THE INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYEES TRAINING AND ACCOUNTABILITY ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH SUDAN.

By Dr Gabriel Alier Riak PhD* and PhD Candidate Dut Bol Ayuel Bill

Upper Nile University

*Corresponding Author: -

Abstract: -
Employee training refers to the skill equipping functions that many employers now offer to their employees. These are the functions that Human Resources staff perform relative to the organization's employees and include recruiting, hiring, compensation and historically, the exact origin of Accountability is not clear. However Mulgan, (2009) noted that the advent of Accountability can be traced right from the Industrial Revolution that took place in Britain. During the early part of the Industrial Revolution, many of the early firms went bankrupt. Little credit went to manufacturing operations and continuing operations and expansion was funded primarily from retained earnings (Morduch. 2009). Thus, during depressions benefits
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION
1.0 Background of the Study
The study intends to investigate the impact of employee training, accountability and performance on service delivery in World Food Program, South Sudan. Most of researches including Colombo and Stanca (2008), Sepulveda (2015) and Konings & Vanormelingen, (2009), showed that training, accountability and performance are a fundamental and effectual instruments in successful accomplishment of the firm's goals and objectives, resulting in higher productivity and service delivery (Holton, 2010).

Employee training:
Employee training refers to the skill equipping functions that many employers now offer to their employees. These are the functions that Human Resources staff perform relative to the organization's employees and include recruiting, hiring, compensation and benefits, new employee orientation, training, and employee training systems. Employee training also includes developing and implementing policies and processes to create an orderly, employee-supportive work environment. It is an older term that is falling into disuse in modern organizations (Anthony, 2009). Employee training is the specialist branch of management which is responsible for matters related to the employment and regulation of employees and workers. Employee training involves three distinct activities: employee resourcing, employee development and employee relations. Employee training in large organizations like World Food Program, South Sudan is now considered to be a highly professional activity, and would generally be carried out by a specialist personnel manager or department and thus many personnel managers, especially in organizations like World Food Program, South Sudan, tend to have professional qualifications, for example, membership of the organization of Employee training (Rothwell, 2012).

Employee training, part of human resource development, is the process of changing an organization, its employees, its stakeholders and groups of people within it, using planned and unplanned learning and training mechanisms, in order to achieve and maintain a competitive advantage for the organization. Rothwell notes that the name may well be a term in search of a meaning, like so much in management, and suggests that it be thought of as selective attention paid to the top 10% of employees, either by potential or performance. While employee training is reserved for the top management it is becoming increasingly clear that employee training is necessary for the retention of any employee, no matter what their level in the company. Research has shown that some type of training is necessary for performance and hence job retention. Perhaps organizations need to include this area in their overview of employee training and improved organizational performance (Kessler, 2002).

Some organizations prefer to utilize employer branding strategy and in-house training instead of recruiting firms. The difference, a recruiting firm is always looking for talent whereas an internal department is focused on filling a single opening. The advantage associated with utilizing a third-party recruiting firm is their ability to know where to find a qualified candidate. Talent Management is a key component to the services a professional recruiting firm can provide. The stages in training include sourcing candidates by networking, advertising or other methods. Utilizing professional interviewing techniques to understand the candidate’s skills but motivations to make a move, screening potential candidates using testing (skills or personality) is also a popular part of the process. The process is meant to not only evaluate the candidate but also evaluate how the candidate will fit into the organization. The recruiter will meet with the hiring manager to obtain specific position and type information before beginning the process. After the recruiter understands the type of person the company needs, they begin the process of informing their network of the opportunity. Recruiters play an important role by preparing the candidate and company for the interview, providing feedback to both parties and handling salary/benefits negotiations (Inc., 2011).

Employees of an organization are essential and active factor of production. In addition to their major contributes to all the affairs of the business, they activate other factors. Without employees, the enterprise would have been a collector material and equipment’s. Efficient employees are an asset of the enterprise, inefficient will prove to be a liability. Therefore, every organization should recruit the most suitable and competent persons on the basis of the needs and nature of the job. In other words, right men should be recruited taking into consideration the long term needs of the organization and they should be placed on jobs for which they are the most suitable. After the manpower requirements are determined in terms of numbers through manpower planning and quality of employees through job analysis the process of training begins. In this way training is an activity of establishing contact between employer and applicant. Training ordinarily means obtaining fresh supplies, but in the context of personnel management it is an activity of discovering job-seekers for the present and future needs of the organization (Armstrong, 2006). In today’s rapidly changing business environment, a well-defined training practice is necessary for organizations to respond to its human resource requirements in time. Therefore, it is important to have clear and concise training practices in place, which can be executed effectively to recruit the best talent pool for the selection of the right candidate at the right place quickly. Creating suitable training practices is the first step in the efficient hiring process. A clear and concise training practice helps ensure a sound training process (U.S., 2010). It specifies the objectives of training and provides a framework for implementation of training programme. It may involve organizational system to be developed for implementing training programmes and procedures by filling up vacancies with best qualified people. The training and selection decision is of prime importance as the vehicle for obtaining the best possible person-to-job fit which will, when aggregated, contribute significantly towards your Company's success (Becker, 2013).
Accountability:
Historically, the exact origin of Accountability is not clear. However, Mulgan, (2009) noted that the advent of Accountability can be traced right from the Industrial Revolution that took place in Britain. During the early part of the Industrial Revolution, many of the early firms went bankrupt. Little credit went to manufacturing operations and continuing operations and expansion was funded primarily from retained earnings (Morduch. 2009). Thus, during depressions, declining demand led to liquidity crises that most firms could not deal with. It was because of this that business owners opted for adequate cost accounting as useful tool in averting the financial crises. According to work of Sinclair (2007), Accountability was formalized and even developed more in 20th Century. In this period, British and American cost accountants and engineers developed calculations and reporting techniques that allowed the corporate moguls to control vast business empires from corporate headquarters. Part of the process was to buy out or destroy competitors, part of the business history. It is not clear that these practices were illegal or considered unethical (Bell, 2011).

All over the world there is a realization that the accountability activity has the potential to provide hitherto unparalleled services to management in the conduct of their duties (Andreas, 2009). Accountability system is a topical issue following global fraudulent financial reporting and accounting scandals in both developed and developing countries. According to Schmidt (2007), accountability is a system consisting of specific policies and procedures designed to provide management with reliable assurance that the goals and objectives it believes important to the entity will be met. In their view, the reasons to have internal controls is to promote operational effectiveness and efficiency, provide reliable financial and administrative information, safeguard assets and records, encourage adherence to prescribed policies and compliance with regulatory agencies. The AMF Working Group (2007) looked at the components of internal controls as being the control environment, control activities, risk assessment, information and communication, and monitoring and evaluation. Whereas internal controls are thought to be the domain of accountants and auditors, it is actually management that has the primary responsibility for proper controls.

2.4 Accountability
Accountability is the liability that one assumes for ensuring that an obligation to perform a responsibility is fulfilled (Frost, 2000). Accountability means being able to provide an explanation or justification and accept responsibility for events or transactions and one’s own actions in relation to these events or transactions (KIkonyogo, 1999). Munene (2004) stressed that accountability can be analyzed at the individual, organizational, and general levels. In his view, accountability is like a semantic tree: the trunk is governance; a main branch is financial accountability which feeds other branches like budgeting, accounting, auditing, and records management.

According to the Institute of Corporate governance in Uganda (2004), accountability is a concept in ethics and governance with several meanings. It is often used synonymously with such concepts as responsibility, answerability, blameworthiness, liability, and other terms with the expectation of account-giving. As an aspect of governance, it has been central to discussions related to problems in the public sector, nonprofit and private (corporate) wards. In leadership roles, accountability is the acknowledgement and assumption of responsibility for actions, 20 Products, decisions and policies including the administration, governance and implementation within the scope of the role or employment position and encompassing the obligation to report, explain, and be answerable for resulting consequences. This means that a senior manager cannot delegate responsibility but can only delegate authority to a subordinate and then hold that subordinate accountable for the performance. One of the biggest mistakes that managers can make is to continuously frustrate their employees by not holding them accountable. Accountability is the key to achieving results and helps in identifying opportunities in an organization. Holding employees accountable helps them to know the satisfaction of achieving a goal and performing to standard.

Accountability refers to an organization’s capacity to demonstrate, answer, or explain its actions (Green 2003). Anderson (2009) argued that one of the elusive concepts in management is accountability. The essence of accountability is answerability; having the obligation to answer questions regarding decisions and or actions (Scheduler, 1999). The other defining element of accountability is the availability and application of sanctions on inappropriate actions and behavior uncovered through answerability. Answerability without sanctions is generally considered to be weak accountability and, sanctions without enforcement significantly diminish accountability (Blinkerhoff, 2003). Most people equate sanctions with requirements, standards and penalties embedded in laws, statutes and regulations. Enforcement mechanisms are critical from broad legal and regulatory frame works to internal agency monitoring systems.

According to Dykstra (2014), in ethics and governance, accountability is answerability, blameworthiness, liability, and the expectation of account-giving. As an aspect of governance, it has been central to discussions related to problems in the public sector, nonprofit and private (corporate) worlds. In leadership roles, Macmillan (2001) defined accountability as the acknowledgment and assumption of responsibility for actions, products, decisions, and policies including the administration, governance, and implementation within the scope of the role or employment position and encompassing the obligation to report, explain and be answerable for resulting consequences.

Accountability can be political, social or financial accountability. According to Hayes, et al (2005), reporting is one way through which managers make accountability for resources entrusted to them.

Mulgan (2009) posits that in governance, accountability has expanded beyond the basic definition of being called to account for one's actions. Satta 2013 explains that it is frequently described as an account-giving relationship between individuals, e.g. “A is accountable to B when A is obliged to inform B about A’s (past or future) actions and decisions, to justify them, and to suffer punishment in the case of eventual misconduct.
A service is an activity or a series of activities of more or less intangible nature that normally, but not necessarily, takes place in interactions between the customer and service employees and/or systems of service providers, which are provided as solutions to customer problems (Finn & Kayande, 2006). Service delivery can be taken to be an outcome of performance depending on the context in which it is used (Ayen, 2002). According to Samuel (2002), service can be expressed in terms of capacity to deliver desired services and from which customers get satisfaction. A service delivery gap is that gap between the established delivery standards and the actual service delivered (Crosby, 2000). It is an inconsistency between service design / quality specifications and the actual service quality by the service delivery system. Effective engagement between citizens, service providers and elected representatives is essential to democratic service delivery.

As competition in the service industry grows, delivering high quality service to meet customer’s needs is essential for success (Porter, 2000). Quality of service delivery has emerged as the most significant strategy in ensuring the survival of organizations and also a fundamental route to business excellence as well as extending market share of health care organizations (Lindquist, 2007). This is because satisfaction has a positive relationship to patient’s future decision to return to a facility to receive service. Service provision that is de-linked from citizen influence and democratic decision making is unlikely to deliver quality services for the poor. For meaningful contributions, the poor require the ability and capacity to ask questions and, sufficient information of their right and entitlements, service options, local and national budgets, and the systems to address when decisions are taken undemocratically or when services are of poor quality.

Morgan (2005) insists that service delivery has to be communicated over and over again to everyone; the employees at all levels must be aligned with a single vision of what the organization is trying to accomplish. Thus, effective internal communications is the requisite for integration and harmony in the service organizations activities and quality. Rossi (1993) also said that the goal of any social service organization is to improve the results of the target population in some way by providing the right type of services and by providing them in an appropriate and adequate way. He added that data collection and evaluation are a means by which organizations can assess their progress on these two forms.

World Food Program, South Sudan uses employee training programs like; coaching the employees, mentoring the employees, off-the-job training and on-the-job training programs, accountability and performance management practices to identify inefficient work practices or reveal potential problems, identify high performers and poor performers as well as to identify the strengths and development areas within the industry (Jackson & Schuller, 2012). Performance appraisal takes into consideration the previous performance of the employees and emphasizes on the improvement of the future performance of the employees. It gives the staff the opportunity to express their ideas and expectations for the strategic goals of the company (Mullins, 2009).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Employee training, accountability and performance management are seen as the backbone of Non Governmental Organizations like in World Food Program, South Sudan In essence, accountability, performance and trained employees can help to achieve high quality services in a shorter time period to the organization at large. The forms of employee training in organizations have provided employees with a feeling of empowerment and enlightened. Therefore the success of an organization is solely based on the efficiency and effectiveness of its employees like the case of World Food Program which out rightly is reference still being made to the past, to do with the employee training in the economy. In World Food Program, employee training is a key to both job satisfaction and organizational performance by providing and extending a quality service as a result and this accounts for 30% of the company’s performance (GOK 2013), and Training Programs are well designed with specified objectives, to effect change in individuals’ knowledge, understanding, behaviors, skills - and in values and beliefs; but at the level of implementation training is taken to be as routine where no specific objectives are observed; also does not increase the knowledge, skills, techniques and changing attitude of the workers in performing their current jobs (Jackson 2002). With the exception of good fruits of employee training like increased job satisfaction, increased quality and quantity due to the new skills acquired by employees among others, there was need for staff training in World Food Program was accelerated by the gap that develops as a result of global technological changes that take place worldwide which affect day to day organization operations and such gaps include; high rates of labor turnovers, huge training expenses, unfamiliar techniques, high absenteeism levels among others despite the efforts done by Human Resource department and the Company in general and to date the Company is facing shortage of trained manpower (Kamoche, 2002). To achieve planned training progress, developing countries like South Sudan in particular; need skilled administrators in large numbers, and above all they require educators and instructors. In some, the primary and higher educational structure is inadequate for current needs, no vocational training is built into the school system, and little or no science and technology are offered in the universities (Harvey 2002). Inevitably they must send some of their key personnel for training abroad and call in foreign experts under one or another of the technical-assistance programs and also organize an entire national development program concentrating on building up local groups of indigenous experts, with aptitude for training others, organized if possible on an institutional basis (Deborah, 2006) Overall, trained employees tend to benefit both their own careers and the company they work for. Therefore are however some challenges that arise with emphasizing on training for an organization’s management since each employee learns at a different pace, and in different ways, it is typically best to offer different formats for training, not mentioning the costs involved in training new recruits, yet the private sector is so dynamic. It is therefore from such a problem statement that this researcher felt it imperative to conduct research into this topic.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction
This chapter comprises of what other scholars/researchers have written about the topic under the study. It has a theoretical framework, and then literature that was reviewed basing on the study objectives.

2.1 The Relationship between employee training and service delivery in Program South Sudan.
In the development of organizations like World Food Program, South Sudan, employee training plays a vital role, improving performance as well as increasing productivity, and eventually putting companies in the best position to face competition and stay at the top. This means that there is a significant difference between the organizations that train their employees and organizations that do not (April, 2010). Training is a type of activity which is planned, systematic and it results in enhanced level of skill, knowledge and competency that are necessary to perform work effectively (Gordon, 1992). There exists a positive association between training and employee performance. Training generates benefits for the employee as well as for the organization by positively influencing employee performance through the development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behavior (April, 2010). Organizations that are dedicated to generating profits for its owners (shareholders), providing quality service to its customers and beneficiaries, invest in the training of its employees (Evans & Lindsay, 1999). There are four prerequisites for learning: Motivation comes first. Cue is the second requirement. The learner can recognize related indicators (cue) and associate them with desired responses with the help of training. Response comes third. Training should be immediately followed by positive reinforcement so that the learner can feel the response. Last is the feedback; it is the information which learner receives and indicates in the quality of his response. This response must be given as quickly as possible to make sure successful learning (Leslie, 1990). Performance can be defined as the achievement of specified task measured against predetermined or identified standards of accuracy, completeness, cost and speed. In an employment contract, performance is deemed to be the accomplishment of a commitment in such a manner that releases the performer from all liabilities laid down under the contract. Efficiency and effectiveness are ingredients of performance apart from competitiveness and productivity and training is a way of increasing individual’s performance (Cooke, 2000). Kenney, (1992) stated that employee's performance is measured against the performance standards set by the organization. Good performance means how well employees performed the assigned tasks. In every organization there are some expectations from the employees with respect to their performance. And when they perform up to the set standards and meet organizational expectations they are believed good performers. Functioning and presentation of employees is also termed as employee performance. This means that effective administration and presentation of employees’ tasks which reflect the quality desired by the organization can also be termed as performance. While much is known about the economics of training in the developed world, studies of issues associated with training in less developed countries are rarely found. Job characteristics and firm background were found to play key roles in determining training provision. Workers who received off-the-job training were less likely to receive on-the-job training, while those who received on-the-job training were neither more nor less likely to have received off-the-job training. However, a complementary relationship was found between receiving informal training and receiving on-the-job or off-the-job training. Earnings differentials were not found to correlate with different types of training. Unlike in developed countries, training in China was usually intended to remedy skills deficiencies, rather than enhance productivity (Ying, 2004).

Training programs helps in making acquaintance of employees with more advance technology and attaining robust competencies and skills in order to handle the functions and basics of newly introduced technical equipment’s. More rarely it happens that employees are not fully trained regarding new working and technical techniques and they are unable to deliver to their assignments according to the desire of the organization. Effective training can bring down these flaws, (Robert, 2006). Along with training, worth of response from employees regarding working situations is of highly importance and it can help in drawing the attention of the managers and executives to the factors that are of mammoth importance, (C. Corretz, et al (2008). Feedback not only adds to knowledge of employee and employer but also improves the process of evaluation of employees, (Rosti Jr, 1998).

Firms can develop and enhance the quality of the current employees by providing comprehensive training and development. Research indicates that investments in training employees in problem-solving, decision-making, teamwork, and interpersonal relations result in beneficial firm level outcomes (Harel, 1999). Training also has a significant effect on employee performance. Firms can develop and enhance the quality of the current employees by providing comprehensive training and development. Indeed, research indicates that investments in training employees in problem-solving, teamwork and interpersonal relations result in beneficial firm level outcomes (Harel 1999). It is observed that investigation directed at building a contingency model of transfer-oriented training intervention design would provide information important for developing training environments more conducive to positive transfer in terms of productivity effectiveness. Identification of training needs, design and implementation of training programmes, transfer of training, and evaluation of programme benefits are key activities (Krishnaveni & Sripirabaa, 2008) in addition to studying general training variables such as types of training, selection of trainees, selection criteria, evaluation instruments etc. The success of training depends on the correct implementation of all steps of the process: previous analysis of training needs, development and implementation of an adequate training plan and evaluation (Mirabet, 1997). In conclusion, training, together with other activities positively affects results and is associated with a productivity increase and a staff turnover decrease (Huselid, 1995). Francesconi, and Zoega, (2002) identified conditions under which the salary compression associated with imperfectly competitive labor markets will increase the incentive for firms to finance general or transferable training. In this context,
salary compression implies that post-training productivity is increasing in training intensity at a faster rate than salary. Hence, the gap between productivity and salary is increasing in training intensity and, by definition, a firm’s profits over some range. But the amount of training provided in equilibrium will be sub-optimal from society’s viewpoint. Diverse results have been found in different research works regarding the effect of training on salary.

Organization’s compensation system has foremost impact on transfer of training. When organization analyze the importance of training and reward their newly trained employees, then the workforce will be motivated towards passing on those skills. According to Expectancy Theory, Employee motivation increases when meaningful rewards are given to those employees who effectively transfer training (Vroom, 1964). Training is categorized into different types: for example, on the job training which is known as specific training as well and off the job training, which is also termed as informal training. On the job training works as a catalyst in the increment of salary (Lillard and Tan, 1992). Off the Job Training does not have worthwhile effect on salary (Lynch, 1992 and Veum, 1995). The increase in income from on the job training is approximately 12% to 15 % whereas it is 2 % to 8% increase in case of off the job training (Mincer, 1996). In case of informal training, the increment in salary is about 2 % (Bowers and Swaim, 1994). In manufacturing sector there is 0.9% enhancement in earnings due to on the job training (Xiao, 2001). Salary tends to increase as a result of on the job training when the employee remains with the present employer. In case of change of employer, the previous on the job training will have no positive change on earnings (Booth, 1993 and Lynch, 1992). There is an association between mentoring and coaching of employees with the enhancement of salary and earnings (Ok and Tergeist, 2003). Whereas the workforce who do not take training have minimal chances to avail increment in salary. Training of workforce significantly enhances the earnings of financially deprived females as well as of underprivileged males, further studies analyzed that mentoring and coaching do not show noticeable impact on the salary of newly hired employees (Heckman, Lalonde, and Smith, 2009).

Salary has been viewed as an important determinant factor for employee increased performance and have been shown to influence an employee’s decision to leave or to stay in the organization (Kline & Hsieh, 2007). Performance based payments have an effective relationship with performance improvements. Every worker wants to earn more so they put extra effort to produce more units. Performance based payments stimulate and motivate workers to be more creative in generating more efforts. Due to performance based payments capable workers earn more than ordinary workers (Lazear, 1999). In case studies of different firms it was found that production increased, when system changed from monthly salary to daily wages. This means that increased wages have direct effect on employee performance (Lazear, 2000). In case of fruit pickers, the progress of workers increased significantly when pay system was shifted from incentivepay (Bandiera, 2005).

As far as posts of higher management are concerned, managers often emphasize on recruiting and retaining capable workers by moving from piece rate to salary. The core purpose of this activity is retaining efficient man power by providing more incentives (Bandiera, 2007).

Job Involvement is a psychosomatic recognition or dedication towards occupation (Kanungo, 1982). There are different levels of every individual of being committed to the assigned tasks (Paullay, 1994). The construct of job involvement is rather similar to organizational commitment in that they are both concerned with an employee’s identification with the work experience but these constructs differ in that job involvement is more closely linked with identification with one’s immediate work activities while organizational commitment refers to a person’s attachment to the organization. It is likely to be involved in a specific job but not be committed to the organization or vice versa (Brown, 1996). Job involvement is very for individuals as well as for the organization but still it cannot be concluded that that job involvement has unlimited impact on the performance.

Managers observed that the staff members who have high involvement in job assignments produce more efficiently as compared to those employees who do not want to indulge themselves in the assigned tasks (Brown 1996 and Diefendorff et al., 2002) Job involvement directly affects the performance. But some researchers emphasize on this perception that job involvement improves performance but to some extent only (Cron 1984). Job performance can be defined as employees perform their actions according to the requirement of the job (Borman & Motowidlo, 2001). Job involvement results in higher levels of in-role job performance by positively affecting employees’ motivation and effort (Brown, 1996). Involvement in the official tasks directly or indirectly influences the employee performance. Effort is an intervening element between the
Relationship of job involvement and performance (Brown and Leigh 1996). There is a positive relationship between job involvement and performance (Lassak, 2001) a weak connection can exists between job involvement and employee performance due to some other variables. And job involvement is directly and indirectly affected by these variables and performance is automatically affected by the job involvement (Brown and Leigh, 2016). Employees who are committed to their job assignments, they have high level of job involvement and there is a very constructive relationship between job involvement and performance.

Research studies show that there is not a compulsion that the workforce who is more committed to the job is also expected to remain in the organization for the long time period. Such type of workforce is more successful and beneficial for the organization as compared to the workforce who is not genuinely committed to the organization and remains in the organization for life. Finally this description ends up on these words that job involvement enhances employee commitment.
and such type of employees put extra performance. In short, employee commitment works as a catalyst for the relationship of job involvement and performance (Kovnovsky and Cropanzano, 2011).

The importance of employee training can best be appreciated with the help of various advantages it offers to both employees. These are explained under the following heads.

**Betters performance:** Training improves employee’s ability and skill and in turn, improves employee’s performance both in quantity and quality. Better or increased employee performance directly leads to increased operational productivity and increased organizational profit. Improvements in employee’s performance/productivity in developed countries. Lend support to this statement.

**Improve quality:** in formula training programs the best methods of performance jobs are standardized and then taught to employees. This offers two-fold benefits. Firstly uniformity in work performance helps to improve the quality of work or servers. Secondly, better informed in formed or say trained workers are less likely to make operational mistakes.

Less learning: A trained worker is self-reliant, he knows his work and way to performance it well therefore his work require less supervision. The supervision can devote his time on more urgent works.

**Less learning period:** a well-planned and systematically organized training program reduces the time and cost involved in learning. Training enables to avoid waste of time and effort in leaning through trial and error methods.

**High morale:** training not only improves the ability and skill of employees, but also changes employees’ attitude toward positive. High performance jobs satisfaction, job security and avenues for internal promotion lead morale among the employees. High morale in turn makes employees more loyal to the organization.

**Personal growth:** training improves employee’s ability knowledge and skill and thus prevents employee’s obsolescence. This makes employees growth oriented.

Favorable organizational climates: the aforesaid advantage combined lead to an improve and favorable organizational climate characterized by better industrial relations and disciplines reduced resistance to change reduced absenteeism turnover of employees stability of organization.

**2.2 The relationship between Accountability and Service Delivery in World Food Program South Sudan.**

Vain, Taryn. 2002 contend that applying the above classification to service delivery develops a clearer picture of accountability issues in organizations like World Food Program, South Sudan. These can be assessed in terms of three purposes of accountability. The first and most fundamental are to control the misuse and abuse of public resources and/or authority. This relates directly to financial accountability. The second is to provide assurance that resources are used and authority is exercised according to appropriate and legal procedures, professional standards, and societal values. The third is to support improved service delivery and management through feedback and learning; the focus here is primarily on performance accountability. These three purposes overlap to some extent, but in some cases pursuit of one can lead to conflicts with the other. For example, accountability for control, with its focus on uncovering malfeasance and allocating “blame,” can conflict with accountability for improvement, which emphasizes managerial discretion and embracing error as a source of learning.

Organization boards have responsibility for undertaking strategic planning, providing fiduciary stewardship, monitoring performance and the achievement of targets, ensuring quality standards, appointing and appraising senior management, and engaging in constituency and community outreach. Boards are usually comprised of elected members, in general a mix of professionals, private businesspersons, and community representatives. In some cases certain categories of members can be appointed. The composition of the membership is an important variable in board effectiveness (Romzek, Barbara S. 2010)

In organization systems where payment and provision are separate, and providers are reimbursed for services based on a capitation or other formula, the insurance fund agency becomes a key factor in accountability relationships. While the most obvious accountability role insurance funds play relates to financial control, these funds can strongly influence accountability for quality of care and other standards (assurance purposes), and performance accountability through the design and implementation of provider payment systems. These payment systems create incentives both for patients and providers that can have important impacts on system performance and the achievement of organization outcomes and equity (Maceira 1998). For example, in Thailand in 1990, a compulsory social insurance scheme put in place a system of main contractors (hospitals) and subcontractors that led to increased competition among contractors and pushed contracting hospitals to introduce utilization reviews and monitoring of patient complaints. These changes led the contracting hospitals to be more accountable for performance and patient satisfaction (Yip et al. 2011).

Haque, M. Shamsul. (2010) pointed out that similarly, efforts to increase users’ participation at the community level also aim to expand the role they play in accountability relationships by transforming them from passive recipients of services to active, engaged shapers of policies and services, and in cases where the system decentralizes and devolves some service assessment matrix maps linkages and examines interactions. The matrix tracks the patterns of answerability and sanctions in terms of which actors demand information and impose sanctions, and which are charged with supplying information and are subject to sanctions. There is no universally “correct” number of accountability linkages. How many are appropriate will be situation-specific, and will depend upon the quality, not simply the number, of connections. The
mapping exercise informs appraisal of actors’ capacity to fulfill accountability roles, helps to pinpoint gaps, and feeds into setting purposes and targets.

England, Roger (2000) asserts that accountability-enhancing strategies can focus on: reducing abuse, assuring compliance with procedures/standards, and improving performance/learning. In practice, efforts to increase accountability are likely to include more than one of these. Reducing abuse is both the “default” strategy and a pillar supporting the other two purposes; it focuses on containment of fraud, misuse, and corruption. Strategies for compliance with procedures/standards involve regulation, oversight, monitoring and reporting requirements. Sources of sanctions include the country’s legal framework and judicial system, administrative rules and operating procedures, markets and quasi-markets, professional norms and ethics, licensing and accreditation, and socio-cultural values.

Strategies for increasing accountability is a key element in a wide variety of reforms, from government-wide anti-corruption campaigns, to national-level system reform programs, to decentralized service delivery at the local level, and community-based funds. The accountability landscape is filled with a broad array of actors with multiple connections; these create layered webs of accountability with varying degrees of autonomy and sources of control/oversight. While the framework and analytic tools presented here cannot provide the specifics of answers for an individual reform effort, they can assist reformers to consider accountability from a systemic perspective and to be aware of the multiple connections involved. Field testing and fine-tuning of these tools can lead to sharper observations regarding accountability enhancement and its role in sector operations and reform efforts (Gilson, Lucy, 2013).

Applying the above classification of types of accountability to service delivery will develop a clearer picture of what accountability issues emerge. These issues can then be assessed in terms of three purposes of accountability. The first purpose is to control the misuse and abuse of public resources and/or authority. This relates directly to financial accountability. The second is to provide assurance that resources are used and authority is exercised according to appropriate and legal procedures, professional standards, and societal values. This purpose applies to all three types of accountability. The third is to support and promote improved service delivery and management through feedback and learning; the focus here is primarily on performance accountability. These three purposes overlap to some extent, but in some cases pursuit of one can lead to conflicts with the other. Perhaps the most recognized tension is between accountability for control, with its focus on uncovering malfeasance and allocating “blame,” and accountability for improvement, which emphasizes discretion, embracing error as a source of learning, and positive incentives (Mills, Anne, 2014).

In an economy where investors and stakeholders shift money freely, the challenge for organizations is how to reconcile their activities with long-term sustainability. Accountability is at the heart of what companies must do (Damasker, 2011). The rapid and significant changes to the external business environment are necessitating new approaches to accountability and to internal auditing (Selim & McNamee, 2001). According to Standard number 2130 (IIA, 2004) on accountability, the internal audit activity should assess and make appropriate recommendations for improving accountability in its accomplishment of objectives including; ensuring effective organizational performance management and accountability, effective communication of risk and control of information to appropriate areas of the organization. Sternberg (2004) emphasized that the key concept in corporate governance is accountability. Thus, individuals and institutions must account to others for their conduct and use of resources. New York Times (July 1996) also pointed out that Self-scrutiny and accountability are essential for corporations and the measure of a company’s integrity is the respect for its stakeholders. Likewise, the board and management should have accountability on their performance to shareholders as well as other stakeholders. Trairatvorakul (1999) emphasized that the board of directors is the main driver of good accountability, provides strategic guidance to the management in order to maximize the long-term value of the company and, monitor’s the company and management to perform in preset directions.

2.3 The relationship between Performance and Service Delivery in World Food Program South Sudan.

Performance management is a managerial style where individual employee performance goals are written to align with and achieve the company's overall goal. Dr. Aubrey Daniels first used the term "performance management" in the 1970s. Daniels defined performance management as tracking employee behaviour and results, which together contribute to performance. A company wishing to use the performance management model would take its mission statement and write individual goals for each employee that are designed to work collectively toward accomplishing that company's mission statement. The number of departments, managers, and employees determine the levels of performance management each company utilizes (Garber, P, 2007).

Direct Financial Gain By writing individual goals out to accomplish the company's overall mission statement, a road map, essentially, with the most direct route is drafted to get everyone within the organization from Point A to Point B. When goals are outlined in this manner, it is easier to determine the workforce and related costs required to achieve the overall mission. This, in turn, saves money. Sales and cost forecasting is employed to determine the company's desired financial gain; how to achieve the financial gain is outlined for everyone involved. Such detail allows managers to stay on track and avoid cost and time overruns (Newell, S, 2010). It also helps the company reassess its position internally should the current performance management plan prove to be inefficient. The overall goal of a performance management plan is to align the employees with upper management. This gives upper management the ability to weed out costly employees who aren't achieving their individual goals and get the overall plan back on track. The less time spent trying to figure out why the company isn't meeting its mission statement saves the company tremendous money in the long run (Thomas, K, 2009).
Implements Management Control like employees who can easily understand what’s expected of them, managers, too, need to have a clear picture of what, not just who, they are expected to manage. When a manager is assigned specific departmental goals, he or she is more readily capable of divvying out defined responsibilities to each of the employees within the department. The manager then goes over the overall department goals, and the employee's goals within the department, with each subordinate. At that time, the two of them can come with up with a detailed game plan of exactly how the employee will see his or her responsibilities through to aid the department in achieving its overall goals. This saves the manager a tremendous amount of time and grief when it comes to employee reviews. The manager knows exactly what the employee was directed to do and can easily see if the tasks were accomplished according to instruction and schedule. If not, the manager is able to quickly identify where the employee diverted from the game plan and take the necessary steps to get the employee back on track. Performance management also motivates the manager to keep his or her employees on track, because the manager might also receive bonus incentives and definitely feels a sense of accomplishment when awarding his or her employees their bonuses (Aaron, B. 2009).

Morale and retention More highly motivated employees are likely to be more loyal, as well, so that management will have better success retaining valuable employees even as the nation’s workforce becomes more mobile. In addition, morale should improve, making the workplace more pleasant, and output per hour worked should increase, cutting labor costs (Garber, 2007).

Promotes asset management Asset management is the process of acquiring, managing, renewing, and disposing of assets as needed, and of designing business models to take advantage of the value from these assets. Thus Managers in organizations like Mukwano Group ensures performance management practices because they lead to better asset management, increase ability to provide customer value, and improve on the measures of organizational knowledge. Therefore managers of high-performing companies like Mukwano Group do manage the organizational assets in ways that exploit their value.

Tracking of the progress of a program Performance management practices are undeniably very helpful when used to manage various organizational programs. For example, it aids the tracking of the progress of a program towards larger overall goals, as well as helping to identify areas of strength or weaknesses. Indeed, it is for these reasons that Soo and Lewis (2009) state that employees and managers should be actively involved in performance measurement activities in order to track inputs and outcomes. Therefore it can be established that performance measurement is a positive appraisal system which can be used to make sure that a company or individual is fulfilling pre-set goals or aims (Latham et al, 2004).

2.4 The Factor Structure between Employee Training, accountability and on Service Delivery

Service delivery
According to Balachandran (2004), a service is intangible, yet provides satisfaction to the customer. Good service makes the customer ‘feel good’. Service is performed by people, not manufactured by machines. It does not come out of a process in a factory, but is experienced during the interaction of one person with another. Service has more economic impact than is commonly imagined. Many insurance firms are losing customers because the service provided is mediocre. Service is the interaction between the customer and a representative of the organization and is not limited to a single function or job type within an organization. One of the major problems faced by every service organization is the effectiveness of prescribed routines in ensuring the consistent quality of service (Fogli 2006). Service has the biggest percentage of activities in insurance businesses. Whatever case may be services are performed, produced with customer participation and cannot be sampled or tested before purchase, then employees need extensive training programmes so as to improve their performance. Aswathappa (2008) indicates that performance is essentially what an employee does or does not do. He adds that employee performance common to most jobs include the following elements (quality of output; quantity of output; timeliness of output; presence at work; and cooperativeness) results in organizational Performance. Atogiyire (1997) also explain that, the quality and quantity of business resources may have an effect on its performance. He suggests by saying that the nature of the prevailing economic factors surrounding an organization may to a larger extent affect the performance of that organization in terms of productivity, marketing, profitability and innovation. But the threat of these economic factors can be moderated by highly trained workforce. Attention to these extant literatures shows the numerous links between training employees and organizational performance. According to the empirical findings from the above literature, the following performance indicators (sales, profit, market share, quality of products, customer satisfaction, employee retention, job satisfaction, employee morale, waste reduction and the volume of production) were used in this study as the performance indicators for the print-media industry.

Sila (2014) in his study of the relationship between training and performance in Kenya which she narrowed down to attitude, service delivery and job satisfaction using descriptive statistics to analyze the data. the study found out that the three variables of training investigated were key in determining employee performance especially in service firms under study confirmed that training has a big influence on performance with attitude, job satisfaction and service delivery equally getting the same weight. The result is consistent with modern scholars who recommend for training to develop positive attitudes at work place, to increase efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery and improve job satisfaction of the employees. Emeti (2015) conducted a research on the effects of training/development on the performance of paint manufacturing firms in rivers state using a cross-sectional survey research method was used in sampling the entire 312 operational staff of the three paint manufacturing firms. Pearson product moment correlation via
A service is an activity or a series of activities of more or less intangible nature that normally, but not necessarily, takes place in interactions between the customer and service employees and/or systems of service providers, which are provided as solutions to customer problems (Finn & Kayande, 2006). Service delivery can be taken to be an outcome of performance depending on the context in which it is used (Ayen, 2002). According to Samuel (2002), service can be expressed in terms of capacity to deliver desired services and from which customers get satisfaction. A service delivery gap is that gap between the established delivery standards and the actual service delivered (Crosby, 2000). It is an inconsistency between service design / quality specifications and the actual service quality by the service delivery system. Effective engagement between citizens, service providers and elected representatives is essential to democratic service delivery.

As competition in the service industry grows, delivering high quality service to meet customer’s needs is essential for success (Porter, 2000). Quality of service delivery has emerged as the most significant strategy in ensuring the survival of organizations and also a fundamental route to business excellence as well as extending market share of health care organizations (Lindquist, 2007). This is because satisfaction has a positive relationship to patient’s future decision to return to a facility to receive service. Service provision that is de-linked from citizen influence and democratic decision making is unlikely to deliver quality services for the poor. For meaningful contributions, the poor require the ability and capacity to ask questions and, sufficient information of their right and entitlements, service options, local and national budgets, and the systems to address when decisions are taken undemocratically or when services are of poor quality.

Morgan (2005) insists that service delivery has to be communicated over and over again to everyone; the employees at all levels must be aligned with a single vision of what the organization is trying to accomplish. Thus, effective internal communications is the requisite for integration and harmony in the service organizations activities and quality. Rossi (1993) also said that the goal of any social service organization is to improve the results of the target population in some way by providing the right type of services and by providing them in an appropriate and adequate way. He added that data collection and evaluation are a means by which organizations can assess their progress on these two forms.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction
This chapter covered the methods that were used in this research study. It explains the research design, study population, sample size, sampling techniques that were used. The chapter also deals with the data collection techniques and instruments, the procedure of the study and finally the way of data processing and analysis.

3.1 Research Design
In this study, a descriptive research method called a case study research design was used. A selection of this design was made because it was very flexible to use especially with data collection, depended per the organization to be studied to play a big part in providing for their activities. Also given the limited time and resources available, it was deemed appropriate to select a particular case to investigate that presented the vast majority of similar cases. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to obtain data about the research object. Purposively the proportionately stratified randomly selected respondents were used to inform the different categories of the research object. Semi-structured research interviews was used as a data collection method. This was reinforced by documentary review and observation.

3.2 Study Population
The population to be studied includes the staff and management of World Food Program, South Sudan. The selection of the organization will be made in order to establish the viability of the importance of employee training on the performance of financial institutions.

3.3 Sampling Procedure
The sampling procedure for this study involves purposive judgmental sampling and proportionate stratified random sampling methods. This offered a great chance of selecting certain respondents with useful data for this study (those who directly relate to the research object) who then formed the subgroup of key informants. It will be used by identifying those people deemed to be having direct and detailed data about the issue under study. Those people were to then be picked through face to face contact.
3.4 Sample Size

In this study the sample size constitutes of 50 respondents who will include Logistics & procurement staff, and top management of World Food Program, South Sudan. The respondents’ will be categorized in two groups namely, the key informants that are the staff of the human resources departments and the staff from other departments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Type of sample size</th>
<th>Data collection</th>
<th>Data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>Systematic sampling</td>
<td>40 employees</td>
<td>Structured interviews</td>
<td>Involving editing, coding and tabulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 managers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total = 50 Respondents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>5 groups of 10 discussants</td>
<td>Focus group discussion</td>
<td>Analysis of data during and after data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total = 50 Discussants</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 Research Instruments

Data collection in this study involves the use of various data collection methods to minimize invalidity and ensure reliability of findings. They include semi-structured interviews, and observation. They involve the use of key informant interviews with individuals who will be deemed highly with knowledge on various aspects for investigation and interview schedules. This permits the collection in depth information and exploration of spontaneous remarks by the respondents. They also help to evoke high response rates and ensure flexibility in terms of time order in which questions was asked. Other questions were framed during the course of the interviews.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

Research activities of this study will begin immediately when permission and approval in form of an introduction letter from the faculty of Business and Management through the department of Business administration and management will be secured. It then will be presented to the World Food Program, South Sudan authorities within whom the researcher found appropriate. A thorough explanation of the research aims was given to selected respondents by the researcher and based on their consent; appointments were made for interviews. Permission then was sought from the Human resource Officer to gain access to the documents. The response of the interviews was treated with utmost confidentiality; their names and identity was not revealed when the findings was disseminated.

3.6 Data Analysis

The data was manually collected, processed and analyzed by the researcher using quantitative methods of analysis. Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis; where by answers from successive interviews was cross checked with those from the firm’s records and researcher observation to ensure authenticity. All these were geared towards ensuring accuracy legibility and comprehensiveness of the research outcomes. The basis of analysis was to constitute ideas, experiences and view points and relationships among them. A cording scheme was used to classify qualitative data into meaningful categories of the research intensions. Editing was to help to identify any errors and consequently eliminate them. Qualitative data was coded before leaving the respondents checking for uniformity, accuracy, consistency, legibility and comprehensibility. It was then coded and tabulated using Excel sheets whose values will be inserted into Tables, Graphs, Pie charts and other representations were therefore employed for this study.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

While collecting data the researcher was to highlight confidentiality of research/information that was collected. From the onset, the researcher was to make it clear to the respondents that the research was for academic purposes and the information got was to be revealed to anybody else but be kept confidentially.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

The researcher anticipates the following problems in the process of executing the study; Misinterpretation, suspicion and uncertainties about the purpose of the study by respondents. This was solved by fully explaining to the respondents the purpose of the study before its actual execution. Inadequate financial resources. This was solved by keeping the population coverage at a minimal representative level.
Unfavorable weather conditions and respondents daily routine activities that lead to call backs. This was solved by adjusting the research program to suit the respondents’ schedule of duties. Some people were to refuse to respond basing on the earlier false and empty promises other researchers could have given them. This was solved by explicitly showing them the academic purpose of the study and not absolute to reverse their situation.

CHAPTER FOUR
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION DATA FINDINGS AND RESULTS

4.0 Introduction
The chapter involves presentation, analysis and interpretation of the study results. Data presented, analyzed and interpreted according to the research objectives. It is presented in the form of tables and figures basing on the responses got from the study respondents that were selected during the process of data collection. The discussion of findings has been arranged in accordance with demographic characteristics of respondents’ and objectives of the study as were formulated in chapter one of this report. These objectives include; examine the relationship between impact of employee training and service delivery, relationship between accountability and service delivery, Relationship between Organization Performance and the factor structure between, employee training, accountability, performance and service delivery.

4.1 Presentation and Analysis of Data collected Presentation:
During the field work 251 questionnaires returned from the respondents. This gives a response rate of 100%. This was a good result, as a result of follow up by the researcher to make sure that all the bank staff fill their received questionnaires and return them.

4.2 Data Presentation Preliminary.
The table below shows the rate of response by different respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaires</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Valid Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Returned</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 A total number of 104 questionnaire where distributed and out of these all questionnaires were returned. Showing an actual rate of 100% questionnaires. However, this is a reasonable level upon which research can be based and valid conclusions can be drawn from the research.

SECTION A-Personal Bio-Data.
The table 4.2.1 below shows the distribution of respondents by gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data. (2017)

Table 4.2.1 shows that 180 out of the total of 251 respondents were males, representing approximately 82.6% of the entire sample size. While 71 were females, representing approximately 17.4% of the sample size.

The table 4.2.2 below shows the distribution of respondents by age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid 18-25</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>66.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-46</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 60</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data. (2017)
Table 4.2.2 It can be deduced that out of 251 of the total respondents, 60 were between the 18-25 years representing 20.8%, 91 were between 26-35 years representing 45.8%, 40 were between 36-46 years representing 18.8%, 27 were between 56-60 years representing 6.3% and 33 were above 60 years representing 8.3%.

The table 4.2.3 below shows the distribution of respondents by marital status.

**Table 4.2.3 Marital Status of the respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Single</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>58.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data. (2017)

Table 4.2.3 it can be deduced that out of 251 of the total respondents, 70 were single, representing 14.6%, 121 were married representing 43.8%, 30 were divorced, representing 16.6%, 14 were separated, representing 10.4% and 16 were widowed, representing 14.6%.

The table 4.2.4 below shows the distribution of respondents by academic qualification.

**Table 4.2.4 Academic qualification of respondents.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Senior school certificate</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>81.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data. (2017)

Table 4.2.4 it can be deduced that out of 251 of the total respondents, 40 were Senior School Certificates, representing 22.9%, 25 were having diploma representing 16.7%, 151 were Bachelor holders, representing 41.7% and 35 were Master holders, representing 18.7%.

Table The table 4.6 below shows the distribution of respondents by working experience.

**Table 4.2.5 Experience of the respondents.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid less than a year</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-9 years</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data. (2017)

Table 4.2.5 from the table it can be deduced that out of 251 of the total respondents, 40 work for less than a year, representing 20.8% of the total population, 60 have an experience of 1-3 years, representing 37.5% and 151 had work experience of 4-9 years, representing 41.7% of the entire population.

4.3 Relationship between the study variable.

Important to the successful completion of this dissertation was to find out the relationship between employee training, accountability, performance and Service Delivery.
Table 4.3.1 Spearman` zero order correlation matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee Training (1)</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountability (2)</td>
<td>.787**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Delivery (4)</td>
<td>.767**</td>
<td>7.55**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data. (2017)

Spearman correlation was used to determine relationship between the study variables as shown in the table 4.3.1 above.

4.3.1. The relationship between Employee training, accountability and Service Delivery

The results in the table 4.3.1 indicated a significantly strong positive relationship between employee training and Organization performance ($r = 0.788$, $P$-value < 0.01). This implies that employee training has a significant relationship with Organization performance in the private sector. Thus, the question of whether Employee Training has a relationship with Organization performance in the country was answered as true.

4.3.2. The relationship between accountability and Service Delivery

The results in table 4.3.1 indicate a significantly strong positive relationship between performance and Service Delivery ($r = 0.787$, $P$-value < 0.01). The implication of these findings is that with capable leaders in organization the performance should rise higher.

4.3.3. The relationship between Accountability and Service Delivery

The results in table 4.3.2 indicate a significantly strong positive relationship between Performance and Service Delivery ($r = 0.787$, $P$-value < 0.01). The implication of these findings is that with proper risk control the organization performance can be achieved.

4.4 Regression model for employee training, accountability and Service Delivery

Table 4.3.2 below shows the regression model for Employee Training, accountability, performance and Service Delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.718</td>
<td>.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Training</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>.288</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$R = 0.869$, $R^2 = 0.755$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.751$, $F = 0.595$, Sig = 0.593

Source: Primary data (2017).

The results in the table 4.3.2 above indicate a linear relationship between Total Quality Management, Management Competency, Risk Management and Organization Performance ($F = 0.595$, Sig = 0.593). Risk Management and Management Competency, greatly explained Organization Performance in private Sector Total Quality Management ($Beta = 0.456$) explained more to Organization Performance and Management Competency ($Beta = 0.349$). This implies that Risk Management and government policy entirely influenced the Organization Performance in South Sudan particularly Best Beverage Limited.
REFERENCES


