Chapter 2

Literature Review and Hypotheses

2.1 Introduction:

A review of literature helps to list down the factors affecting transfer of training. To facilitate this review, various computer search engines were used to find out databases that cataloged publication and journals related with the topic. In addition, popular books and publication in the field of training and development produced by the government and the Malaysian banking sector were reviewed.

This chapter covers the review of available literature starting form the importance of training and development in any organization. In addition, this study discusses, training effectiveness criteria, critical factors affecting the transfer of training and conflicting views of the different researchers on environmental factors and affective reaction measure. This chapter begins with highlighting the importance of training for employees and organizations.

2.2 Importance of Human Resource Management

The Fierce competition in the 21st century force enterprises to invest in and focus more on Human Resource Management (HRM). The intensification of global competition, changing marketplace and rapid technological advances demand a more flexible and competent workforce (Nikandrou et al., 2009). By investing in human resource, the organizations can manage their business plans and strategies effectively. HRM covers many different activities related to human resource but the focus of HRM is on managing people within the organization and seeking strategic integration of the interests of an organization and its employees (Stone, 2002). Many organizations consider HRM as backbone to effectively manage the business operation because HRM leads to performance improvement of the organization as well as employees. Hence, HRM is considered as a critical important function for better organizational performance (Krishnaveni and Sripirabaa, 2008).

Among different functions in an organization, human resource management is seen as an important activity and studies have provided empirical support for the impact of HRM practices on an organizational performance level (Huselid, 1995; Koch and Hundley, 1997). The objective of HRM is to manage human resource in such a way that its helps organization to achieve their pre-define targets.

Human resource managers have to perform all activities related to employees and organization for the purpose of effectively managing their tasks. The point of interest is that, the purpose of HRM is not only to manage human resource for current business processes but HR professionals have to plan and manage the future demand of the organization. HR professionals develop their plans and policies in-line with the organizational vision and mission. In other words, HR policies and strategies help

organizations to consistently follow their vision and mission to successfully manage their business.

Brand and Bax (2002) discussed that human resource management aims at attracting, developing and retaining human resource. Moreover, for the many small firms, human resource is the core of their competitive advantage (Huiban and Bouhsina; 1998). The perceptions and importance of human resource activities may be different in different sectors of economy. In addition, the distinct role of the HR managers is to assist other managers in the organization to perform their task and manage their work properly.

2.3 Management Beliefs Influencing Transfer of Training

The main concern of the HR manager is to make employees efforts productive by using HR policies, rules and regulations. But before implementing any HR policy or plan, the consensus should be developed within the HR department. The reason behind is, HR managers have different beliefs about HR practices and every HR manager interprets academic research findings according to his/her beliefs system. Rynes, Colbert and Brown (2002) conducted one research on human resource professional's beliefs concerning effective HR practices and found that there is lack of consensus between HR professionals about employee selection, recruitment, and performance appraisal. They also found that the practitioner have contradiction with the research findings on selection which is the primary function of HR practices. These discrepancies on the primary functions of HR practices selection, recruitment and performance appraisals affect other HR practices. For example, from the performance appraisal, HR managers come up with the training need analysis (TNA) and draw training design which would be ultimately effect the transfer of training. In other words, if the HR practitioner belief that performance appraisal is just a tool to analyze the employee performance instead of

providing foundation for developing training needs analysis the outcomes of the training efforts may not be so useful and effective.

The concept of sending employees for training is much investigated in research. The researchers have different arguments about the selection criteria of trainee for training activities. Few managers believe on the selection of employee for training based on their training need analysis (TNA) (Baldwin and Ford, 1988) and few managers suggest employee selection for training on the basis of their opinion (Velada et al., 2007). They argued that employee opinion about training activities or request from the trainee to join training course will lead to performance improvement, they give more importance to the employee opinion whether he/she want to go for any training in order to improve his/her performance. In contrast, academic researchers focus more on organizing employees training by using training need analysis. Therefore, there is need to build consensus among the Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals and academic researchers.

Subedi (2006) conducted research about cultural factors and beliefs influencing transfer of training and reported that two main factors which are culture and organizational practice develop the perception of managers, employees and supervisors. He also found that trainees perceive training activities to achieve organizational goals and objectives.

2.4 Employees Training and Development

McLagan (1989) defines HRD as "the process of comprising the integrated use of training and development and organizational goals, which benefits the interests of both capital and career development". In simple terms, training and development activities develop win-win situation on the part of the organization and employees. Human resource development (HRD) encompasses many disciplines, but training is a core

component of HRD (Gold, Rodgers, and Smith, 2003; Swanson, 2005). In addition, Cascio (2007) (Page 348) argued that "HRD has moved beyond simplistic training beliefs to historical meaning of training as planned programs of organizational improvement through changes in skills, knowledge, attitude, or social behavior"

Researchers have used the term improvement with reference to training and development either on the part of the employees or organization which shows that the main theme behind training and development activities is not just to maintain or achieve specific tasks but it's the process of continuous improvement. Nikandrou et al., (2009) argued that the planning of the training program is very important for its total success and therefore, for training transfer at work. Employee training and development (TAD), is a systematic approach to learning and development to improve individual, team and organizational effectiveness (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009), it is regarded as one of the most widespread human resource (HR) practices (Tracey and Tews, 2005). The credit given by the researchers to training and development activities are not useless. The supporting argument for this importance is that the training and development activities lead to change in employee's behavior as per the job requirement, which is the basic element for employees and organizational performance improvement. As the overall focus of TAD is on improving employee performance (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009), a central issue is whether there is a direct relationship between TAD and employee outcomes (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008).

In this modern era, researchers have been focusing on employee development. The purpose of this focus is not only to fulfill the current skills demand of the employees and organizations but also provide those necessary skills which employees need in future to perform their job tasks. Researchers shifted their views of training to job relatedness, highly structured, knowledge based learning to element of development

(Noe et al., 1997). The clear and better understanding of training environment can help HRD professionals to maximize the training transfer at work place and increase return on training investment (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon; 1991). In addition, Holton (1997) argued that in order to build better training transfer theory, the researchers need to highlight and measure the factors which affect the training transfer process.

The term training and development belongs to the two different levels of employees, although, the purpose of both activities is to improve the employees performance and ultimately achieve organizational goals. Salas and Cannon (2001) argued that training play important role to achieve strategic objectives of the organization. Cascio (2007) argued that the term training belongs to lower-level employees and development belongs to higher level employees. Mostly, the companies' major concern is training and they are investing huge amount on training activities. One of the reasons for their concern is that the major portion of employees belongs to lower-level and when they equipped their lower level staff with necessary skills by providing training then they can go for development process.

Mostly, the management of the organizations considers training as expense instead of investment. The reason behind this perception is that, HRD professionals have not been able to convince top management about the results or return on investment by providing training to their employees. Garavaglia (1993) argued that HRD professionals should explain how training investment increase the organizational performance and justify training investment. In addition, they should make sure the trainees transfer the learned skills at workplace. Garavaglia (1993) proposed that the job of the HRD practitioners is to assess the value of what participant gain from training and how training activities enhance the employees performance at workplace.

To cope with the difficult job tasks and performance improvement, employee learning and transfer of learned skills to the workplace is important. The learning process should not be only at the individual level but HRD professionals should maintain and improve the learning process at all levels of organization. Employees and organizational competencies for competitive global business environment (Petty, Lim, and Zulauf, 2008) learning plays vital role to address performance issues at all organizational levels (Poell and Van, 2003).

The learner should transfer the learned skills to the workplace in order for the training to be effective and result oriented. Even if the learner have learned the taught material, the learned skills would be useless if the learner cannot transfer the learned skills. Mackay (2007) found that improvement do not last long as the delegate return to an office that does not have a structured plan in place to support the newly acquired behavior or skill. HRD professionals need to focus on many aspects of the training design, delivery method, environmental support to maximize the level of learning and skills transfer. Researchers and practitioners argue that training professionals focus more on training delivery method rather than connecting training site with actual working environment which is most important to maximize training transfer (Montesino, 2002).

2.5 Employees training transfer and organizational goals

The design stage of training play an important role in the outcomes and affect the employees and organizational performance. Training design with reference to employees explain that the content of the training should be similar with the actual job and the skills needs of the employees required improving the performance. With reference to the organizational perspectives, the important point is what kind of skills required to achieve organizational goals. The HRD professionals should make sure that

the design of the training program is aligned with the organizational objectives and goals. In other words, they have to link up the training activities and outcome of training with the organizational strategic objectives.

The past studies regarding training and development has focused on the importance of connecting individual or team learning objectives to organizational goals (Goldstein and Ford, 2002). Strategic HRD highlight the role of training and development activities in developing organizational strategies and to achieve organizational strategic goals (Kirwan and Birchall, 2006). Through training and development organizations can achieve their strategic goals by using strategic needs analysis to identify the key performance areas for the organization (Birdi, Patterson, and Wood, 2007) and different tasks employees need to perform in order to achieve those goals and the underlying knowledge and skills needed to perform those tasks (Gould, Kelly, White, and Chidgey, 2004).

Training professionals should design training activities in accordance with organizational goals and objectives. They should make sure the provided training is sufficient to perform required tasks to achieve organizational objectives. Mackay (2007) argued that much of the training offered is in itself excellent, but it is often not planned with the organization's corporate goals and objectives in mind. The basic aim of the employees training is to assist organization to achieve their objectives. Kauffeldd and Lehmann (2010) argued that organizations have been investing huge amount of money to upgrade their employees competencies to cope with the rapid changing business environment. They further discussed that it is important for organizations to upgrade employee's skills, knowledge and abilities to perform better in the global business environment. HRD professionals have started to draw government attention towards the importance of technically skilled workforce with the business objectives of

organizations (Hawley and Paek, 2005). In this regard, researchers have developed the concept of National Human Resource Development (NHRD) (McLean, 2004).

At the time of training design, the HRD professional should demonstrate how training activities and outcomes will affect the organizational performance. In this regard, when trainers or management design training program they directly link up the training outcomes with the organizational strategies. The information derived from strategic needs analysis can therefore help to identify the most appropriate learning practice for changing employee's knowledge, skills and behavior to benefits organizational performance (Birdi et al., 2007) In other words, connecting training program with the strategic direction of the organization can play an important role in the training effectiveness. Furthermore, the HRD professionals should focus on continuous monitoring of the process of employee learning to transfer and their effect on the organizational performance and helpful to achieve their set targets and performance standards. Therefore, the organization should monitor the employees learning practices with regard to subsequent changes in work behavior and business result (Kirkpatrick, 1996).

The concept of need analysis is not only related with employees, but also with the organizations. After employee performance appraisal, HRD professional conduct need analysis and design training program to improve employee's performance. At the same time need analysis should be perform for the organizational point of view. HRD professionals should analyze what kind of expertise, employee's skills and resources required to improve organizational performance. In other words, HRD professionals should link up the employee performance to organizational performance and this only could happen when need analysis would be perform for employees as well as organizations to cover up the performance loop-holes. Therefore, when organization

perform proper strategic needs analysis, they get more performance benefits from their investment in learning activities ((Birdi et al., 2007).

For better results from the training activities or effective training outcomes, it's important to make trainee realize their role towards achieving organizational goals. If the employees will realize their role and feel their performance is critical for organizational performance, they will put more efforts to perform well as compare to those who don't realize the importance of their role in the organization. These kinds of perceptions can improve the employee's commitment with organization and would be helpful for better training outcomes. The usage of training or learning and training transfer towards employee commitment and link of training program with strategic direction of the organization can be consider in two perspectives, (1) the employees who report high usage of training are more committed with organization and perceived higher alignment of training program with strategic direction or, and (2) employees committed with organization and perceive higher alignment of training program with strategic direction will report high usage of training. In this regard, Montesino (2002) found that trainees that self-reported very high usage of training perceived a significantly higher alignment of the training program with the strategic direction of the organization as compare to the group of trainees that self-reported low usage of training. Mackay (2007) reported that having an independent and objective analysis of training needs can often transcend the office politics and personality issues. This means that courses are delivered that support business strategy rather than ticking box.

Montesino (2002) proposed that researcher should focus more on the alignment of training with corporate strategy. Mackay (2007) suggested that to unleash potential and create value, effective training must have a foundation in company vision and goals and must be measured.

For effective training, it is necessary for the trainers and management to make trainees realize the importance of training. Clark et al., (1993) found that those organizations who perceive training activities as wasting of time and money cannot enjoy the fruits of training results. Because it is difficult to convince trainees that training will affect their job performance or career opportunities in these situations.

2.6 Importance of Training Transfer in Employees Training Process

Process of employees training and development based on five stages as described by (Dessler, 2007).

First step belongs to ***Need Analysis*** in which the management identifies the specific skills needed to perform the job task, skills needed for the trainer to perform training activities, set the objectives of the training and develop scale to measure the knowledge of the trainees. Training need analysis is important in many perspective; (1) Need analysis help HRD professionals to find out the areas where trainee need improvement, (2) It is not only important to improve the performance but also predict what kind of skills trainees need in future to cope with the changing business environment, (3) HRD professionals analyze the skills needed by the employees to perform better on their job and identify how these expertise support organizational objective.

Mackay (2007) proposed that business that want to get the most out of their training budget should ideally assess their training needs in line with the organization's business, sales and growth objectives. They should ask: "where is the business going and what do we need our people to do?" Simply asking the question will create focus (one of the things needed for effective training on long-term business results. These simple questions not only clear the things needed for effective training but also make

employees to understand or realize what kind of skills they should have to improve their performance. Therefore, HRD professionals should focus on the need analysis and the analysis should be free from biased behavior.

Furthermore, Clark, Dobbins, and Ladd (2003) argued that training needs analysis is seen as providing key data for answering where training should be directed in the organization, who should receive training and what the content of such training should be. They further suggested that existing conceptual frameworks of TNA must be improved upon if there is to be far greater diffusion of more effective training practices to practitioners.

The second step relates to ***Instructional design*** in which the trainers select the method of training, On the job training (OJT) or training outside the workplace, contents of training and activities to be perform during training. Garavaglia (1993) argued that Instructional designers can use different techniques to maximize the training transfer at work place. In addition, Nikandrou et al., (2009) argued that the goals and the extent of training, the training methods and means, as well as the training place and equipment, are important factors related to training program planning.

The third step is to validate the training plan by applying the full training plan on a small group of people to see whether the program work properly and change the program where needed. To get better results from training programs, it is important to test the training plan on a small group or team. By using this technique, trainers can see whether the training plan is working properly and rectify mistakes if any or improve the training plan where needed.

The fourth step relates to the real implementation of the training plan on the targeted employees. The last and important stage is the evaluation of the training in which analyses are performed to see whether the training program is successful or not.

Evaluation of training expose the amount of efforts invested by all parties involved in the training program like trainer, trainee, top management, peers, and supervisors. Evaluation of training provides feedback to all involved parties that which area they need to focus more and how they can improve the training outcomes. Evaluation of training is also important to see whether training program have achieved desired goal and objectives if not, how they can maximize the training outcomes and which area they need to focus more.

Various researches (Holton, Bates, and Ruona, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 1976) have been focused on the training evaluation system and suggest different models for training evaluation. The focus of these researchers was on the training transfer and affective reaction. Wang and Wilcox (2006) argued that as a systematic process for developing needed workplace knowledge and expertise, instructional systems design requires an evaluation component to determine if the training program achieved its intended goal.

A number of reasons have been noted for organizations failing to conduct systematic evaluations. Swanson (2005) pointed out that many training professionals either do not believe in evaluation or do not possess the mind-set necessary to conduct evaluation. Moreover, to see the outcomes of the training program, HRD professionals should realize the importance of training evaluation because with training evaluation they can see the result of their efforts. The organizational culture also plays an important role in conducting the training evaluation. The reason behind not believing and lack of proper mind set about training evaluation from HRD professionals perspectives can be organizational culture because all mind set and believes system comes from the organizational culture. It is the responsibility of top management and HRD professionals to build a strong training culture within the organization in which all parties strongly realize the importance of training and training evaluation.

Another important reason for conducting training evaluation is that, by giving positive results of the training program, training managers can convince top management to consider training as investment rather than wasting of money and time. One possible reason for not conducting training evaluation is, HRD professional or training managers are not sure about the results of the training and are normally afraid to justify the amount and time spent for the training program. Spitzer (1999) argued that many training professionals don not wish to evaluate their training programs because of the lack of confidence in whether their programs add value to, or have impact on the organization.

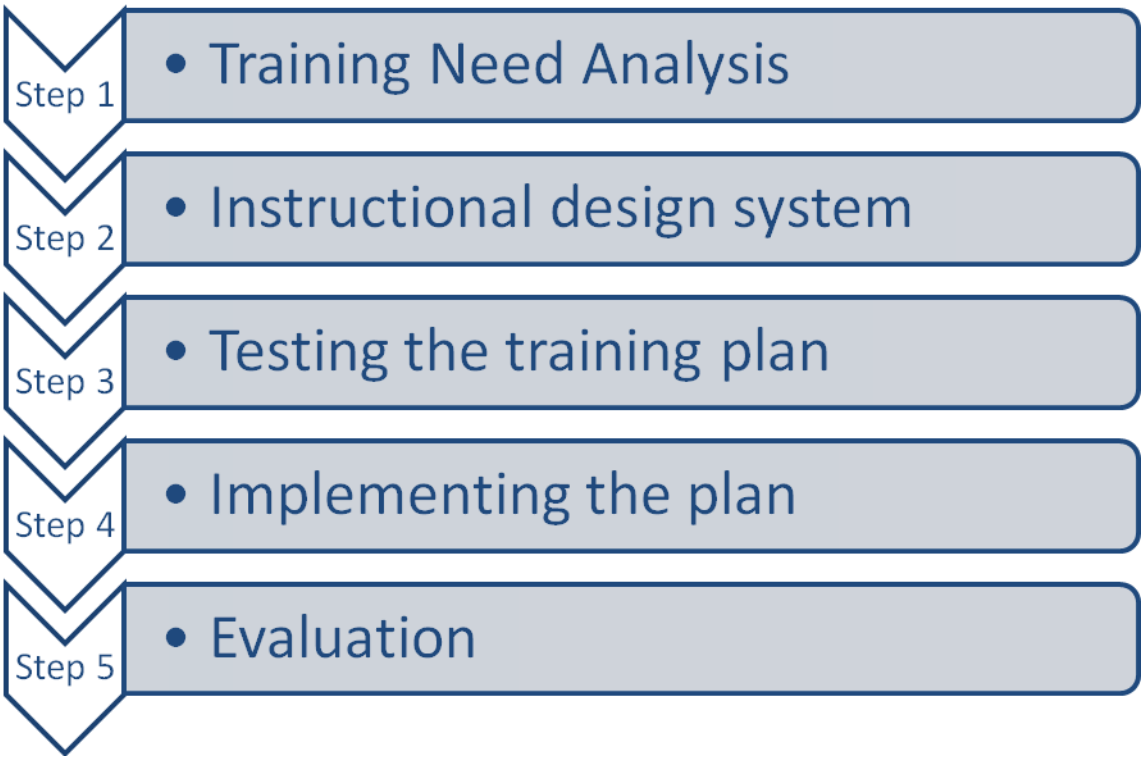
It has been noted that many organizations are desperate to evaluate their training outcomes but due to lack of resources and top management support, HRD professionals are unable to conduct training evaluation. In contrast, sometimes top management interested to evaluate the training program but due to lack of expertise in HRD professionals they cannot see the results of training programs. Desimone, Werner and Harris (2002) highlighted that lack of evaluation in training was also attributed to the lack of resources and expertise, as well as lack of an organization culture that support such efforts. Brown and Gerhardt (2002) concluded that companies expend even less effort in evaluating the instructional design process.

In the past, many researchers have proposed different evaluation models to measure the outcomes of training. Amongst them Kirkpatrick's model is widely accepted. Kirkpatrick (1976) came up with the training evaluation model and divided it into four levels; Affective reaction, learning, transfers and results. Alliger et al., (1997) extended Kirkpatrick's work and divided the Affective reaction outcomes into two categories; Utility reaction and Affective reaction. Kirkpatrick's measures are useful for evaluating training outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2000; Kraiger, Ford, and Sales, 1993; Quinones and

Ehrenstein, 1997). Kirkpatrick's model is also simple, easy to understand and comprehensive.

Training Process Chart (Colquitt et al., 2000)

(Figure: 2.1)



2.7 Role of Training Transfer in performance Improvement

Training strategies can be different in small firms compared to large firms. Moreover, researchers found that employee's response to training activities is different in large firms compared to small and medium size firms. This could be due to the reluctance of management in small firms to provide training, while management of bigger firms is keener on training. Thus, findings from research suggest that employees of SMEs are

less likely to take part in training than those working in large organizations (Lange, Ottens, and Taylor, 2000).

Osman and Jacobs(2005) recommended that companies increase their training budgets to accommodate more training programs for employees. However, it should be cautioned that training should be viewed as an investment and not an expense. The reason behind considering training as expense is the lack of evaluating skills in HRD professionals and lack of specific evaluation criteria. Osman and Jacobs (2005) also suggested that training program should be structured to include technical training as well as management training.

Training professionals develop training strategies in accordance with the company goals and objectives, needs of the employee's and the size of the company. Organizations maintain competitive edge in the market by providing up to date knowledge and skills to their employees. Gardiner, Leat and Smith (2001) argued that organizations keep pace with the dynamic business scenario through acquisition of the most recent knowledge and skills. The central issue of training and development is to engage employees in effective learning. To maximize the utility of training, it is important that training deliverers actively promote such engagement (Robotham, 2004). Engagement of employees with training activities can be increased by motivating them and making them realize how training can help them to improve their performance and organizational productivity. In addition, researchers and training professionals have been focusing on the factors that affect the transfer of training to the work place.

Training is one of the crucial strategies for organizations to assist employees to gain those necessary knowledge and skills needed to meet challenges (Goldstein and Gilliama, 1990). Researchers argued that training is one of the most important and reliable technique to enhance organizational and employee's productivity. To

accomplish the organizational tasks and better employees' performance, training programs should be designed in such a way that it creates a win-win situation on the part of organizations and employees.

Organizations and employees can only achieve their goals if learning skills are effectively transferred to the work place. Acton (2003) argued that training and development of employees is essential for organizational operation, and advancement. From an employee's perspective, these same factors are both crucial and critical for skills development and for career advancement.

There can be different ways to assist managers and employees to achieve their job tasks in which training is most important. Krishnaveni and Sripirabaa (2008) argued that, among HRM activities, Training and Development Activities (TDA) has gained great significance in the competitive and diverse business environment, because many organizations spend large portion of their earning on employees training to compensate for escalating rates of attrition.

Moreover, training can be more helpful for employees and managers to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Training helps organizations to achieve their desired goals and training should be designed in accordance with the organizational plans and goals. In other words, training enables the employee to play his/her role effectively to achieve the organizational objectives and help the management to get competitive advantage in the market.

Researchers, training professionals, management of the organization perceive the importance of training in different dimensions; Strober (1990) argued that training helps to increase productivity of the both employees and organizations; Heyes and Stuart (1996) found that training increase the commitment of the employees towards achieving the organizational task and improve the performance. Furthermore,

Muramatsu, Haruo, and Kazuyoshi (1987) suggested that training enables employees to perform a flexible range of tasks in their related job area. Moreover, Osman and Jacobs (2005) suggested that the duration of training sessions should be appropriate to allow employees sufficient time to absorb new knowledge.

Mostly, advance technology, potential market, effective quality system become ineffective, if the employees are not well trained to make proper use of advance technology or if the employees have lack of understanding about the new technology, lack of skills to handle the potential market or poor knowledge about the quality systems. In these circumstances, training is the best possible solution to enjoy the fruits of available opportunities. Now-a-days, it's difficult for the organizations to escape from the growing needs for training (Forrier and Sels, 2003) because of fast changing business environment which forcing organizations to training their employees as per their current requirement and later retraining them (Herman and Eller, 1991).

2.8 Training and Development in Malaysia:

Malaysia is situated in Southeast Asia. Malaysian border attached with Thailand, Singapore and Borneo Island. Around 20 percent population resides in East and 80 percent in west Malaysia. Malaysia is democratic country with rapid economic growth since 1990. With Multicultural society which consisting of 61% Malays, 25% Chinese and 7% Indians and 7% others.

In past Malaysian economy was based on Agriculture which later shifted to industrialization. The major exports include palm oil and electronic products. To achieve the goals of Malaysian 2020 plan the government has announced various policies and plans to strengthen human resource development area.

Human resource development play important role to strengthen the Malaysian economy (Muhammad and Idris, 2005). In addition, Othman (2001) argued that Malaysian government has been focusing on education and training of the human resource in order to successfully manage the New Economic Plan. According to Othman (2001), "In the 1980s Malaysia geared education and training towards consolidation, embedding efficiency as a variable in meeting work force requirements to achieve the objectives of NEP".

The purpose of HRDF is to engage Malaysian private sector employers to contribute 1% of their total salary in the fund. According to (Muhammad and Idris, 2005) "Human Resource Development Berhad, the trustee to HRDF, promotes the retraining and upgrading of private sector employees in line with business needs and national economy".

Private training providers and employers fully engage to upgrade the employees competencies in public sector (Azillah and Mazanah, 1999). According to Muhammad and Idris (2005) "many public training providers were set up, and other formal workplace learning programs initiated, as allocated by the government under the human resource development programs". In this regard, Malaysian government has established public training institutions with the name of National Institute of Public Administration (INTAN).

To boost the training and development culture and better employees and organizational performance, Malaysian government has been offered incentives and exemption on the training activities (Economic review, May, 2008). According to the policy, the following expenses which occur on the training activities are exempted from taxes and duties.

2.8.1 Training Activities:

- ➔ Investment tax allowance.
- ➔ Double deduction on expense for training.
- ➔ Single deduction on expenses for pre-training expenses, contribution in cash to technical or vocational training institute and providing practical training to non-employees.
- ➔ Industry building allowance.
- ➔ Import duty and sales tax exemption on material, sample and equipment.
- ➔ Duty drawback.

The Malaysian government has been taking many initiatives towards providing skilled work force to the corporate industry. In this regard, the government has established different departments at the government and semi-government level. At the government level, they have Ministry of Human resource Malaysia. Under the ministry of human resource Malaysia, they have many other departments, Malaysian institute of human resource management (MIHRM), Malaysian society for training and development (MSTD) and Department of skills development (DSD).

The purpose of all these departments and institutions is to provide the skilled work force to the corporate industry. Each department has specific responsibilities towards the managing human resource in Malaysia. The main purpose of Malaysian society for training and development (MSTD) is to facilitate the corporate sectors regarding training the employees. Department of skills development focuses more on improving the basic skills of the Malaysian people and adjusts them in different economic sectors.

2.8.2 Training in the Banking Sector

Banking sector in Malaysia have been operating with sound financial backup. The Association of Banks in Malaysia (ABM) believes that Malaysian banking sector is in a position to support the domestic business activities. According to ABM, "there is no credit crunch in Malaysia and banks in Malaysia have a strong domestic presence, with 90 per cent of the total assets in Ringgit denominated assets and most of the investments and assets are concentrated in Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)". (Economic review, May, 2008)

In any economy, service sector play a vital role in economic development. The service sector not only creates high job market but also support other sectors of the economy. Service sector which includes, tourism, transportation, banking and finance, information and communication technology (ICT) and manufacturing related services consider as back bone for Malaysian economy. Researchers suggested that to successfully manage the strategies in service sector, managers should focus more on training and development activities and equip employees with the skills required to manage future performance of the employees (Rynes, Giluk, and Brown., 2007).

Chen, Sok and Sok (2007) explored the potential factors leading to effective training of banking sector in Cambodia. Chen et al., (2007) found that the education sector in Cambodia is not working up to standard but the banking sector still performs very well. The factors behind are that, they are providing effective training to their employees. The researcher use effectiveness of training as dependent variable and six factors as independent variables which are: training needs assessment; training program, flexibility of training, self-efficacy, environmental factors and transfer of knowledge. The results of this study indicate that six propositions are influential on the effectiveness of training. First TNA provide basic information about lack of employee's

competencies with reference to performance improvement. Second, effective training design can influence the effectiveness of training. Third, trainer should design training program which covers learning styles of every employee. Last but not least, peer and supervisor support motivate the employees and maximize the training transfer.

2.8.3 Training in Malaysian Banking Sector

In Malaysian service industry, Banking and Finance has been playing vital role for economic development. According to Economic review (Feb, 2008) the Malaysian banking and finance sector have highest growth rate with average of 11.7%. In current competitive economic environment, strong banking sector is important for economic development (Economic review, May, 2009).

Employees' training in Malaysian banking sector has been getting more attention for last two decades. The government has launched many projects and established different institutions in order to provide training facilities to the financial sector. The purpose of these projects and institutions is to provide highly trained professionals to the financial industry and fulfill their training needs.

The financial sector has also been used their best available resources for providing training to the employees but less attention has been given to the transfer of training issues which is one of the important criteria for training evaluation. The reasons behind this less focus on training transfer can be lack of expertise of the training providers for training evaluation, lack of top management support, lack of sufficient resources for conducting training evaluation or may be top management don't realize the importance of training evaluation for employees as well as organizational performance .

2.9 Factors Effecting Transfer of Training

Holton, Bates, Seyler and Carvalho (1997) defined transfer of training as "the degree to which trainees apply to their job the knowledge, skills, behavior and attitudes they gained in training". After a couple of decades of research on training, doubt about training effectiveness has prompted a surge in research in recent years (Salas and Bowers, 2001). Organizations, researchers and HRD professionals realized that if they want to improve the employees as well as organizational performance they have to invest in training activities. But highlighted the point whether the training is effective or not. Because if they are investing in training activities and the results are not fruitful, the investment would be considered wasting of money and time. Moreover, Phillips and Phillips (2001) argued that the increasing pressure within organizations to use resource as efficiently as possible is also leading to an increasing requirement for accountability and for training to be demonstrably effective. In adition, Scaduto et al., (2008) argued that training is one of the most frequently utilized human resource development (HRD) intervention.

Research on Training, development and education has received great attention in the last two decades (Pilati and Borges; 2008). To develop strong training transfer theory, many researchers developed different training transfer models and identified many factors which affect transfer of training. TDandE evaluation models are classified into two types; (1) generic models, which have a summative nature, describes a large group of variables and serves as guidelines for the scientific and professional understanding of phenomena related to TDandE (Pilati and Borges; 2008) and (2) specific models, which are usually derived from models of the first types and are built for testing relationship between specific variables and outcomes of TDandE (Axtell, Maitlis, and Yearta, 1997). Pilati and Borges (2008) argued that generic models have important functions

because they organize knowledge, while specific models are responsible for the empirical testing of relationships between variables. They further argued that the continuous production of knowledge in TDandE validates generic models and through the empirical test of the specific models allows the development of technological improvements in the field. The following are the discussion of the model developed by different researchers in the past:

Huczynski and Lewis (1980) divided factors affecting transfer of training into three categories; (a) Individual characteristics, (b) supervisor support and (c) work environment forces. The individual factor includes (a) choice to attend the training, (b) Motivation to learn (c) learning because of perceived content relevancy. Supervisor support includes a supervisor who encourages and reinforces an individual application of newly learned skills to the job. Finally work environment includes work load, work crises, difficulty in convincing others about new ideas, and rapid changes.

Huczynski and Lewis (1980) described that the individual characteristics, work environment and supervisor support influence the transfer of learning and proposed that the researchers should find out other factors which affect the transfer of learning for effective learning transfer.

Noe (1986) worked on the training transfer factors and described individual factors which includes individual attitude and attributes effects on the motivation to learn. Furthermore, motivational factors includes locus of control, expectancy, career and job attitude, motivation to learn, motivation to transfer, Affective reaction to skills assessment feedback and perception of environmental favorability.

A well known framework for the transfer problem (Baldwin and Ford, 1988) suggested that transfer is a function of three factors: trainee characteristics which includes ability or skills, motivation, and personality factors, work environment which includes climate

factors such as supervisory or peer support as well as constraints and opportunities to perform learned behavior on the job, training design factors which includes principles of learning, sequencing and training content, learning retention. They further argued that researcher should highlight the factors which play important role in training transfer.

Baldwin and Ford (1988) model explain that training design characteristics like identical elements, stimulus variability maximize the training transfer. According to the model the content of the training should be similar with the actual job performance and trainer should use different examples from actual work to make trainee realize that training activities will affect performance. These characteristics would help trainee to maximize the learning and transfer.

With reference to trainee characteristics, Baldwin and Ford (1988) suggested that ability, motivational and personality characteristics influence the training transfer. The idea of motivation explained by Vroom (1964) and later on Baldwin and Ford (1988) included this concept for training activities. They further argued that the researchers have been given less attention on the motivation to learn and motivation to transfer. Furthermore, environmental characteristics like peer support, supervisor support, and climate also influence the training transfer.

Holton et al., (1997) further extend the training transfer theory and develop Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI). Holton et al., divided LTSI into three categories which includes, learning, individual performance and organizational performance. Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) considered 16 factors that are likely to influence the transfer of training in the work place. These factors are: learner readiness, motivation to transfer, positive personal outcomes, negative personal outcomes, personal capacity for transfer, peer support, supervisor support, supervisor sanctions,

perceived content validity, transfer design, opportunity to use, transfer effort-performance expectations, performance outcomes expectations, openness to change, performance self efficacy and performance coaching.

Holton et al., (1997) explained that learning effect the individual performance which leads to effect organizational performance. They also stated that individual characteristics and perceptions of environmental forces influence individual performance. Furthermore, environmental factors which include, feedback, peer support, supervisor support, openness to change, personal outcomes also affect the individual performance.

Guerrero and Sire (2001) empirically tested another model by using (Baldwin and Ford, 1988) foundation by including individual variables (age/seniority), Organizational variables (voluntary action, information on training programme and support of supervisor) training motivation (self-efficacy and Instrumentality) and training results (learning and satisfaction). They found that age (and, through collinearity, seniority) is negatively related with self-efficacy and feelings (training will affects my career). Furthermore, they explained that age has no significant relationship with the workers perception that training influence skills development.

Kirwan and Birchall (2006) tested the Holton and Bates model and found that the model does adequately represent the effects of its factors. They found that transfer design and perceived content validity work together and influence performance self-efficacy. Furthermore, learner readiness affects transfer motivation directly and transfer motivation effect on the learner personal capacity for transfer.

To extend the boundaries of training transfer, Velada et al., (2007) developed a model and empirically tested the effects of transfer design, self-efficacy, training retention, feedback and supervisor support on Transfer of Training. In this study, (Velada et al.,

2007) taken most of the scale from (Seyler et al., 1998) and found out that transfer design, performance self-efficacy, training retention and performance feedback were significantly related to transfer of training but supervisor support was not significantly related with transfer of training.

With the further development, Liebermann and Hoffmann (2008) developed another training transfer model by using (Baldwin and Ford, 1988) work and (Kirkpatrick, 1976) training evaluation model. They included six factors in the model; perceived practical relevance, supervisor support, transfer motivation, Affective reaction, learning and transfer. Liebermann and Hoffmann (2008) found that perceived practical relevance effect on the participant affective reaction and also influence the transfer motivation and actual transfer. They also found that supervisor support have significant relationship with transfer motivation.

Nikandrou et al., (2009) present an empirical study based on a trainee-oriented systematic model for training transfer. The model included trainee characteristics (personality, skills, career utility, job utility, commitment, perception for learning, perception for transfer and internal reward) which affect the motivation to learn and transfer and determine the trainees' entry behavior. The model also included training design factors (content of training, trainer, method, trainee, team and program planning) and their effects on direct and indirect transfer and employee's performance. They found that motivation to learn and trainee goals are significant and the two related factors are important for the training process. Moreover, training design and the specific method used, which was trainee-centered, play an important role in what we have called indirect training. They further suggest that professionalism, punctuality, consistency, and team-working are all characteristics acquired through training, due to the method used, and transferred to work. Nikandrou et al., (2009) found that trainee

thinks that the internal rewards from participating in a training program are important as they get more self-confident that they have the necessary knowledge and they are abreast of new knowledge.

With the development of the research, the researchers and training professionals further classify these factors. Different researchers have identified different factors that directly or indirectly affect the transfer of learning. These factors categorize as individual, situational, environmental or contextual and training design factors. Holton et al., (1997) explain the concept of training transfer and define transfer of training as the degree to which trainees apply to their jobs the knowledge, skills behavior, and attitudes they gained in training.

Garavaglia (1993) proposed that the two main reasons behind low rate of training transfer are lack of environmental support and employees perception about training as wasting of time.

Baldwin and Ford (1988) classify these characteristics in three ways including trainee characteristics (abilities, personal characteristics and motivation), training design (principle of learning and retention, sequencing, principles of training) work environment (supportive in terms of time, supervisory support) and conditions that promote transfer (supervisor support, opportunity to use the learning). May and Kahnweiler (2000) also suggested that researcher and training professional focus more on design stage but trainee characteristics and environmental support play vital role in training transfer and change in behavior. Brinkerhoff and Montesino (1995) stated that "several factors are known, or suspected to effect usage of training on the job. These factors are related to the individual learner, the training program, the environment in which the trainee work, and, most of all, the trainee's immediate supervisor."(p.265)

To enlist the factor effecting transfer of training the research journals, books, conceptual papers have been reviewed and found out that the following variables have been identified and tested by the researchers.

Table 2.1

Factors Effecting Transfer of Training

Variables	Studies
Individual Factors:	
Cognitive ability	Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Clark and Voogel, 1985; Colquitt, et al., 2001; Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989; Roe and Earles, 1991; Robertson and Downs, 1979.
Self-efficacy	Bandura, 1982; Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005; Ford, et al., 1998; Gist, Schwoerer, and Rosen, 1989; Gaudine and Saks, 2004; Gist 1989; Harrison, et al., 1993; Latham and Frayne, 1989; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, and Sala 1992; Saks, 1995; Steven and Gist 1997
Pre-training motivation	Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005; Facteau, et al., 1995; Noe, 1986; Quinones, 1995; Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992.
Motivation to transfer	Axtell, Maitlis, and Yearta, 1997; Kontoghiorghes, 2002; Machin and Fogarty, 2004; Noe, 1986; Ruona, Leimbach and Holton, 2002; Seyler, Burnett, and Holton, 1998.
Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation	Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Rouiller and Goldstin, 1993; Santos and Stuart, 2003; Taylor, Russ-Eft, and Chan 2005; Tracey, Tannenbaumm, and Kavanagh, 1995; Taylor et al. 2005.
Anxiety or negative	Colquitt, 2000; Holton and Naquin 2002; Herold, et al.,

affectivity	2002; Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989; Machin and Fogarty, 2004; Webster and Martocchio, 1993;
Openness to experience	Barrick and Mount's, 1991; Herold, 2002; Lemke and Miller, 1974; Olivera and Strauss, 2004
Conscientiousness	Barrick and Mount, 1991; Colquitt et al. 2000; Herold et al. 2002; Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989; Martocchio and Judge, 1997; Martocchio and Judge, 1997;
Perceived utility	Axtell et al., 1997; Baumgartel, Reynolds and Pathan, 1984; Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Clark, Dobbins, and Ladd, 1993; Lim and Morris, 2006; Ruona et al., 2002; Warr and Bunce, 1995; Yelon, Sheppard, et al., 2004,
Career Planning	Clark et al., 1993; Colquitt et al., 2000; Facteau et al., 1995; Kontoghiorghes, 2002; Mathieu et al., 1992; Noe and Schmitt 1986; Pidd and Kontoghiorghes, 2004;
External and internal locus of control	Baumgartel et al., 1984; Colquitt et al., 2000, Tziner and Falbe, 1993; Tziner, Haccoun, Kadish, 1991;
Training retention	Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Konlog and Hiorghes, 2001, Noe et al., 2006; Raquel et al., 2007; Wexley and Latham, 2002;
Learner readiness	Bates and Holton, 2000; 2007; Cyril kirwan et al., 2006; Factearu et al., 1995; Stephen et al., 2008;
Training design	
Need analysis	Bennett, et al., 2003; Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995; Broad, 2005; Broad and Newstrom, 1992; Bates and

	Khasawneh, 2005; Clark et al., 1993; Gaudine and Saks, 2004; Holton Bates and Ruona, 2000; Khasawneh, Bates, and Holton, 2004; McGehee and Thayer, 1961; Rummler and Brache, 1995; Rossett, 1999; Swanson, 2003; Seyler et al., 1998; Yamnill and Mclean, 2005,
Learning goals	Brown, 2005; Gagne, 1965; Kraiger, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers, 1995; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Locke, Shaw, Saari, Latham, 1981; Locke and Latham, 2002; Locket et al., 1981; Lee and Pucil, 1998; Mager, 1962; 1967; Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Taylor et al., 2005; Wexley and Baldwin, 1986; Wexley and Nemeroff, 1975;
Content relevance	Bates, 2003; Clark and Voogel, 1985; Holton, 2000; Lim and Morris, 2006; Rodriguez and Gregory, 2005; Thorndike and Woodworth, 1901; Yamnill and McLean, 2005.
Practice and feed back	Donovan and Radosevich, 1999; Ford and Kraiger, 1995; Holladay and Quinones, 2003; Lee and Kahnweiler, 2000; Salas, Rozell, Mullen, and Driskell, 1999; Warr and Allan, 1998;
Over-learning	Czerwinski, Lightfoot, and Shiffrin, Rogers, 1992; Driskell, Copper, and Willis, 1992; Fisk, Hertzog, Lee, Rogers, and Anderson, 1994; Fisk and Hodge, 1992; Fisk, Lee, and Rogers, 1991; Fogarty, 2004; Schneider and Fisk, 1984;
Cognitive overload	Chandler and Sweller, 1991; van Merrienboer, 1997; van

	Merrienboer, Kester, and Paas, 2006
Active learning	Burke et al., 2006; Myers and Jones, 1993; Middendorf and Kalish, 1996; McKeachie, Pintrich, Lin, and Smith, 1987; Silberman, 1998; Silberman and Auerbach, 2006; Stuart and Rutherford, 1978;
Behavior modeling	Bandura, 1997; Decker, 1980, 1982; 1985; Taylor et al., 2005
Error based examples	Ivancic and Hesketh's 2000; Smith-Jenstsch, Jentsch, Payne, and Salas, 1996;
Self-management strategies	Brown, 2005; Broad and Sullivan, 2002; Burke and Baldwin, 1999; Gist, Bavetta, and Stevens, 1990, Foxon, 1997; Frayne and Latham, 1987; Gaudine and Saks, 2004; Hutchins and Burke, 2006; Locke et al., 1981; Latham and Frayne, 1989; Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Richman-Hirsch, 2001; Wexley and Baldwin, 1986; Wexley and Baldwin, 1986;
Technological support	Burke, 2001; Coast Guard, Rossett and Marino, 2005; Eddy and Tannenbaum, 2003; Mcmanus and Rossett, 2006; Rossett and Mohr, 2004; Wang and Wentling, 2001;
Transfer design	Holton et. al., 2000, 2005; Kirwan and Birchall, 2006; May and Kahnweiler, 2000; Raquel et al., 2007;
Environmental factors	
Strategic link	Lim and Johnson, 2002; Montesino, 2002; Watad and Ospina 1999

Transfer climate	Burke and Baldwin 1999; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Kontoghiorghes, Russ-Eft, 2002; Lim and Morris, 2006; Mathieu et al., 1992; Machin and Fogarty, 2004; Ruona et al., 2002; Richman-Hirsch 2001; Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993; Tracey et al., 1995;
Supervisor and Peer support	Awoniyi, Griego, and Morgan, 2002; Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995; Broad and Newstrom, 1992; Burke and Baldwin, 1999; Clark 2002, , Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005; Facteau et al., 1995; Foxon, 1997; Gielen, and Nauta, 2001; Hawley and Barnard, 2005; Lim and Johnson, 2002; Smith-Jenstsch, Salas, and brannick, 2001; Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch, and Behson, 1998; Van dar Klink, Mcsherry and Taylor, 1994.
Opportunity to perform	Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995; Clark, 2002; Ford and Quinones, 1992; Gaudine and Saks, 2004; Gregoire, 1994; Lim and Morris, 2006; Lim and Johnson, 2002; Rooney, 1985.
Accountability	Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995; Baldwin, Magjuka, and Loher, 1991; Bates, 2003; Kontoghiorghes, 2002; Longnecker's 2004; Russ-Eft, 2002.
Situational Factors:	
Job assignment, Instrumentality, situational constraints	Baldwin, Magjuka, and Loher, 1991; cf. peter and O'Connor, 1980; Goldstein, 1991; Hicks and Klimoski, 1987; Peters, O'Connor, and Eulberg, 1985; Phillips and Freedman, 1984; Ryman and Biersner, 1975;

Reaction	Alliger et al., 1989; Alliger et al., 1997; Baldwin 1992; Dixon, 1990; Holton and Bates, 2002; Latham and Saari, 1979; Morgan et al., 2000, Noe et al., 1986; Russell et al., 1984; Runoa et al., 2002; Tannenbavm et al., 1991; Vroom, 1964; Warr et al., 1995, Wexley and Baldwin, 1986; Warr et al., 1999;

2.9.1 Selection Criteria of Variables

It remains a challenge to establish a theory on the transfer of training even with the identification of many influencing factors. On the bases of previous studies, this study have identified those factors, which are closely related to the transfer of training. This study build a combination of those variables and test them by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Hence, the purpose of this study is to provide a clear insight about the factors that affect the transfer of training. This study will be helpful for researchers to focus more on the important ingredients of the training program.

The framework especially for the effective transfer of training to the work place and most importantly to improve the employees and company performance has been proposed in this study. Every variable in this framework represents specific categories like individual factors, environmental factors, situational and design factors. The most important and closely related variables from each category are included and proposed a framework. The selection criteria for the variables are as follows:

Phase I: Identification of the most important variables from each category. Important variables are those variables which have strong effects on transfer motivation and training transfer.

Phase II: Analyzed previous research works concerning the variables and separate those variables that have contradictory results or previous researches have mixed results like supervisor support, peer support and affective reaction measures.

Phase III: Further separation from the remaining variables which need further empirical research like learner readiness and transfer design.

Phase IV: For the remaining variables, I propose to test the relationship between different variables to develop the concept of transfer of training. These variables are perceived content validity, instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards), transfer motivation and performance self-efficacy.

2.9.2 Gaps and Contribution of this Research

Gap 1: Researchers have not empirically tested the effects of transfer design and perceived content validity on Performance self-efficacy.

Gap 2: *Researchers have not* empirically tested the relationship between Instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards) and training retention.

Gap 3: Results of supervisor support and peer support are not clear. Therefore, the need is to further investigate this concept.

Gap 4: Researchers have not tested the model by including peers and supervisor support, Instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards), training retention, transfer motivation,

Affective reaction, training transfer, perceived content validity, transfer design and learner readiness variables together.

Gap 5: This is an integrated study.

2.9.3 Transfer design:

Transfer design is one of the important factors in training design. In past, researchers found many training design factors that influence the transfer of training at work place. Recently, Holton et al., (1997) developed the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) in which he introduced the transfer design factor. Transfer design develops the understanding about the training program and shows in a practical way how training can be best used on the job. Nikandrou et al., (2009) argued that studies have seldom examined the impact of training design and methods on training transfer.

Transfer design can also be defined as "the degree to which (1) training has been designed and delivered to give trainees the ability to transfer learning to the job, and (2) training instruction match job requirements" Holton et al., (2000). Trainees are more likely to transfer the training content to the work context when they perceive that the training program was designed and delivered in such a way that it maximizes the trainee's ability to transfer the training to the job (Elwood F. Holton et al., 1997)

In past, researchers have found many training design factors (identical elements, general principle, stimulus variability and conditions of practices) that influence the transfer of training at work place. Thorndike and Woodworth (1901) highlighted the concept of identical elements and argued that the transfer can be maximized if the training have more identical elements. Holton (1996) developed the factor of perceived

content validity from concept of identical elements. With regards to general principle, McGehee and Thayer (1961) argued that transfer is facilitated when trainees are taught, not just applicable skills, but also the general rules and theoretical principles that underline the training content. With reference to stimulus variability; Ellis (1965) argued that, transfer is maximized when a variety of relevant training stimuli are employed. The concept of conditions of practice include a number of specific design issues, including massed or distributed training, whole or part training, feedback and over learning (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). In addition, Holton et al., (1997) extract the factor of transfer design from General Principle explained by McGehee and Thayer (1961). According to the general principle, for maximum transfer the trainee should practically view how s/he will apply the learned skill to the workplace.

If trainees realize that the training program was design and delivered in order to maximize their ability to transfer the learned skills at workplace, the training transfer rate can be increase (Bates, Kauffeld, and Holton, 2007; Holton et al., 1997). Holton et al., (2000) argued that transfer design can be more effective if the training instructions similar with job requirement.

Nikandrou et al., (2009) argued that many factors influence the trainee learning when trainee participate in training activities such as, training content, the trainer, the trainees, the methods of training and the instructional design. When trainees have previous knowledge and practice on how to apply the newly learned knowledge and skills to the job, and when training instructions are congruent with job requirements, an increased likelihood of transfer should exist (Velada et al., 2007). In the same study, Velada et al., (2007) found that transfer design positively relates to transfer of training. They suggested that in order for organizations to ensure training is effective, it should be designed to match the ability to (1) learn the training material and (2) utilize the

knowledge and skills accrued during training outside of the learning environment. According to (May and Kahnweiler, 2000) trainers should provide opportunities to practice, in order to show trainee the practical relevance of the training contents and to ensure transfer.

The transfer design factor requires the trainers to include some practical example about the training transfer process. It may not be sufficient for the learner to learn the skills but there is a need to learn how to transfer the learned skill to the work place. Moreover, when the learner understands, how he/she can use the learned skills at the work place, the confidence level of the learner might be increased.

The transfer design factor not only shows the learner how to transfer the skills to the work place but it indirectly helps to increase the performance self-efficacy level of the learner. Hence, the role of the transfer design factor is twofold. The transfer design factor either is a source of increasing self-efficacy of learner or directly influence the transfer motivation factor. The clarity of the transfer design factor can enhance the productivity of the training program, thus making it a focus for the trainer and HRD professionals.

The transfer design concept relates to the instructional design system in which trainer evaluates the best possible training design and use effective delivery method. With reference to training design, the trainer should have clear understanding how the trainee will use the learned skills on the job. Furthermore, trainer's understanding will give confidence to the trainee to transfer the learned skills on the job. (Paul; 1993) argued that training professionals can use certain techniques in training design to increase the training transfer at workplace. Holton et al., (2000) argued that part of the transfer design is the degree to which training instruction matches the job requirements.

To enhance the trainee confidence and level of understanding about the transfer of skills, trainer can use different examples related with actual job. In other words, trainer can use examples to show trainee how he/she can transfer the learned skills on the job. In addition, this practice will assist trainee to maximize the training transfer.

Kirwan and Birchall (2006) tested the Holton model and found significant correlation between transfer design and performance self-efficacy. This shows that transfer design also influences transfer motivation through performance self-efficacy. Among the different factors affecting the transfer of training, researchers should not ignore the importance of transfer design factor. Transfer design shows the learners in a practical way, how they can apply the learned skills to the work place. In the past studies, a few researchers have included the transfer design factor in their training transfer models while most of the researches have underestimated the importance of this factor.

The above studies shows that transfer design have a positive relationship with performance self-efficacy and transfer motivation respectively; however there is a need to further investigate which relationship is stronger. This study proposes that transfer design is a source of increasing the performance self-efficacy level of the learners but at the same time, I suggest that the researchers should empirically test direct and indirect relationship to confirm that either transfer design work as source of increasing learner self-efficacy level or directly influence the transfer motivation. The main reason behind this empirical suggestion is to confirm the exact place of the transfer design factor in the training transfer model. If the training design factor more strongly relates with performance self-efficacy then future researchers and trainers should deeply analyze the different dimensions of the training design, which can improve the trainee efficacy level. In addition, if the higher correlation exists between transfer design and transfer

motivation, then attention should be given to highlight the elements in transfer design which can increase the motivational level of the trainee.

When learners see how they can transfer the training to the work place their confidence level will increase and they will believe in their capabilities to perform given tasks. Therefore, this study suggests that transfer design is an important factor for the training transfer process which not only explains how to transfer the learned skills but also increase the efficacy level of the learner. Empirically testing this relationship will unravel new insight and will highlight the importance of training design factors in the training transfer theory. Another factor that affects training transfer is the content validity perceived by the learner, which is described in the following section.

H5 (b): Performance self-efficacy (an individual factor) mediates the relationship between transfer design (a training design factor) and transfer motivation.

2.9.4 Perceived content validity:

Perceived content validity is another important factor in training design. Perceived content validity refers to "the extent to which trainee's judge training content to reflect job requirement accurately" (Bates et al., 2007). The concept of perceived content validity describes that if the trainee perceives that the contents of the training are similar with actual job, trainee will realize the importance of training and will show more interest in the training activities. Brown and McCracken (2009) argued that after evaluating trainees learning transfer at workplace the next step is to investigate the link between participation in training activities and training transfer.

Holton et al., (1997) define Perceived content validity as "the extent to which the trainees judge the training content to accurately reflect job requirements".

2.9.4.1 Far Transfer and Near Transfer

Holton (1996) argued that trainees cannot transfer the learned skills at workplace until they will not learn how to apply learned skills and knowledge back at the job. Reynolds and Pathan (1984) found that managers who believe in the training utility are more likely to apply skills learned in the training. Laker (1990) found two types of transfer, far transfer and near transfer. Far transfer indicates that the learned knowledge is applied in dissimilar working situations whereas near transfer refers to working situations which are similar to the training program. According to Clark and Voogel (1985), near transfer is more likely to occur when trainers emphasize the practical relevance of the training content. Lim and Johnson (2002) suggested that training design, content and instructional strategies must be related to the objective of transfer, whether it is near or far transfer for learning transfer to be realized. Nikandrou et al., (2009) view the near and far transfer as direct and indirect transfer and explained that in direct transfer trained employee is able to apply the knowledge and skills acquired to his work and indirect transfer means that the trained employee may apply to the workplace skills or attitude that were developed in training.

In past studies, researchers found many training design factors (identical elements, general principle, stimulus variability and conditions of practices) that influence the transfer of training in the work place. Thorndike and Woodworth (1901) highlighted the concept of identical elements and argued that the transfer can be maximized if the training have more identical elements. In addition, Holton (1996) derived the concept of perceived content validity form identical elements. With regards to general principle, McGehee and Thayer (1961) argued that transfer is facilitated when trainees are taught, not just applicable skills, but also the general rules and theoretical principles that underline the training content. With reference to stimulus variability; Ellis (1965)

argued that, transfer is maximized when a variety of relevant training stimuli are employed. The concept of conditions of practice include a number of specific design issues, including massed or distributed training, whole or part training, feedback and over learning (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Nikandrou et al., (2009) argued that as trainees participate in training activities, different factors affect the learning process like training content, trainer and trainee, methods of training and instructional design.

The concept of content validity is suitable in training activities, when the purpose of the training is to make trainee expert to perform actual job tasks. Kauffeldd and Lehmann (2010) argued that training transfer can be improved by trying out training content in real work situations and by working on real transfer challenges in subsequent training transfer. But when organization is going to launch new technology or new business plan, where trainee would have to learn new skills, this concept is not applicable. Furthermore, this concept is also not applicable in relapse prevention boundaries where trainees learn general skills or techniques and use on the job according to the requirement of the circumstances.

In comparison with the education, it has been noted that training play important role in the performance improvement. Those employees who don't have proper education, the only source for them to improve their performance is training and they also found to be more interested in the training activities. In this regard, Baalen and Hoogendoorm (1998) found that when training content matches actual job of the employees the less educated employees get more motivated to participate in training activities.

Axtell et al., (1997) also found that trainees who perceived training as relevant had higher levels of immediate skills transfer. The objective behind this immediate transfer is that the trainee realizes, the transfer of learned skills can improve job performance. In addition, if trainees perceived that the new knowledge and skills will improve relevant

aspects of their work performance, they will maximize the transfer (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Clark et al., 1993)

To maximize the training transfer, trainers should design training in such a way that it represents the actual job tasks. For the purpose of developing similar content of training with actual job tasks, equipments use in training should be similar to those which use in actual job. In addition, trainer should quote examples from the actual job activities and develop similar environment for training as for the actual job. In simple, training activities should be similar with actual job.

Kirwan and Birchall (2006) tested the Holton model and proposed that transfer design and perceived content validity separately and collectively influenced participants' performance self-efficacy. In the same study, they argued two factors transfer design and perceived content validity can enhance the performance self-efficacy of the employees and motivate the employees to transfer the learned skills at workplace. Garavaglia (1993) suggested that transfer is more likely to occur when identical elements appear in two different situations. For instructional designers, that means that tasks taught in training should closely match the tasks people do on their jobs. Garavaglia (1993) proposed that training content should be similar with actual job. Lim and Johnson (2002) suggested that in order to develop job related skills or make employees understand theoretical and conceptual issues training content and learning objectives plays important role. In addition, Al-Eisa, Furayyan and Alhemoud (2009) argued that a trainee who has high confidence in his or her capability to learn the content of training is more likely to have high confidence in his or her capability to apply newly-gained knowledge and skills on the job after the completion of training.

The concept of content validity is similar with the fidelity "the extent to which task in the learning domain is similar to those in the real life situation where the learning is to

be applied." Anderson (1982) proposed that, to maximize the training transfer the content of the training must be similar with the actual job. Burke and Collins (2005) argued that learning transfer would be at higher level where training and actual job tasks are similar.

2.9.4.2 Impact of Perceived Content Validity on Affective reaction:

The focus on the affective reaction measure was not so clear in past studies. Some researchers were focusing on the affective reaction of trainees to the organization and the training content (Baldwin, Magjuka, and Loher, 1991; Noe, 1986; Russell, Terborg, and Powers, 1985) while others focused on trainees' satisfaction with the usefulness of the training at work (Latham and Saari, 1979; Wexley and Baldwin, 1986).

Liebermann and Hoffmann (2008) argued that if the perceived practical relevance of the training matches or exceed the trainee's expectation, he will be satisfied (reaction). In other words, I can say that if practical relevance matches or exceeds the trainee's expectation, he will react more positively. If the training is less relevant, the trainee will be less satisfied or shows a negative affective reaction. In the same study, they found that practical relevance is an important factor which influence affective reaction. They also found that, there is no significant direct correlation between perceived content validity and transfer motivation. Furthermore, other researchers found that perceived content validity affects transfer motivation through performance self-efficacy.

> "Reaction refers to the trainee's perception of the job relatedness to the training program" (Seyler et al., 1998).

Seyler et al., (1998) found significant correlation between content validity and affective reaction. Garavagli (1993) proposed that two factors leads to less training transfer; first, when trainees don't get support from work environment and second when trainee

perceive training activities are irrelevant. In our proposed framework, I highlight the multidimensional role of the perceived content validity factor. The first dimension exposes the role of perceived content validity as a factor to increase the learner performance's self-efficacy level, which would ultimately affect transfer motivation. When learners perceive that the content of the training are similar with actual job tasks, they more strongly believe in their capabilities to perform given tasks. In addition, the learner's perception about training contents that "training contents are similar with the actual job tasks" also leads to a positive affective reaction.

H5 (a): Performance self-efficacy mediates the relationship between perceived content validity (training design) and transfer motivation.

Reaction of the learner and content validity of the training are pertinent to the transfer process when it affect performance self-efficacy of the learner, which is described at length in the following section.

2.9.5 Performance self-efficacy:

Performance self-efficacy represents individual characteristics. The concept of self-efficacy is based on social learning theory. According to the theory, people learn by observing other persons' (models) whom they believe are credible and knowledgeable (Bandura, 1986). The theory relates to a belief in one's capabilities to organize and perform the courses of action needed to achieve given attainments (Bandura, 1997). In the past, researchers found that self-efficacy increases the motivation to learn and is positively associated with training motivation (Colquitt et al., 2000; Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum, and Mathieu, 2001).

Seyler et al., (1998) define performance self-efficacy as "An individual's general belief that he is able to change his performance when he wants to"

Self-efficacy concerned not so much with the skills of individual, but as to whether or not they believe they can use their skills to reach certain goals, such as performing really well. In general, self-efficacy has two similar but distinct constructs: general self-efficacy and task self-efficacy. General self-efficacy refers to "one's estimate of one's fundamental ability to complete general job requirements successfully, while task self-efficacy refers to one's estimate of one's specific ability to achieve task requirement successfully" (Wei-Tao, 2006).

Performance self-efficacy develop trainee believe about his/her abilities. This believes system leads to realize the trainee that he/she can use the learned skills on the job and can improve job performance. In addition, self-efficacy increase the trainee confidence level to overcome the obstacles which he/she face while skills transfer even in the difficult situation and give confidence in the ability to use new skills at work for better job performance.

Researcher has found performance self-efficacy strongly related to both learning (Gist et al., 1991; Quinones, 1995) and transfer of training (Ford et al., 1998). Velada et al., (2007) found that performance self-efficacy is significantly related to transfer of training while (Kirwan and Birchall, 2006) proposed that perceived content validity and transfer design work together to improve performance self-efficacy and influence motivation to transfer. Researchers have also proposed that the concept of performance self-efficacy should be tested with other variables to analyze the combined effects.

Researchers have been focusing on the relationship between self-efficacy and other variables like transfer motivation and training transfer. They confirmed that self-efficacy can increase the level of training transfer (Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005; Ford et al., 1998; Gaudine and Saks, 2004; Kirwan and Birchall, 2006; Latham and Frayne, 1989; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, and Salas, 1992; Saks, 1995; Stevens and Gist, 1997;

Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Velada et al., 2007) but there is less focus on the concept of performance self-efficacy improvement factors, hence there is a need to highlight which factors can improve the performance self-efficacy of the learner. Moreover, if the training managers focus on the transfer design which can improve the learner self-efficacy, they might be able to increase the level of transfer. In this study, transfer design and perceived content validity increase the learner's performance self-efficacy has been proposed.

H1 (a): Transfer motivation mediates the relationship between performance self-efficacy (an individual factor) and training transfer.

Apart from performance self-efficacy, Learner readiness also plays an important role in the transfer of training, which is elaborated below.

2.9.6 Learner Readiness:

Learner readiness represents the individual characteristics. The concept of learner readiness relates to integrated control theory. Learner readiness explains that the trainee should be prepared to enter and participate in training for better learning and skills transfer.

Holton et al., (2000) defined the learner readiness as "The extent to which individuals are prepared to enter and participate in training".

Bates et al., (2007) suggested that researcher should test the relationship between transfer and the other factors in the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI), which are, learner readiness, transfer design and performance coaching respectively. In an earlier study, Facteau et al.(1995) proposed that training reputation also influence learner readiness.

Recently, Stephen (2008) measured learner readiness in terms of (a) retention of relevant knowledge and skills; and (b) disposition or motivation to retrieving and applying such knowledge. They found that learning transfer is at a higher level when trainees are confident to retain the new skills and motivated to apply such knowledge. In other words, trainees who have knowledge about the training program and are motivated to apply such knowledge are more likely to transfer learning. On the other hand, Bates et al., (2007) proposed the learner readiness concept in terms of (a) a program that affects the performance (b) understanding about job related developments (c) expectations from training and (d) expected outcomes at the beginning of the training.

Kirwan and Birchall (2006) argued that transfer motivation and performance self-efficacy correlated with same factors, such as learner readiness, transfer design, perceived content validity and opportunity to use. There is also some indication that these factors may work collectively. In the same study (Kirwan and Birchall 2006), they found that learner readiness exerted a significant affect and proposed that learner readiness directly affect motivation to transfer.

The concept of learner readiness can be viewed with some other items. For example, (a) basic skills to perform different activities during training, (b) basic knowledge about different tasks which the trainee needs to perform during training. The possible explanation of including these two factors in the learner readiness scale is to know the level of understanding of the trainee about training activities, which they need to perform during training.

These two factors can be more important, when, for example, the trainee is about to learn a new technology and when it is required by management of the trainee to learn the new technology. In such a scenario, the trainee should have basic knowledge about

the technology to perform well and learn more skills during training. Normally, the trainee needs these skills when training contents are not similar with the job or the purpose of the training is to provide new knowledge and skills to the trainee. In this study, I proposed that the concept of learner readiness as defined by Bates et al., (2007) should be empirically tested by including two items to confirm the relationship and role of this factor in the training transfer theory. These items are: a) Before the training, I had basic skills to perform different task during training; b) Prior to the training, I had basic knowledge about training activities, which supposed to perform during the training;

H1 (b): Transfer motivation mediates the relationship between learner readiness (an individual factor) and training transfer.

The subsequent factor proposed to affect the transfer of training is peer support, which is explained in the next section

.

2.9.7 Peer Support:

For the effectiveness of training, work environment or environmental factors (performance feedback, peer support, supervisor support) plays an important role. Although, work environment aspects are important for training transfer (Burke and Hutchins, 2007) they are not sufficiently examined in existing models (Scaduto et al., 2008).

> Seyler et al., (1998) defined peer support as "The extent to which peers reinforce and support the use of learning on the job".

Aguinis and Kraiger (2009) argued that support from the organization; supervisor and coworkers are considered essential for training transfer and skills maintenance. In

addition, (Chiaburu and Tekleab, 2005) found that the peer support is more important for training transfer and maintenance than both support from the organization and supervisor. Therefore, environmental factors are important component for effective training. Clark et al., (1993) argued that trainees who believe that they will not have support from either peers or supervisors for using their new skills when they return to the job may not be motivated to learn during training because they recognize that the training will not be useful for them because it will not transfer to the job.

According to (Baldwin and Ford, 1988) environmental factors including top management, supervisor, peers and subordinates influenced training effectiveness. Hence, for the training to be effective, the support of top management and colleagues is very important (Chen et al., 2007). Moreover, (Nijman, Nijhof, Wognum, and Veldkamp, 2006) found that, peer support reflects the extent to which peers behave in a way that optimizes the trainee's use of learning on the job. Research has shown that support from peers positively predicts motivation to transfer (Guerrero and Sire, 2001; Seyler et al., 1998). In the same study, they also proposed that environmental variables (peer support) have a broader influence affecting not only post-training behavior, but motivation to transfer as well.

According to Kirwan and Birchall (2006) peer support on the motivation to transfer is an important relationship, as this relationship was tested on Holton's model. In one study, peer support was found to be related to skills transfer, but not related to pre-training motivation (Facteau et al., 1995), while another study found peer support predicted motivation to transfer (Ruona, Leimbach, Holton, and Bates, 2002). Surprisingly, (Holton et al., 2000) found that environmental factors variables did not influence transfer and these findings are consistence with (Marcel and Streumer, 2002). However, (Tracey, Tannenbaum, and Kavanagh, 1995) found that supervisors' and

coworkers' encouragement of learning and use of trained skills on the job may be crucial elements in the transfer environment. Thus, the results of past studies are mixed, indicating a need to further investigate the effects of peer support on transfer, pre-training motivation and transfer motivation.

In this study, I proposed that the researcher should consider the time factor and type of support required by the trainee at different stages. Environmental factors should divide into three stages, before training, during training and after training. The researchers need to differentiate the kind of peer support at each training stage. In other words, the trainee needs a different kind of peer support at each stage. For example, (R A Noe, 1986) measured the peer support as "peers care about applying new knowledge" and (Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005), used this scale. They found that peer support was positively related to pre-training motivation and skills transfer. On the other hand, (Facteau et al., 1995) measured the peer support in terms of "peers' encouragement of incorporating new learning" and found that peer support is related with skills transfer but not with pre-training motivation.

Pidd (2004) measured peers support in terms of expectations and behavior and proposed the moderating role of peers support between trainees identified with workplace groups and training transfer. In addition, (Seyler et al., 1998) measured peer support as "peers' appreciation for using new skills", "peers' encouragement for using new skills", "peers' expectations" and "peers' behavior" against training transfer and found that peer support influence transfer motivation and training transfer. Due to the conflicting results, this study proposes that the researchers should highlight what kind of peer support trainees need at each stage of training. Furthermore, at the time of developing the peer support scale, researchers should classify the peer support that trainees need before, during and after training.

H3 (a): Transfer motivation mediates the relationship between peer support (an environmental factor) and training transfer

With regards to environmental factors, supervisor support is an important variable in a trainee's transfer motivation, in which case the past research is highlighted in the following paragraphs.

2.9.8 Supervisor Support:

Another factor in the context of social boundaries or environmental factors is supervisor support. The role of the supervisor in the area of training effectiveness is crucial. Transfer of training is very important part in the training effectiveness criteria and it's difficult to effectively transfer the training without supervisor support.

> Seyler et al., (1998) define supervisor support as "The extent to which managers support and reinforce the use of learning on-the-job."

Clark et al., (1993) argued that trainees who believe that they will not have support from either peers or supervisors for using their new skills when they return to the job may not be motivated to learn during training because they recognize that the training will not be useful for them because it will not transfer to the job. For the effectiveness of training, work environment or environmental factors (performance feedback, peer support, supervisor support) plays an important role. Although, work environment aspects are important for training transfer (Burke and Hutchins, 2007) they are not sufficiently examined in existing models (Scaduto et al., 2008).

The supervisor can support trainees in different ways in which setting goals for trainees to transfer the learned skills is one of them. This kind of support relates to the goal theory. In this regard, (Pinder, 1984) argued that for employees work motivation, goal theory play important role in which tough goals leads to better performance (Locke and Latham, 1990). Therefore, to achieve assign tasks, employees should have certain ability to perform different tasks and motivated to achieve goals.

Goal commitment refers to consistent effort in order to achieve desire goals (Hollenbeck and Klein, 1987). In other words, those individuals who don't have goal commitment can be less motivated towards achieving goals (Locke, Latham, and Erez, 1988). In addition, (KKlein and Kim, 1998) argued that supervisor play important role in goal-setting context. Therefore, to maintain higher level goal commitment among employees, supervisor should directly involve in goal setting process. Therefore, the involvement of supervisor in training activities can maximize the training outcomes.

Nijman et al., (2006) defined the supervisor support as the extent to which the supervisor behaves in a way that optimizes employees use on the job of the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in training. Scaduto et al., (2008) suggested that the individual who has a good relationship with his or her supervisor (which enhance communication of organizationally relevant and important information) stands a much better chance of benefiting from the training, which will leads to positive outcomes, both for individual and organization. Clark et al., (1993) found that transfer of training also depends on the trainee believe about the supervisor support. If the trainees believe that he/she would have support from the supervisor to transfer the skill he/she would be more motivated. Researchers found that supervisor support has no direct effect on trainees' transfer outcomes (Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005; Facteau et al., 1995; Klink, Gielen, and Nautta, 2001) however, it influences motivation to transfer (Nijman et al.,

2006). In other words, supervisor support has positive effects on trainees' transfer outcomes, by means of their motivation to transfer.

Another study by (Seyler et al., 1998) found that supervisor support has less significance as a predictor for transfer motivation as compared to peer support. In a later study, Holton et al., (2000) found that social factors do not predict the transfer of training. A more recent study by (Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008) suggests that supervisor support does not exert considerable influence on transfer motivation. In contrast, numerous studies found a positive relationship between environmental factors variables and transfer (Montesino, 2002; Smith-Jentsch et al., 2001; Warr, Allan, and Birdi, 1999) Moreover, Tracey et al., (1995) found that the supervisor and coworkers who encourage learning and the use of trained skills on the job may be crucial elements in the transfer environment.

Velada et al., (2007) conducted on study on the work environment (feedback and supervisor support) and found that feedback from supervisor on newly learned skills have significant correlation with skills transfer. Velada et al., (2007) defined feedback as an indication from management about how well an employee is performing on the job. Furthermore, feedback concerning the newly acquired knowledge and skills, and how these relate to job performance, increase the probability of its transfer to the workplace (Velada et al., 2007). In addition, they also found that other component of work environment like supervisor support does not predict skills transfer. This finding is consistent with (Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005; Klink et al., 2001).

Like other factors in environmental factors context, supervisor support also faces the same issues related to the time and kind of support required by the trainee at each training stage. However, past researchers have been overlapping the supervisor support at each training stage. For example, (Chiaburu and Tekleab, 2005) measured supervisor

support in terms of “employee development”, “practice new skills” and “constant reminder to apply skills”. They found that there is no relationship between supervisor support and skills transfer. Conversely, (Facteau et al., 1995) measured supervisor support in terms of “supervisor tolerant of changes” and found that supervisor support positively relates to pre-training motivation. Furthermore, (Lim and Johnson, 2002) evaluation of supervisor support proposed three factors that were more closely related to the transfer of training, namely “discussion with supervisor to use new learning”, “supervisor’s involvement or familiarization with the training” and “receiving positive feedback from supervisor”.

After carefully evaluating the supervisor support at the third stage of training (after training), I conclude that researchers who found the effect of supervisor support’s on transfer (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995; Gregoire, Propp, and Poertner, 1998) are measuring support in terms of “information sharing” “direct feedback regarding performance” and “provision of resource or incentives”. Nijman et al., (2006) measured supervisor support in terms of “supervisor’s opportunity to apply learned skills” and found that supervisor support have no direct effect on training transfer when taking into account the motivation to transfer. In addition, (Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008) measured supervisor support in terms of supervisor interest in training and support for transfer and found no considerable influence on transfer motivation. Finally, Velada et al., (2007) measured supervisor support in terms of “ways to apply training on the job” “problems in using training” “interest in training” “feedback on performance” and “goals to apply training on the job” and found effects on transfer motivation.

The studies included in the preceding paragraphs did not distinguish the kind of support needed at each stage of training. For example, what factors influence the pre-training motivation at the first level of training (before training) or what kind of support

influences the transfer motivation factor or what kind of supervisor support increases the level of transfer at the last stage (after training) were not examined. The explanation of supervisor role in these perspectives can be helpful for researchers to highlight the degree of supervisor support received in the different stages of training and its implication in the training transfer theory. Thus, the mixed results of the previous studies have prompted yet another hypothesis.

H3 (b): Transfer motivation mediates the relationship between supervisor support (an environmental factor) and training transfer.

After learner readiness and environmental factors have been hypothesized to support the level of transfer motivation, the subsequent variable to be deliberated is instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards), which is the content of the following section.

2.9.9 Instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards):

Instrumentality (intrinsic rewards) is one of the important factors among situational factors category. The concept of instrumentality (intrinsic rewards) comes from outcome expectancy theory. The concept of outcome expectancy was initially investigated in the field of social psychology.

Guerrero and Sire (2001) defined instrumentality as individuals' perceptions that their efforts in training will enable them to gain rewards at work.

More recently investigated in the field of industrial and organizational psychology (Frayne and Geringer, 1997; Guerrero and Sire, 2001; Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, and Hooker, 1994). Pilati and Andrade (2008) argued that instrumentality would be the belief that the involvement with training reaches such outcomes and expectancy would be the assessment of the subjective probability of obtaining those outcomes through involvement in training.

In a training context, in most cases, learner who are motivated have two beliefs: (1) making an effort during training will result in learning; and (2) the material they learn will be useful for achieving valued outcomes back on the job (Brown and Ford, 2002). There is both theoretical and empirical support for the importance of this second belief, which is related to (Vroom, 1964) expectancy theory (Brown and Ford, 2002). This theory suggests that motivating force behind specific choice originates mainly from perceptions of the utility of value of that choice (Brown and Ford, 2002). According to Vroom's (1964), "an individual is more likely to pursue choice, and make an effort, when he or she believes the result will be valued outcomes".

Instrumentality refers to the individual's perceptions about those rewards which trainees receive after training. In general, the training effort is considered to be in an instrumentality relationship with two types of rewards; intrinsic (interesting work, content of activity assigned) and extrinsic (remuneration, career possibilities) (Guerrero and Sire, 2001). A later study by (Tharenou, 2001) found a significant correlation between training motivation and instrumentality. He also argued that instrumentality predicts training and development. In addition, (Nikandrou et al., 2009) argued that trainees think that the internal rewards from participating in a training program are important as they get more self-confident that they have the necessary knowledge and they are abreast of new knowledge.

The intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (instrumentality) suggest that those individuals are poorly motivated when they do not believe that training will lead to improvement in their work, career or remuneration (Clark et al., 1993; Facteau et al., 1995; Noe, 1986). If the trainee perceives training outcomes in terms of extrinsic rewards like money, status and perceived external pressures, he may work hard but will do more mistakes or error, because his intention is to get financial rewards etc. On the other hand, if the

trainee perceives training outcomes in terms of intrinsic rewards such as greater self-determination, task involvement, competence and interest, he will perform very well. Condry (1977) indicated that those individuals who prefer material rewards such as salary increment or bonus may work hard but they will commit more mistakes and low quality work. One possible reason behind this perception is that, when the trainee gets involved in training activities because of personal satisfaction or to improve performance, the motivational level can be higher. In other words, when forces, which drives motivational factor (intention to improve performance, self-satisfaction), become a part of the individual's personality, the trainee would be more motivated to transfer the learned skill on the job. In contrast, if the basic intention of the trainee is just to get a promotion or an increment, the motivation can be at a lower level because the basic intention of the trainee is not to improve the performance but just to get a promotion or an increment. Furthermore, perceptions of trainees toward training output can be different and researchers need to empirically test, which kind of rewards is important for employees. Therefore, I can conclude that, in both types of rewards, trainees will be motivated to transfer the learned skills to the work place in order to get the desired outcomes.

Osman-Gani and Jacobs (2005) found that Non-monetary, innovative and valuable incentives could be used more frequently to enhance employee motivation. Therefore, I can conclude that, in both types of rewards, trainees will be motivated to transfer the learned skills in the work place in order to get the desired outcomes.

Kontoghiorghes (2001) found that extrinsic rewards, such as pay and promotions, as well as punishment for failing to use the new skills and knowledge, were weakly associated with training retention. Conversely, intrinsic rewards, such as praise and recognition for using the newly learned skills and knowledge acquired in training

proved to be a more important variable. Guerrero and Sire (2001) argued that French workers rarely perceive their participation in training as a stepping-stone to change or to adapt to professional situations and workers do not necessarily perceive training as useful for their personal development. Noe (1986) argued that if the employees are motivated to transfer the learned skills at work place, the training transfer rate can be at higher level. This suggests that if the trainee believes that the skills he/she learnt during training will lead to intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, then the trainee will be more motivated to transfer the learned skills to the work place and will retain more skills for transfer. In this study, I propose the dual role of the instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards) factor. The first is the trainee's expectations from training outcomes in terms of intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, which leads to an increase in the level of transfer motivation. Secondly, which reward (intrinsic or extrinsic) that encourages the trainee more to retain the learned skills and transfer to the work place in order to get expected outcomes. The researchers need to empirically test the dual role of instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards) to build training transfer theory.

H4: Transfer motivation mediates the relationship between instrumentality or intrinsic rewards (a situational factor) and training transfer.

H2: Training retention (an individual factor) mediates the relationship between the instrumentality or intrinsic reward (a situational factor) and training transfer.

From instrumentality or Intrinsic rewards, the focus shifts to training retention which is suggested to affect the transfer of training, and is described in the next section.

2.9.10 Training Retention:

Training retention is one of the important factors among individual characteristics. After completion of training; the trainee cannot effectively transfer the training until and unless he or she has the capacity to retain the training. Ford (2009) argued that getting learner involved is the key to retention and application of learned skills. Velada et al (2007) suggested that "training retention is similar to the cognitive ability and is the degree to which the trainee retains the content after training is completed". In the training transfer process, many factors affect on the training retention. In this regard, (May and Kahnweiler, 2000) argued that many factors influence employees learning retention such as transfer design, trainee characteristics and environmental factors.

Velada et al., (2007) define training retention as "degree to which the trainee retains the content after training is completed".

Velada et, al (2007) suggested that after certain time the trainees could be unable to retain and apply learned skills at workplace. May and Kahnweiler; (2000) suggested that lack of training transfer could be inadequate learning and retention. Baldwin and Ford (1988) argued that only 10 per cent of all training experiences are transferred from the training environment to the job. Noe et al, (2006) proposed that after learning and retaining content, trainee should transfer the knowledge and skills accrued to the work context with the intention of improving job performance over time. Furthermore, (Kirkpatrick, 1976) argued that in order to transfer the learned skill at workplace the trainee must learned and retained skills.

Velada et al, (2007) suggested that to maximize the training transfer the trainees should retain the skills and knowledge learned from training activities. Kontoghiorghes (2001) found that training retention influence goals development. In the same study, he found

that intrinsic rewards were (praise and recognition) significantly correlated with training retention. Baldwin and Ford (1988) argued that learning retention outcomes are directly associated with the generalization and maintenance of training effects on the job. In the same study they suggested that trainee should learn and retained the skills and knowledge in order to facilitate transfer process. Velada et al (2007) found that training retention predicts a significant relationship with transfer of training. In the past, researchers have been focusing on the concept of retention of knowledge in the educational sector and highlighted different factors, which resist students to retain the knowledge. According to our best understanding, only a few researchers have been included this concept in the training transfer theory. Unfortunately, HRD professionals and researchers have ignored the concept of training retention in the training transfer theory. Hence, researchers should try to determine the factors, which make trainees to retain more skills. Ultimately, retention of skills will leads to an increased level of training transfer.

Apart from performance self-efficacy, affective reaction also plays an important role in the transfer of training, which is elaborated below.

2.9.11 Affective reaction:

Upon completion of the training program, evaluation design and affective reaction are the focus, which represents the first stage in the evaluation process. Affective reaction is one of the important factors in the evaluation stage. Although TAD is one of the more heavily researched topics in work psychology (Chen et al., 2007) and a number of studies have focused on employees Affective reactions to TAD (Arthur., Bennett, Edens, and Bell, 2003), there is a lack of empirical evidence explaining why and how affective reactions to TAD matter (Schmidt, 2007; Sitzmann,

Brown, Casper, and Ely, 2008).Affective reaction, or the subjective evaluations learners make about their training experiences (Sitzmann et al., 2008) are the primary means by which organization evaluate training programs (Sugrue and Rivera, 2005). However, although affective reactions are frequently assessed in practice, they are still poorly understood (Sitzmann et al., 2008).

Ruona et al., (2002) argued that affective reaction measures or measures of trainee satisfaction remain as one of the most over-used methods of evaluation in the field of human resource development. However, research has shown no correlation between Affective reaction and other training outcomes (Alliger and Janak, 1989; Dixon, 1990; Noe, 1986; Warr and Bunce, 1995). Hence, the focus on the Affective reaction measure was not so clear in past studies. Some researchers were focusing on the affective reaction of trainees to the organization and the content of the training program (Baldwin et al., 1991; Noe, 1986; Russell et al., 1985) whereas others focused on trainees' satisfaction with the usefulness of the training at work (Latham and Saari, 1979; Wexley and Baldwin, 1986). However, after the work of (Alliger et al., 1997) on the affective reaction measure, researchers found different results. Alliger et al (1997) distinguished the affective reaction measure into two categories; affective reaction (general satisfaction with the training) and utility reaction (utility of the training content for the work situation). They found that trainees utility reactions have stronger impact on transfer than affective reactions. In addition, (Pilati and Borges-Andrade, 2008) argued that the reason behind researchers have not found any relationship between Affective reaction and other training outcomes as suggested by Alligher and Janak (1989), may be because of poor measurement of the construct.

After using the Alliger and colleagues' classification of Affective reaction, a few researchers found significant but weak correlation between affective reaction (utility

and affective) and other training outcomes (Morgan and Casper, 2000; Warr et al., 1999). Furthermore, (Ruona et al., 2002) also confirmed that there was no significant relationship between affective reaction and behavior change. In the same study, they also proposed that if affective reaction measures are to be used at all, utility affective reactions may be of greater value in evaluating outcomes than traditional affective reactions. Although, the validity of trainee affective reaction is questionable (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008), owing to the lack of direct relationships between affective reactions and performance (Alliger et al., 1997; Arthur. et al., 2003; Colquitt et al., 2000). There is an emerging consensus that affective reactions are important in providing additional insight into the relationship between TAD efforts and employee outcomes (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008).

Thus, it is suggested that affective reaction (utility or affective) may be affected by other training outcomes through motivation, whereby a person is motivated to show a specific behavior when the person expects this behavior to help him achieve his goals, as proposed by Vroom (1964). Noe (1986) expanded this notion towards transfer motivation and found that the fulfillment of training needs for personal development influences the transfer motivation. Tannenbaum et al., (1991) also explained that the fulfillment of expectations promotes the trainee's motivation. They also found that trainees who have more positive affective reactions to training have more post training motivation. Additionally, (Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008) found a significant correlation between affective reaction and transfer motivation. These findings are consistent with the study of (Ruona et al., 2002) in which they found that utility reactions added minimal power as a predictor of motivation to transfer and argued that perceptions of utility of training provide nominal value in predicting transfer. Although Ruona et al., (2002) also found that participant utility reaction had a significant ability to predict motivation to transfer; however, it was a small impact. Furthermore,

researchers should explore more about the role of affective reaction measure in training and development area and explain how affective reaction influences training transfer process (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008).

In this study, I proposed that, researchers should empirically test the mediating role of the affective reaction between perceived content validity and transfer motivation. This relationship will explain the importance of affective reaction in the training transfer process.

Therefore, conflicting argument from past research suggest that to explore the potential role of affective reaction measure further research is required (Dysvik and Kuvaas; 2008). Hence, the suggested proposition as a result of the above explanation is as follow:

H6: Affective reaction mediates the relationship between perceived content validity (training design) and transfer motivation.

H7: Transfer motivation mediates the relationship between affective reaction and training transfer.

The final factor in the training transfer process of this proposed framework is explained in the following section as transfer motivation.

2.9.12 Transfer Motivation:

Transfer motivation represents individual characteristics. Transfer motivation is a key element in the training transfer process. Learning cannot effectively transfer without motivation.

Holton et al (2000) defined transfer motivation as the "direction, intensity and persistence of effort towards utilizing in a work setting skills and knowledge learned".

In other words, motivation to transfer is the trainee's desire to use on the job the knowledge and skills that have been learned in a training programme (Axtell et al., 1997; Noe, 1986). In addition, Nikandrou et al., (2009) found that the motivation of the person to learn does not mean that the person to transfer the knowledge and skills acquired through training, he must also have the so-called "motivation to transfer" what he is learning to work. In a training context, motivation can influence the willingness of employees to transfer what they learn in the program onto the job (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Prior research suggested that motivation in general is an important factor driving perceptions and behavior, even in training contexts (Venkatesh and Smith, 1999). Therefore, effective training programs should address the potential lack of self-motivation of trainees by including a motivational component (McCombs, 1984). Furthermore, (Axtell et al., 1997) found that trainee transfer motivation was positively associated with short-term transfer and long term transfer after returning to their work sites. So many factors affecting trainee's motivation to transfer such as, learner readiness, supervisor and peer support, training design and perceived content validity. Holton (1996) proposed that transfer motivation is the most crucial precondition for the trainee to apply training contents to the workplace, however, most of the evaluation studies have not included transfer motivation (Colquitt et al., 2000).

Chiaburu and Marinova (2005) investigated both individual and contextual predictors of training transfer, maintenance and generalization and found that training motivation is directly related to all components of training effectiveness (positive correlation with training transfer, maintenance and generalization) In addition, Kirwan and Birchall (2006) and (Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008) found a significant relationship between transfer motivation and transfer.

This study proposes the mediating role of the transfer motivation between performance self-efficacy and transfer in other training transfer models. Furthermore, highlighting other factors which influence trainee transfer motivation would be helpful to build a basis for the training transfer theory. While inserting a new group of variables affecting transfer motivation, there is a need to further investigate the effect of transfer motivation on transfer.

2.10 Training Evaluation

The last and important stage is the evaluation of the training in which analyses perform to see whether the training program is successful or not. Evaluation of training expose the amount of efforts invested by all parties involved in training program like trainer, trainee, top management, peers, and supervisors. Evaluation of training provides feedback to all involved parties that which area they need to focus more and how they can improve the training outcomes. Evaluation of training is also important to see whether training program have achieved desired goal and objectives if not, how they can maximize the training outcomes and which area they need to focus more.

Different researchers (Kirkpatrick, 1976; Holton et al., 2000) have been focused on the training evaluation system and suggest different models for training evaluation. The focus of these researchers was on the training transfer and Affective reaction. Wang and Wilcox (2006) argued that as a systematic process for developing needed workplace knowledge and expertise, instructional systems design requires an evaluation component to determine if the training program achieved it intended goal.

A number of reasons have been noted for organizations failing to conduct systematic evaluations. Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals have been ignored the

importance of training evaluation. The reason for not conducting training evaluation can be lack of expertise or knowledge about the training evaluation system. Swanson (2005) pointed out that many training professionals either do not believe in evaluation or do not possess the mind-set necessary to conduct evaluation. Spitzer (1999) argued that many training professionals don not wish to evaluate their training programs because of the lack of confidence in whether their programs add value to, or have impact on organization. Moreover, to see the outcomes of the training program, HRD professionals should realize the importance of training evaluation because with training evaluation they can see the result of their efforts.

The organizational culture also plays an important role in conducting the training evaluation. The reason behind not believing and lack of proper mind set about training evaluation from HRD professionals perspectives can be organizational culture because all mind set and believes system comes from the organizational culture. It is the responsibility of the top management and HRD professionals to build strong training culture within the organization in which all parties strongly realize the importance of training and training evaluation.

Furthermore, Desimone et al., (2002) highlighted that lack of evaluation in training was also attributed to the lack of resources and expertise, as well as lack of an organization culture that support such efforts. Osman-Gani and Jacobs (2005) suggested that companies should conduct some form of training evaluation. This is because it would be valuable to the HR personnel in shaping and improving the company future training programs. Researchers and trainers alike generally recognize that evaluation is an important part of the training system (Green and Skinner, 2005). However, although a great deal of information exists regarding various designs, application still lags behind (Geertshuis, Holmes, Geertshuis, Clancy, and Bristol, 2002).

HRD professionals have not been able to convince top management about the results or return on investment by providing training to their employees. Paul (1995) argued that HRD professionals should explain how organizations getting good return on their training investment. Furthermore, they should highlight whether or not employees transfer the learned skills and knowledge at workplace. Paul (1995) suggested that HRD professionals should explore how training activities enhance job productivity.

Researchers divide training program evaluation into two categories, formative evaluation and summative evaluation (Noe, 2002; Greg and Wilcox, 2006). Moreover, Scriven (1991) defined formative evaluation as "an evaluation intended to provide information on improving program design and development is called formative evaluation". The objective of the formative evaluation is to highlight the weak area in instructional material, methods, or learning objectives in order to improve training program design and development (Brown and Gerhardt, 2002).

In contrast, "an evaluation conducted to determine whether intended training goals and outcomes are achieved is called summative evaluation". Alvarez, Salas and Garofano (2004) described that "summative evaluation is conducted after a training program has been delivered" Wang and Wilcox (2006) suggested that summative evaluation helps HRD professionals to justify training investment.

Training and HRD professionals have been attempting to understand summative evaluation since late 1950 (Wang and Wilcox, 2006). Researchers have been proposed different training evaluation systems to know the results of the training. In this regard, Kirkpatrick's four-level evaluation created in 1959 was the first classification schema or taxonomy specifically for outcome evaluation or summative evaluation as noted by a number of studies (Alliger and Janak, 1989; Holton, 1996; Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008; Wang and Wang, 2005; Greg and Wilcox, 2006).

Another important reason for conducting training evaluation is that, by giving positive results of the training program, training managers can convince top management to consider training as investment rather than wasting of money and time. One possible reason for not conducting training evaluation is that, HRD professional or training managers are not sure about the results of the training and they normally afraid to justify the amount and time spent for the training program.

It has been noted that many organizations desperate to evaluate their training outcomes but due to lack of resource and top management support, HRD professionals are unable to conduct training evaluation. In contrast, sometimes top management interested to evaluate the training program but due to lack of expertise in HRD professionals they cannot see the results of training program. Desimone et al., (2002) highlighted that lack of evaluation in training was also attributed to the lack of resources and expertise, as well as lack of an organization culture that support such efforts. Brown and Gerhardt (2002) concluded that companies expend even less effort in evaluating the instructional design process.

In the past, many researchers have proposed different evaluation models to measure the outcomes of training. Amongst them Kirkpatrick's model is widely accepted. Kirkpatrick (1976) came up with the training evaluation model and divided it into four levels; Affective reaction, learning, transfers and results. Alliger et al, (1997) extended Kirkpatrick's work and divided the Affective reaction outcomes into two categories; Utility reaction and affective reaction. In addition, Phillips extended Kirkpatrick model by adding fifth level of Return on Investment (ROI) "the conversion of benefits to monetary value which can then be compared to the fully loaded costs of the training (P. P. Phillips and Phillips, 2001). However, Phillips and Phillips (2001, pg 242) noted that it is not always appropriate to evaluate at the fourth (results) and fifth (ROI) levels as

ROI is often characterised as a difficult and expensive process. Al-Eisa (2009) argued that Kirkpatrick model is most widely accepted and recognized model for evaluation of training program effectiveness. Therefore, the first three level of Kirkpatrick model are important for organization in order to see the results of their efforts.

Furthermore, for the average practitioner the identification of direct casual links in terms of impact on the organization's bottom line is often perceived as problematic, complex and daunting, particularly in relation to the development of soft skills and can act as a significant barrier to evaluation beyond the Affective reaction level (Skinner, 2004). Kirkpatrick's measures are useful for evaluating training outcomes (Colquitt et al. 2000; Kraiger et al. 1993). Kirkpatrick's model is also simple, easy to understand and comprehensive. In addition, other researchers (Gist et al., 1991; Liebermann and Hoffmann, 2008; Tracey et al., 2001; Wei-Tao, 2006) also found many factors of those effects on different training outcomes using Kirkpatrick's model. Phillips and Phillips (2001) argued that Kirkpatrick model is the most popular approach to training evaluation. The power of Kirkpatrick's model is its simplicity and its ability to help people think about training evaluation (Alliger and Janak, 1989).

The financial sector has also been used their best available resources for providing training to the employees but less attention has been given to the transfer of training issues which is one of the important criteria for training evaluation. The reasons behind this less focus on training transfer can be lack of expertise of the training providers for training evaluation, lack of top management support, lack of sufficient resources for conducting training evaluation or may be top management don't realize the importance of training evaluation for employees as well as organizational performance.

With reference to Kirkpatrick four levels, Wang and Wilcox, (2006) consider affective reaction as short term evaluation of the training outcomes and other three levels belong

to the long term evaluation of training outcomes. Wang and Wilcox, (2006) argued that more realistic way in affective reaction evaluation is to obtain learner's feedback on the interest, attention and motivation to be learning object. In addition, if the training satisfies the learning needs of the trainee with positive affective reaction, the other outcomes learning, transfer and results would have more productive output. In long term evaluation learning transfer leads to improve the organizational and individual performance. Furthermore, Kirkpatrick (1996) argued that evaluating all level of the model is expensive and time consuming. Greem and Skinner (2005) argued that the majority of evaluation that does take place addresses Kirkpatrick level 1 (reaction) and level 2 (learning) but neglects the transfer of that learning to the workplace and its effects. In addition, Yamnil and Mclean (2001) suggested that training is useless if it cannot be translated into performance. Therefore, in this research I'm taking into account the two most important and effective levels of Kirkpatrick model; Affective reaction and transfer.

2.11 Summary of Literature Review

The review of the literature reveals that training transfer play important role in organizational and employee performance. For better organizational and employees performance, HRD professionals should develop effective training program in which they make sure that the employees transfer the learned skills to the workplace. In this regard, they should identify those factors which resist employees to successfully transfer the learned skills.

In past studies, it has been highlighted that supervisor and peer support increase the training transfer but past studies have conflicting results about the role of supervisor and peer support. Therefore, the need is to clearly explain the role of supervisor and peers support in training transfer models. In this study, I proposed that the researcher should consider the time factor and type of support required by the trainee at different stages. Environmental factors (peer and supervisor support) should divide into three stages, before training, during training and after training. The researchers need to differentiate the kind of peer and supervisor support at each training stage. In other words, the trainee needs a different kind of peer and supervisor support at each stage. In this study, I'm taking into account the (Devos, Dumay, Bonami, Bates, and Holton, 2007) scales to measure the peer and supervisor support which are accurately measure the environmental factors after training. Therefore, the findings would be helpful for the training professional's to understand the role of peer and supervisor support in the training transfer process.

The relationship between instrumentality (intrinsic and extrinsic reward) and training retention has been ignored by the researchers in training transfer model. Although this concept widely discussed in education field but the finding of this relationship would be fruitful in the training transfer theory because the more the trainee retain the skills

the higher the level of training transfer. May and Kahnweiler (2000) suggested that lack of training transfer could be inadequate learning and retention. Furthermore, Kirkpatrick (1976) argued that for trained skills to transfer, training material must be learned and retained. Velada et al, (2007) suggested that trainees must have the ability to retain the knowledge instilled during the training program to facilitate the transfer process. Kontoghiorghes (2001) found that retention of training material significantly correlated with the development of goals and objectives. Baldwin and Ford (1988) argued that learning retention outcomes are directly associated with the generalization and maintenance of training effects on the job. In the same study they suggested that in order for trained skills to be transferred, they must be learnt and retained. Velada et al (2007) found that training retention predicts a significant relationship with transfer of training. In this study, I propose the dual role of the instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards) factor. The first is the trainee's expectations from training outcomes in terms of intrinsic rewards, which leads to an increase in the level of transfer motivation. Secondly, how intrinsic rewards encourages the trainee more to retain the learned skills and transfer to the work place in order to get expected outcomes. The researchers need to empirically test the dual role of instrumentality (Intrinsic rewards) to build training transfer theory.

The role of perceived content validity and transfer design is critical in training transfer theory and influence the performance self-efficacy level of the trainee. But the impact of these two factors on performance self-efficacy has not been empirically tested yet. In past research, there is less focus on the concept of performance self-efficacy improvement factors; hence there is a need to highlight which factors can improve the performance self-efficacy of the learner. Moreover, if the training managers focus on the transfer design which can improve the learner self-efficacy, they might be able to increase the level of transfer. In this study, transfer design and perceived content

validity increase the learner's performance self-efficacy has been proposed. The proposed framework also proposes the mediating role of performance self-efficacy between transfer design, perceived content validity and transfer motivation.

Furthermore, the measurement of learner readiness covers limited area and the effects of learner readiness on transfer motivation should discuss in broader terms. In this study, I proposed that the concept of learner readiness as defined by (Bates et al., 2007) should be empirically tested by including two items to confirm the relationship and role of this factor in the training transfer theory. These items are: a) Before the training, I had basic skills to perform different task during training; b) Prior to the training, I had basic knowledge about training activities, which supposed to perform during the training; These two factors can be more important, when, for example, the trainee is about to learn a new technology and when it is required by management of the trainee to learn the new technology. In such a scenario, the trainee should have basic knowledge about the technology to perform well and learn more skills during training. Normally, the trainee needs these skills when training contents are not similar with the job or the purpose of the training is to provide new knowledge and skills to the trainee.

In addition, researchers have contradictory views about the affective and utility reaction measure. Various researchers found that affective reaction don't have any relationship between the training transfer and affective reaction but affective reaction effect training transfer through motivation but other found no relationship or week relationship between reaction and transfer motivation. In this study, I proposed that, researchers should empirically test the mediating role of the affective reaction between perceived content validity and transfer motivation. This relationship will explain the importance of affective reaction in the training transfer process.