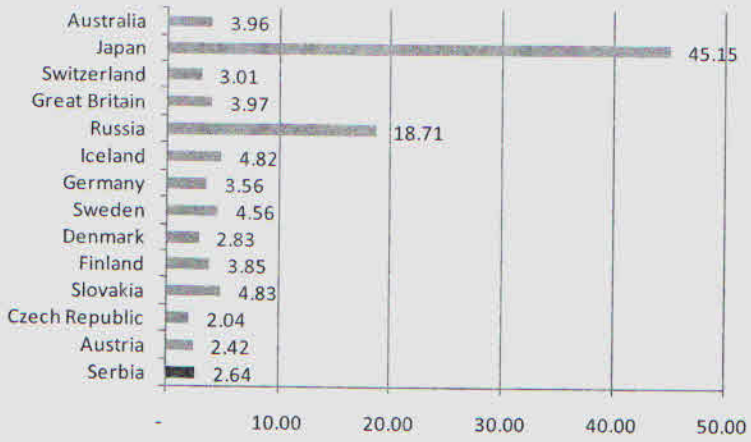

Figure 5 Share of training costs in aggregate annual costs of earning
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

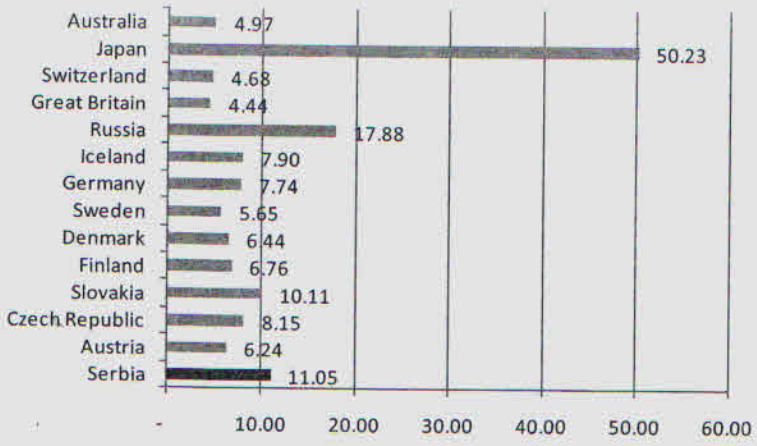

Figure 6 Average training length for managers per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

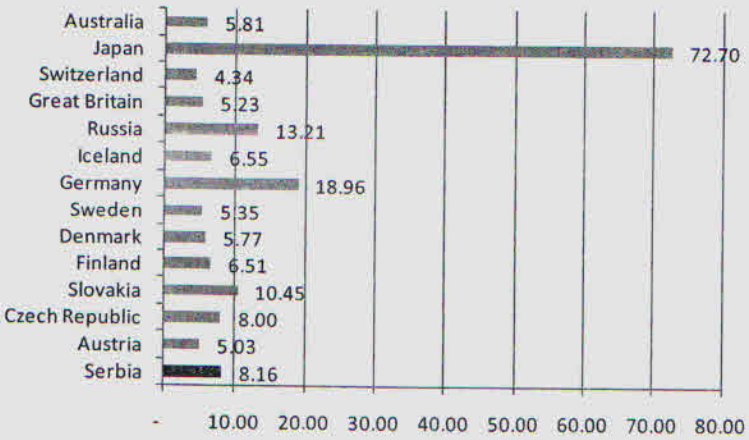

Figure 7 Average training length for skilled and technical staff per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

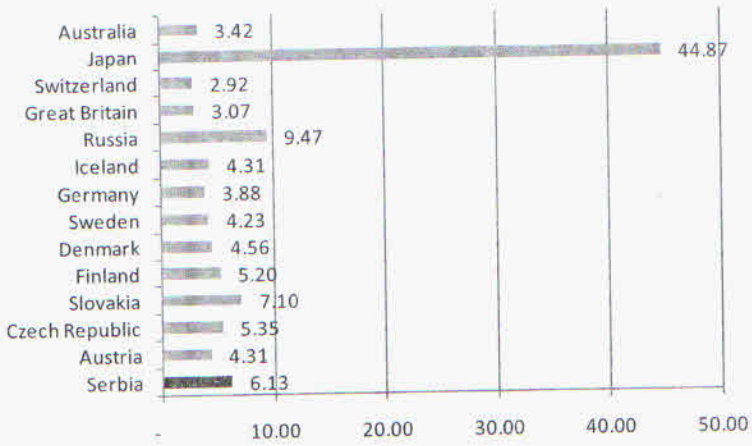

Figure 8 Average training length for administrative staff per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

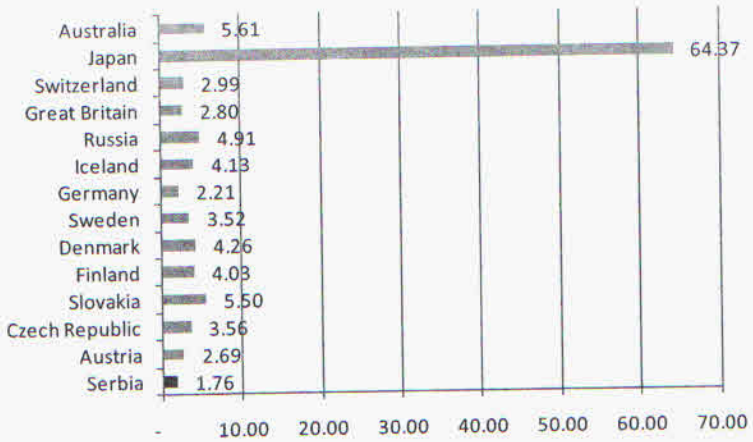

Figure 9 Average training lengths for physical labour per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

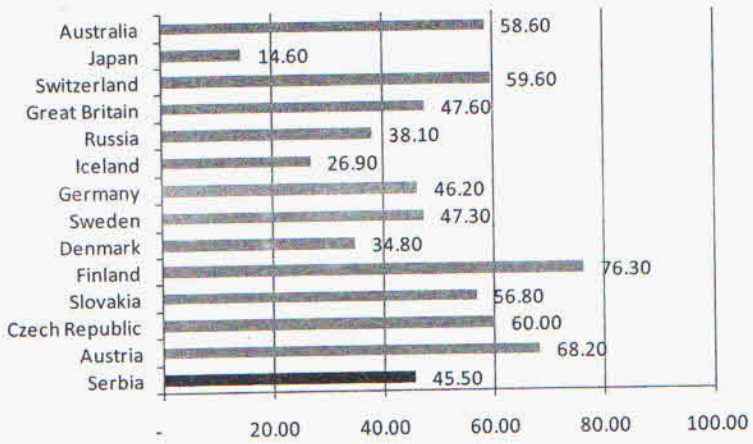

Figure 10 Share of organizations where training evaluation is done by the method of the total number of training days per employee
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

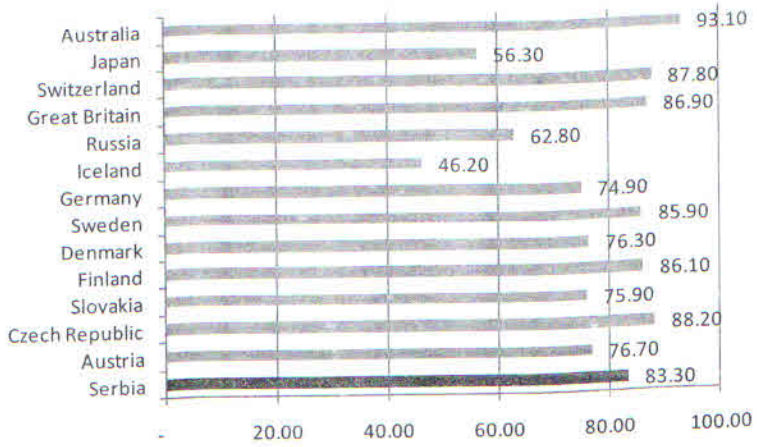

Figure 11 Share of organizations where training evaluation is done by the method of goal attaining and staff development plan
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

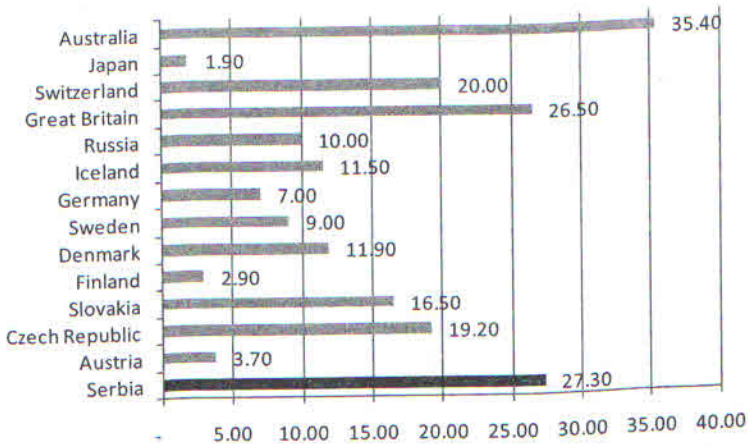

Figure 12 Share of organizations where training evaluation is done by the method of return on investment (RoI)
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

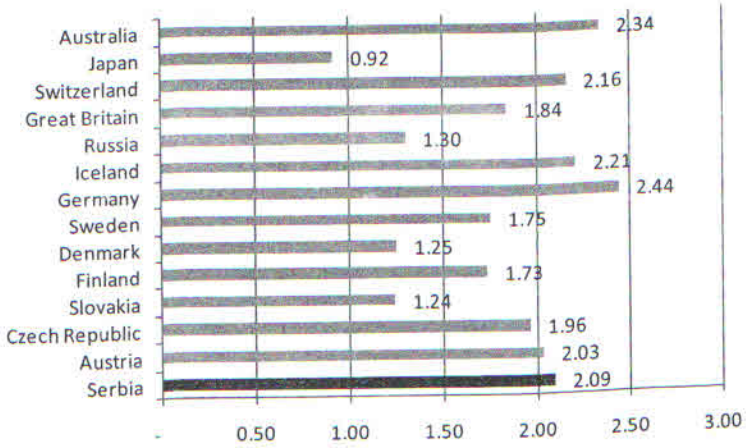

Figure 13 Frequency of using the career development method Project for stimulating on-the-job learning/training and special tasks
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

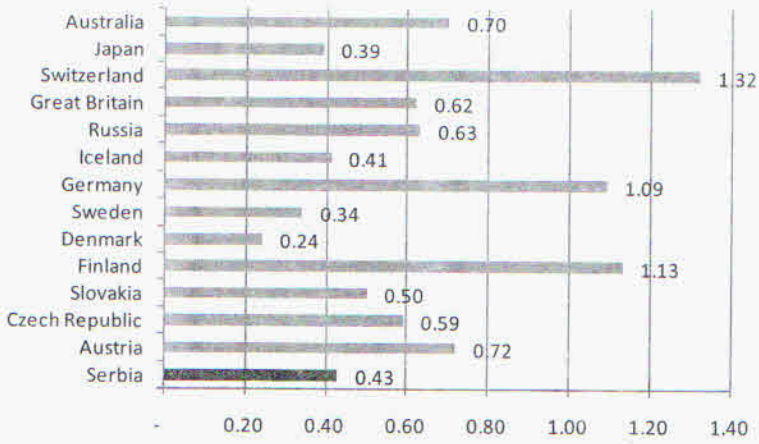

Figure 14 Frequency of using the method for career development centres
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

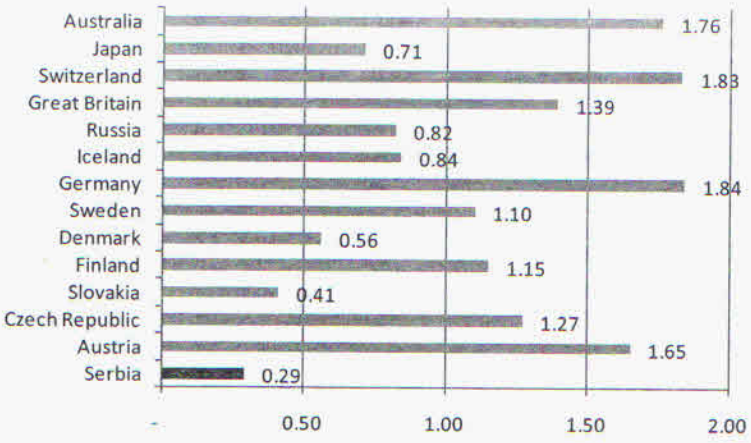

Figure 15 Frequency of using the career development method Succession plans
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

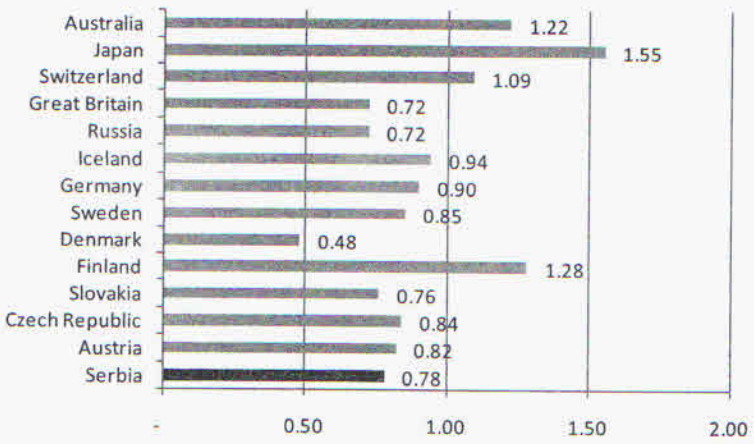

Figure 16 Frequency of using career development method Planned rotation
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

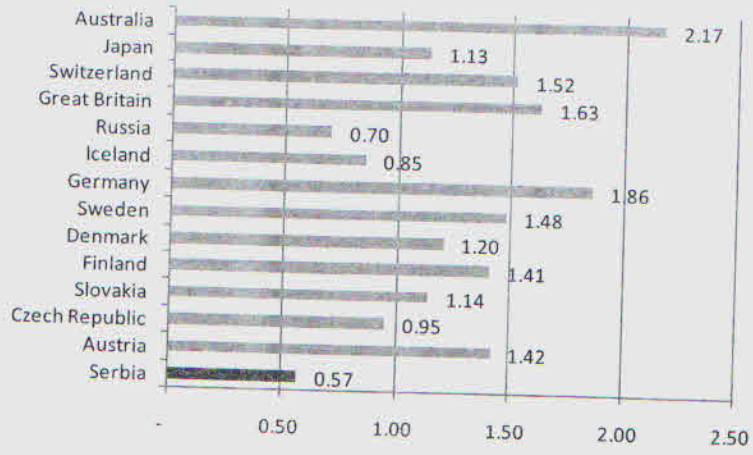

Figure 17 Frequency of using career development method Coaching
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

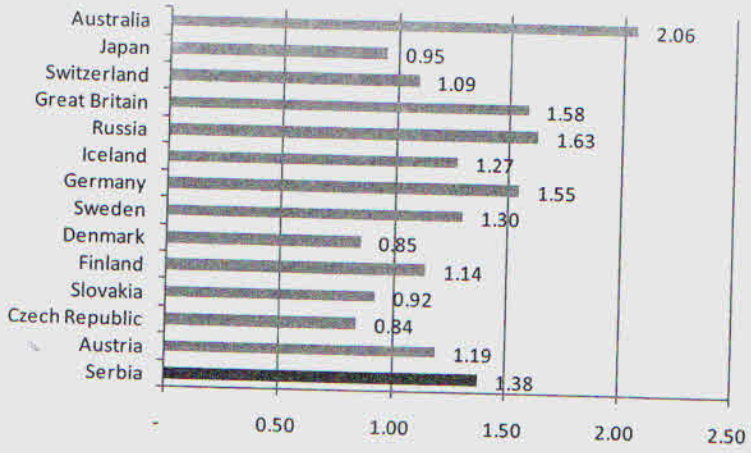

Figure 18 Frequency of using career development method Coaching
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

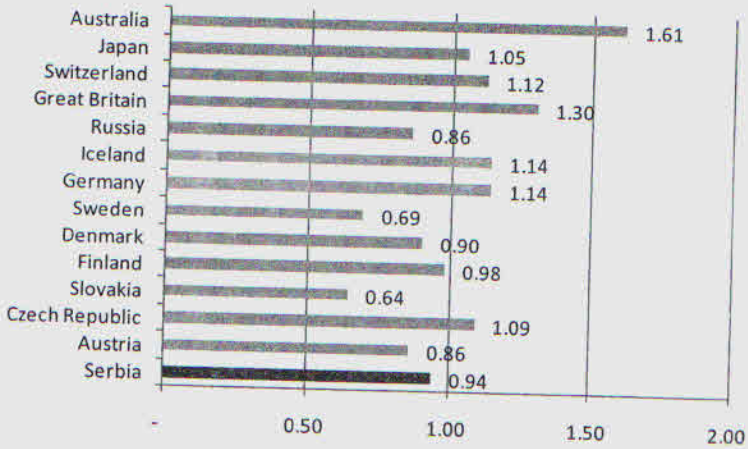

Figure 19 Frequency of using career development method Computer packages (e learning)
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

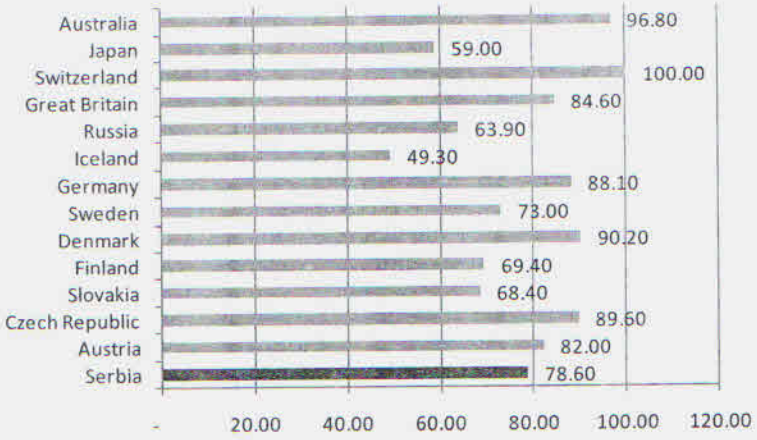

Figure 20 Share of organizations where data on evaluation are used for employees training and development
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

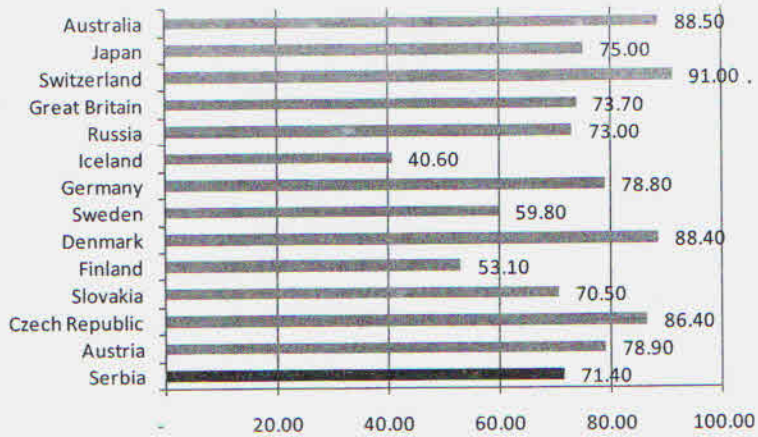

Figure 21 Share of organizations where data on evaluation are used for decision-making on employee career trend
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

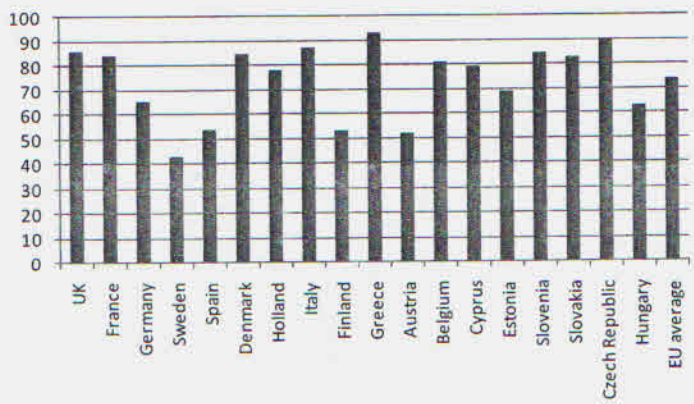

Figure 22 Labour share passing through the regular and formal evaluation training system
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

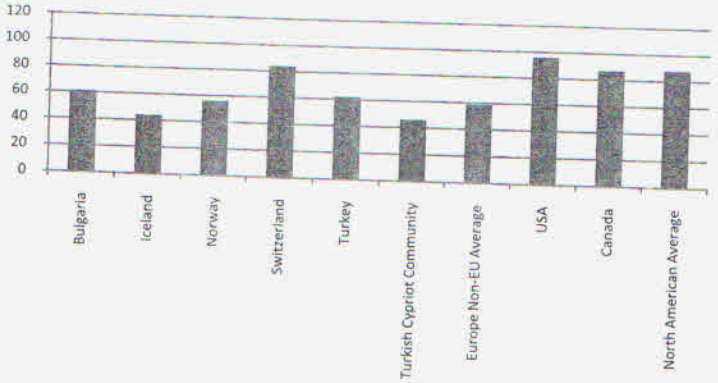

Figure 23 Labour share passing through the regular and formal evaluation training system (Non-EU countries and North America) 2005
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

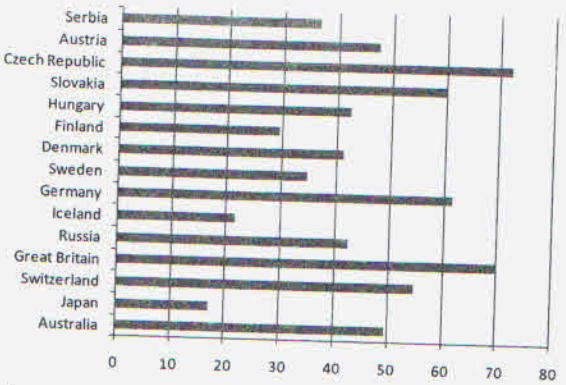

Figure 24 Labour share passing through the regular and formal evaluation training system 2008
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

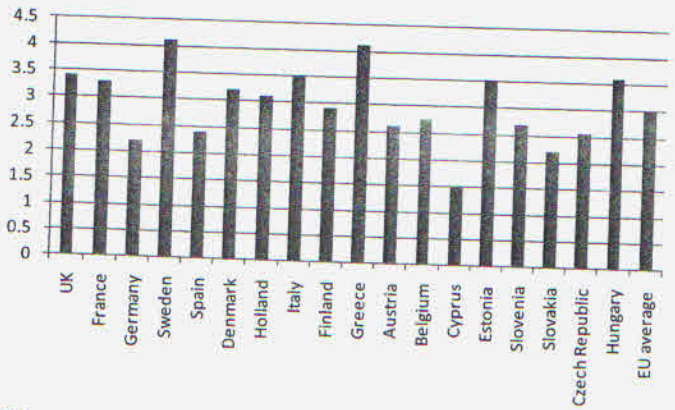

Figure 25 Costs of employees training and development (EU) 2005
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

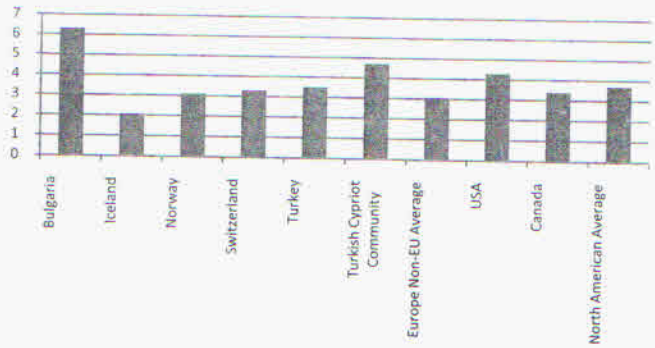

Figure 26 Costs of employees training and development (Rest of the World), 2005
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

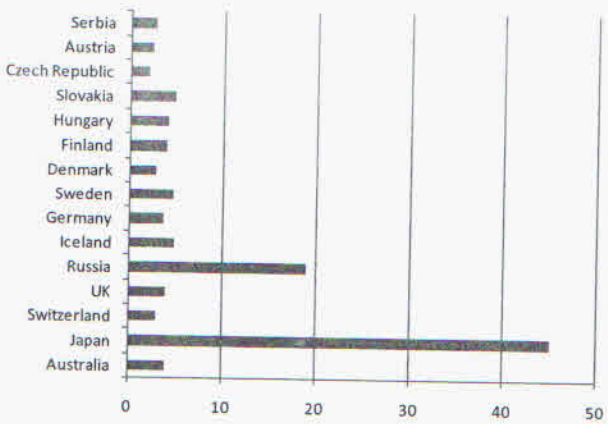

Figure 27 Cost share in the aggregate annual earnings, 2008
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

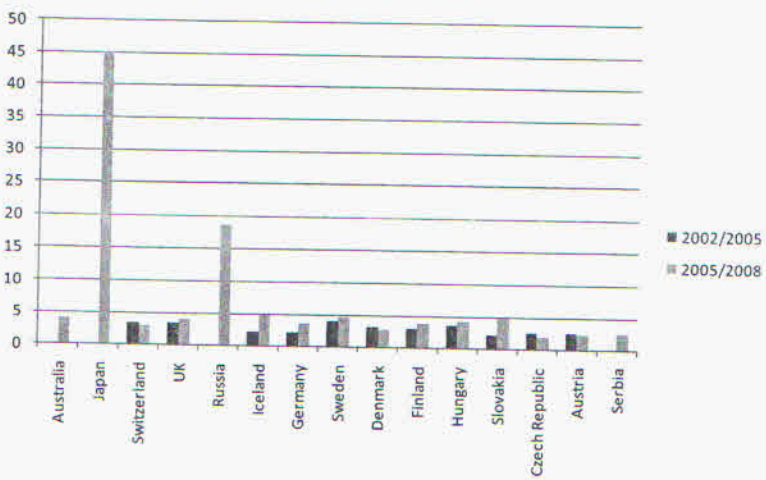

Figure 28 Share of training costs in aggregate annual costs of earning
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

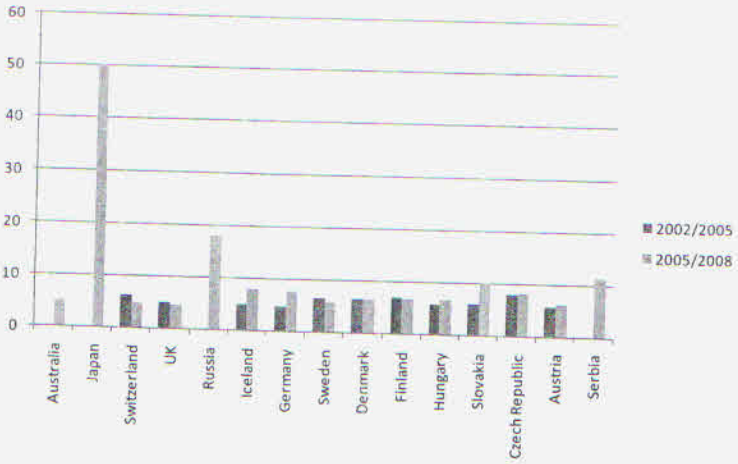

Figure 29 Average training length for managers per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

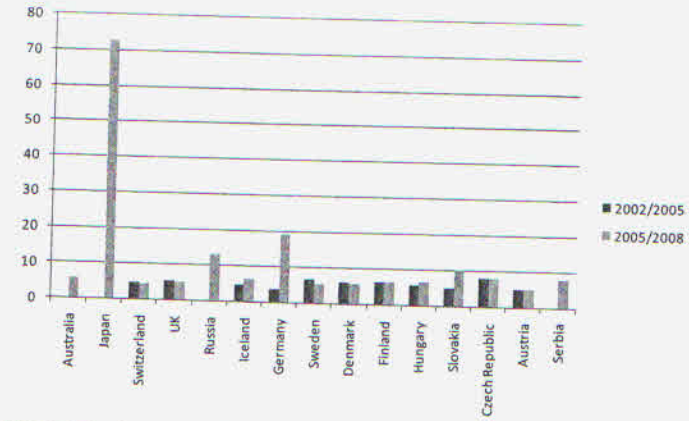

Figure 30 Average training length for skilled and technical staff per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

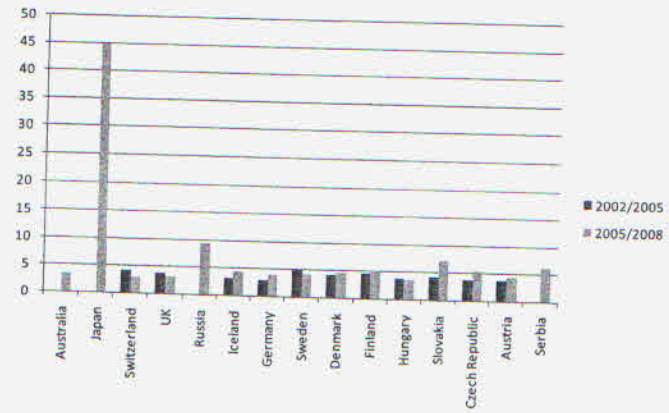

Figure 31 Average training length for administrative staff per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)

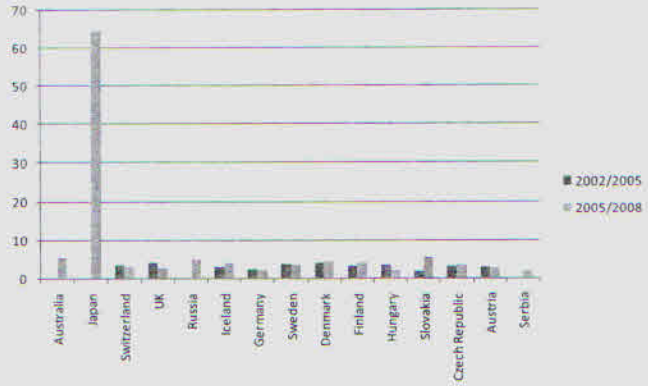

Figure 32 Average training length for physical labour per year
Source: Authors' calculations based on Cranet data (Cranet, 2009)