



Factors influencing senior staff training transfer: Evidence from the University of Cape Coast

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Abstract

This paper examined the factors influencing employee training transfer by drawing evidence from the University of Cape Coast. The study used the explanatory research design and a cross-sectional survey strategy. Primary data were gathered from 250 respondents out of 500 trained Senior Staff (SS) of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) with the aid of a questionnaire. This study adopted the partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) technique to test the research hypotheses. This study is limited to SS in UCC, Ghana. Hence, the results may not be generalizable to other districts and sectors. The results revealed that motivation to transfer, the opportunity to transfer, supervisory support, and training design have a significant relationship with training transfer by SS in UCC. The study identified factors influencing SS training transfer; taking evidence from UCC. Human Resource Directorates/Departments can strategize to influence SS training transfer. This paper is unique because it attempts to research training transfer from a developing country's perspective. Evidence from this paper reveals a topic that is not well-researched in the Ghanaian setting. It recognizes the need to offer practical help to HRD practitioners and international consultants and provides theoretical insights to HRD scholars.

Introduction

Organisations acknowledge their inadequacies in coping with emerging difficulties amid rapidly evolving business and economic unpredictability (Torraco & Lundgren, 2020). Because of this, most organisations make investments to improve their workers' knowledge and abilities (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). When employees put what they have learnt into practice, such efforts will be compensated by management (Creon & Schermuly, 2022). But what exactly can organisations do to promote higher training transfer? In several ways, efficient training is beneficial to an organisation. It is critical in developing and maintaining capacities at personal and institutional levels and, thus, contributes to the cycle of transformation (Schermuly & Meyer, 2020). According to Jones and Wright (1992), training improves the overall retention potential of skilled staff by reducing unintended work rotations. Bhatti and Kaur (2010) postulate that training programmes should be structured to benefit both organisations and staff members to accomplish organisational tasks and improve employee performance. Training promotes self-efficacy, ultimately improving job performance (Kim & Lee, 2023) by replacing old ineffective routines with optimal and functional work-related strategies (Kathiravan, Devadason, &

Zakkeer, 2006). Therefore, training helps to achieve a competitive advantage and enhances employee performance and organisational productivity (Chen, Ping, Zhang & Yi, 2022). Despite the importance of training transfer, estimates suggest that only about 10% of learning transfers to job performance (Holton & Baldwin, 2000; Lim & Johnson, 2002). The situation in Ghana has been the same because there is anecdotal evidence that many organisations have sprung up with their attendant human resource challenges. Sharif, Braimah, and Dogbey (2023) postulate that improving the knowledge and abilities of public sector employees is the primary strategy for enhancing the capacity of professionals to carry out their mandates.

Training transfers remain a challenge for organisations looking to maximize training efficacy. According to Creon and Schermuly (2022), practical training would increase productivity, raise employees' morale, develop their confidence, and, in the long term, lower business costs. Meaningful learning programmes cannot ensure that employees apply freshly acquired information and techniques (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). This worry has grown in importance because of present-day evolving work needs. Employees' perspective is the secret to comparative gain (Glerum, Joseph, Mckenny & Fristzsche, 2020), and the shift towards learning as a fundamental technique for adequately using human resources. This worry has piqued the interest of scholars in understanding the transmission mechanism. Although learning transfer was one of the earliest concerns explored by classical behavioural scientists, contemporary studies have been on unreliable transfer quantification and increased outcome variations. Several scholars have observed various elements that impact training transfer, either directly or indirectly. Those considered are personal, situational, environmental, or contextual factors and intervention design elements. Holton's (1996) learning transfer system inventory (LTSI) model considered 16 variables that impact training transfer inside the work environment. The literature indicates that studies have focused on the most significant component of training outcomes, namely training transfer. Not all variables that influence transfer can exist unless they lack some facts. As a result, several academics have amassed data by providing various assessment frameworks for measuring training results. Kirkpatrick's paradigm is broadly recognized (Bhatti & Kaur, 2010).

Kirkpatrick (1967) examined training classification on four 'levels.' These are how trainees feel (i.e., reactions), whether they did acquire something (i.e., learning), if the teaching was transmitted to the job (i.e., behaviour), and if it realized its overall aim to correct implied productivity shortfall (i.e., results). By measuring the return on investment (ROI), Phillips (1996) adds another level (the 'ultimate' level) to Kirkpatrick's (1967) four-level classification. Nonetheless, numerous investigators employ the model's reaction evaluation to define the beginning phase of effectiveness (Giangreco, Qin, Pintar & Watt, 2008). Conversely, Kirkpatrick (2004) proposes using trainees' perceptions of training objective attainment to measure learner responsiveness to training. Wang, Zhang, and Huo (2022) argue that training transfer is undervalued in both research and practice. Over the past years, transfer models have been used to evaluate transfer systems, including individual, group, and organisational characteristics that affect the transfer of training to job performance. However, little attention has been given to understanding other factors that are not included in traditional transfer models that can help senior staff in higher educational institutions transfer their training to job performance, nor has much space been devoted to the opportunity to transfer in a more elevated educational context. Given the urgent need for more evidence-based management practices (Blume et al., 2023; Rousseau, 2006; Wang et al., 2022), we believe such a comprehensive analysis is both current and vital. There is a need to understand which variables genuinely play an essential role in enabling the transfer of training, not instinctively but with evidence-based backing. One issue that has to be addressed by researchers in Ghana is the factors that influence training transfer (Andoh et al., 2023). The present study examines predictors of training transfer of senior staff in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. The specific objectives of the study were to:

- 1) examine the relationship between supervisor support and training transfer of participants.
- 2) determine the relationship between motivation to transfer and training transfer of participants.
- 3) examine the relationship between training design and training transfer of participants.
- 4) determine the relationship between the opportunity to transfer and training transfer of participants.

The paper is organized as follows: The second section reviews existing literature and argues for the stated research hypotheses. Section 3 of the study discusses the research methodology, covering the establishment of measurements, data collection, population demographics, and data extrapolation

techniques. The empirical analysis and findings are discussed in Section 4, and the study's conclusions are discussed in Section 5.

Literature Review

The literature review focuses on the theoretical underpinnings and employee training transfer factors, mainly the supervisor's support, motivation to transfer, the opportunity to transfer, and training design.

Theoretical Underpinnings

The factors that influence the employee training transfer path can be described through the lens of some theories, particularly motivation, social learning, and cognitive theories. The notion of accomplishment motivation underpins learning (or mastery) orientation, which explains individual behaviour and motivation in achievement situations (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Learners having a learning orientation (also known as mastery goal orientation) are far more focused on improving expertise via training. According to Holton (1996), learning and individual performance are two goals that are prioritized for HRD intervention. Holton thought that trainees choose what they wish to study or not learn for each training programme. In other words, employees who want to learn are more likely to use what they have learnt on the job. According to Holton's approach, motivation is secondary, yet it has a direct impact on organisational outcomes. Furthermore, Holton says that HRD outcomes are expected to be influenced by ability, motivation, and environmental factors. According to social learning theories (Jarvis, 2012; Vygotsky, 1978), firms and their staff (workers and managers) impact the depth and efficiency of employee learning and, as a result, the rate and adequacy of training. Their power is wielded via corporate incentive schemes and support regarding activities that encourage training transfer. Several writers researching training transfer variables (e.g. Hughes, Zajac, Woods & Salas, 2020; Nikandrou, Brinia, & Bereri, 2009) have established a comparable impact. Social support theories argue that when numerous work environment variables are addressed, such as guaranteeing general organisational support, workers are more likely to establish and accomplish ambitious performance objectives (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Cognitive theory argues that the feasibility of transfer is dependent on trainees' ability to recover learnt knowledge after being provided with meaningful content, since these elements will allow a relationship between what trainees face in their work setting and the newly acquired information. According to cognitive theory, two instructional methodologies can enable learners to engage in the prospective application of training knowledge to work environments: 1) assist trainees in recognizing work challenges and discussing the potential application of training content to solve the issues; and 2) assign relevant workplace problems to which trainees may be able to use training content to solve (Noe, 2017). They are more inclined to accept demanding pursuits that will aid in learning acquisition.

Training Transfer Determinants

Several factors that can be classified into three categories influence training transfer: work environment, trainee characteristics, and training design (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Grossman & Salas, 2011). The most widely used empirically based survey to evaluate a broad range of factors affecting transfer of learning is the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) (Bates, Holton, & Hatala, 2012; Holton, Bates, & Rouna, 2000). The current study looked at the most theoretically relevant variables within each of these categories: trainee characteristics or motivation (i.e., motivation to transfer); organisational or work environment (i.e., supervisor support); and training design (i.e., training design and opportunity to transfer) as measured by the LTSI.

Supervisor support

Baldwin and Ford (1988) postulate that any strategy of enhancing transfer that happens before or after formal training occurs in the workplace. The supervisor's support is critical to the workplace environment (Blume et al., 2023). Employees have supervisory support if their superior becomes active

in "clarifying performance expectations after training, identifying opportunities to apply new skills and knowledge, setting realistic goals based on training, working with individuals on problems encountered while applying new skills, and providing feedback when individuals successfully apply new abilities" (Broucker, 2007, pp. 7). Supervisory support measures the degree to which supervisors encourage and strengthen the utilization of on-the-job learning (Holton et al., 2000). Supervisor support is described as being positive about the training, discussing the application of new knowledge and abilities, removing barriers to training transfer, assuring transfer opportunities, and providing feedback (Salas et al., 2012) to influence training transfer (Lim & Johnson, 2002). Depending on trainees' differences, supervisor support may be more beneficial (Blume et al.). Sharif, Braimah, and Dogbey (2023) found out that supervisor support significantly and positively influences training transfer.

Motivation to transfer

Few researchers could conduct studies to determine the impact of motivation to transfer on the transfer of training. Wexley and Baldwin (1996) assured that the desire to transfer is essential in determining the degrees of transfer learners considered they had attained following training involvement. Holton et al. (2000) suggested that a person's degree of training motivation relates to the orientation, strength, and effort towards applying what they have learnt in the workplace. Motivation to transfer is defined as a learner's intentional effort to use competencies and information obtained in a training context in a real work scenario (Noe, 1986), which has a direct impact on transfer results (Nijman, Nijhof, Wognum & Veldkamp, 2006). Tracey, Tannenbaum, and Kavanagh (1995) postulate that learners' perception of the significance of training and prospects to apply training on the job, for example, influence motivation to transfer. An HRD training programme that does not consider a trainee's characteristics (for example, motivation) cannot promote learning or transfer of training (Kim & Lee, 2023). Motivation to transfer is a pivotal factor influencing the transfer of training (Boere, de Jong, Jansel in de Wal & Cornelissen, 2023). Motivation to transfer predicts transfer intention and transfer of training over time (Jansen in de Wal, de Jong, Cornelissen & Brabander, 2023).

Axtell, Maitlis, and Yearta (1997) discovered that individuals who finish the training and subsequently use their acquired insight, abilities, or disposition on the job influence the transfer of learning from training to the place of work. Facticeau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, and Kudisch (1995) contend that everything remains constant; the more inspired a trainee is, the more likely they will obtain the desired outcomes from the training experience. Chiaburu, Van-dan, and Hutchins (2010) found that motivation to transfer significantly and positively influences the transference of training behavior. Baldwin and Ford (1988) discovered that if individuals are not inspired, they might decide not to put readily acquired abilities into practice. However, intrinsically driven persons will proactively seek opportunities to use what they have learnt in training (Gegenfurtner, Veermans, Festner, & Gruber, 2009).

Training design

Nijman et al. (2006) argued that training design is one of the most critical factors in the transfer of training. Accordingly, the LTSI measures such a factor, transfer design. One element contributing to training failure is that the training structure hardly facilitates transfers (Holton, 1996). The amount to which '(1) training has been planned and delivered to afford trainees the capacity to transfer knowledge to the work, and (2) training requirements fit job needs' is referred to as transfer design (Holton et al., 2000 p. 345). Bhat, Mir, Rameez, and Rainayee (2022) posit that the usefulness of the training is a critical aspect of training design. Workers are less likely to employ their competencies once they resume work if the exercise is pointless, according to Kasim and Ali (2011), regardless of current trainees and workplace environment attributes. Nikandrou, Brinia, and Bereri (2009) postulate that training structure and the particular approach utilized, trainee-centredness, have a crucial effect on training transfer.

Nonetheless, researchers have rarely investigated the impact of training design on training transfer. According to Lim and Johnson (2002), for learning transfer to occur, training design, contents, and instructive tactics should be relevant to the transfer goal, either near or far transfer. Grossman and Salas (2011) found that transfer design positively influenced transfer outcomes. Velede et al. (2007) discovered that transfer design is substantially connected with transfer in a study of 182 workers in a

supermarket firm. Yaqub, Singh, and Dutta (2021) found that training design has a positive and direct relationship with training transfer. Training design has a positive and significant influence on the transfer of training (Bhat et al., 2022).

Opportunity to Transfer

The degree to which trainees regard and possess adequate time and raw materials readily accessible influences the degree to which information, competencies, and attitudes gained during training will be utilized or restricted (Noe, 1986). Employees require enough time and opportunity to apply new knowledge, skills, and behavioural patterns in the workplace. The chance to use might be explained as "the extent to which a trainee is provided with or actively obtains work experiences relevant to the tasks for which he or she was trained" (Ford, 1992, p. 512). Lim and Johnson (2002) discovered that the opportunity to use learnt material on the job proved extremely important to transfer by Korean Human resource experts in their qualitative research. Mathieu, Tannebaum, and Salas (1992) argue that situational restrictions at work moderately adversely affect trainees' training motivation. Opportunities to practice knowledge and skills both during and after training (e.g., assigning work projects that relate to training content) are also positively related to training transfer (Kraiger, 2014; Nickerson, Cook, Cruz, & Parks, 2019).

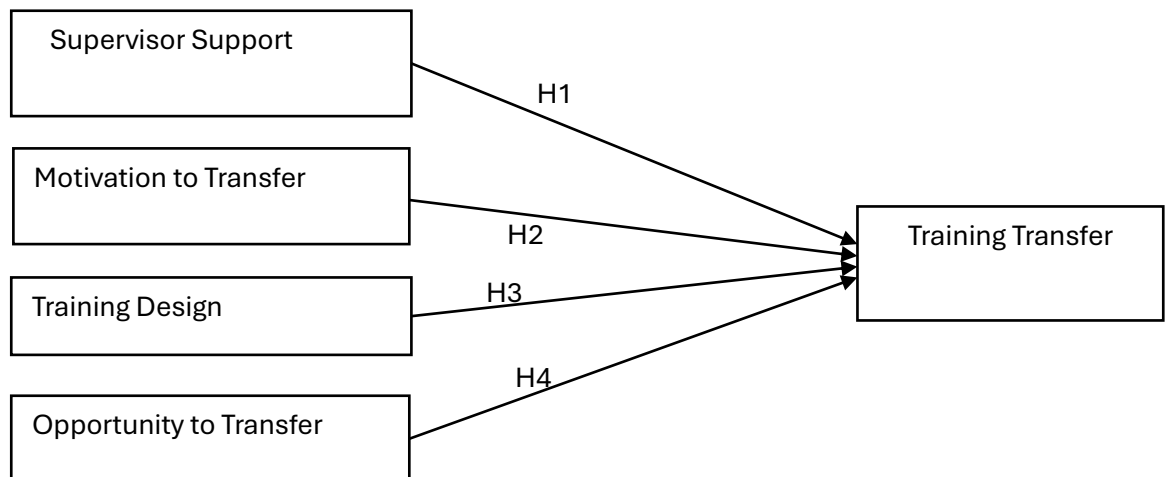
Training Transfer

In the view of Baldwin and Ford (1988), training transfer refers to "knowledge, skills, and attitudes learnt from the training that is generalized to the job context and maintained over time" (p. 346). This definition accentuates the need to recognize the importance of learning new skills and refining current skills (Facteau et al., 1995) so that such skills can match the requirements of the new job settings. Chen et al. (2022) postulate that training enhances employee commitment and maximizes employee potential. Training transfer is an intricate procedure that is influenced either by the learner's intent or inspiration (trainee characteristics), the working conditions, supervision assistance (organisational conditions and attributes), and the curriculum design and mode of delivery of the training programme (Subedi, 2004).

We accordingly hypothesize that:

- H1: Supervisor support positively influences training transfer.
- H2: Motivation to transfer affects training transfer positively.
- H3: Training design affects training transfer positively.
- H4: Opportunity to transfer influences training transfer positively.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual model of the research aim and hypotheses of the study.



Methods

Sources of Data and Sample

The study employed the explanatory research design and cross-sectional survey strategy. Explanatory research seeks to study a situation or problem to explain the relationships between variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The study's target population was 500 trained senior staff of the University of Cape Coast. Using a stratified random sampling technique, two hundred and fifty (250) respondents were sampled from selected departments in each of the five (5) colleges of the University of Cape Coast. Saunders et al. indicate that dividing the population into a series of strata implies that the sample is more likely to be represented as it can ensure that each stratum would be represented proportionally within the sample. After getting the number of respondents needed, we establish strata in the sample based on the share of the five groups in the population, using the formula of Lynch (Miller, 1991), namely:

$$n_i = \frac{N_i}{N} \times n$$

Where:

n_i = size of the stratified sample

n = size of the total sample

N_i = size of the population based on stratum

N = overall population

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a population of at least 500 requires a sample size of at least 217. Primary data were collected using questionnaires.

Measurement of Variables

Dependent variable

The dependent variable is represented by Training Transfer (TT) and is based on questions rated on a five-point Likert scale. Nine objective measures of training transfer were adapted from Facticeau et al. (1995) to measure training transfer variable.

Independent variables

The study's independent variables comprised four constructs and were adapted from several related studies by Noe and Schmitt (1986), Baldwin and Ford (1988), Broucker (2007), and Lim and Johnson (2002). Questions on predictor variables were scored on a five-point Likert scale. Table 3 (see Appendix) shows the sources of each of the questionnaire items.

Method of data analysis

SmartPLS version 3.2.2 software program was utilized in computing the path coefficients, composite reliability, average variance extracted (AVE), R^2 , and bootstrap re-sampling. The obtained data were tested, using the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Model (PLS-SEM). A PLS-SEM requires few measurement scales, residual distributions, and sample sizes, and it supports many predictor variables (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). Complex network analysis, aided by SEM, better reflects the real-world scenario than correlation-based solutions. SEM combines factor analysis with multiple regressions to explore several dependent relationships.

Results and Discussions

Descriptive analyses

Although 250 questionnaires were administered to 250 respondents, 240 were duly filled out and returned, representing a return rate of 96%. Out of the 240 respondents, 155 (64.58%) were males and 85 (35.42%) females. The results revealed that the dominant category is males.

Assessing the Measurement (Outer) Model

The PLS - Structural Equation Modelling findings begin with an evaluation of the model to establish its fitness, which includes evaluating the reliability of constructs and indicators and checking for both discriminant and convergent validity. Table 1 shows that all constructs have composite reliability greater than 0.7 in all circumstances, indicating that the constructs are dependable (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). The results also showed that all constructs had AVEs ranging from 0.509 to 0.664, above the required threshold of 0.5 (Wong, 2013), indicating that convergent validity is adequate.

When each item's loading is at least 0.70 and significant at 0.05, a measurement model is considered to have adequate indicator reliability. Hair et al. (2017) postulate that variables with factor loading between 0.40 and 0.70 should be removed if the deletion increases CR and AVE beyond the proposed threshold value. Based on this, SS3 and SS4 (supervisor support, Items 3 and 4) are dropped to increase the AVE of the construct (supervisor support). However, variables with extremely small outer loadings (below 0.40) must be excluded (Hair et al., 2017). At the 0.01 and 0.05 significance levels, all indicator loadings are significant.

Regarding discriminant validity, neither the lower nor upper boundary confidence intervals included the value of 1 (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2015). Fornell and Larcker (1981) assert that for discriminant validity to be acceptable, the square roots of each concept's AVE should be greater than the correlates of such construct with all the other constructs. These values are shown in Table 4 (see Appendix). According to Table 4, all diagonal figures are more significant than off-diagonal values in the respective columns and rows, indicating that discriminant validity is established. Cross-loading of the indicator's loadings is another discriminant approach. All loadings on its designated structure must exceed all cross-loadings on the other construct. Table 5 (see Appendix) shows that all loadings with the assigned construct correlate strongly with corresponding indicators (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 1: Measurement Models Evaluation Result

| Constructs/indicators | Loadings | CR | AVE | HTMT confidence interval does not include 1 |
|-------------------------------------|----------|-------|-------|---|
| <i>Motivation to Transfer (MT)</i> | | 0.804 | 0.509 | Yes |
| MT1 | 0.650 | | | |
| MT2 | 0.641 | | | |
| MT3 | 0.721 | | | |
| MT4 | 0.826 | | | |
| <i>Opportunity to Transfer (OT)</i> | | 0.928 | 0.618 | Yes |
| OT1 | 0.854 | | | |
| OT2 | 0.842 | | | |
| OT3 | 0.842 | | | |
| OT4 | 0.826 | | | |
| OT5 | 0.741 | | | |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-----|
| OT6 | 0.644 | | | |
| OT7 | 0.841 | | | |
| OT8 | 0.667 | | | |
| <i>Supervisor Support (SS)</i> | | 0.815 | 0.524 | Yes |
| SS1 | 0.725 | | | |
| SS2 | 0.735 | | | |
| SS5 | 0.676 | | | |
| SS6 | 0.758 | | | |
| <i>Training Design (TD)</i> | | 0.905 | 0.615 | Yes |
| TD1 | 0.668 | | | |
| TD2 | 0.754 | | | |
| TD3 | 0.834 | | | |
| TD4 | 0.853 | | | |
| TD5 | 0.761 | | | |
| TD6 | 0.821 | | | |
| <i>Training Transfer (TT)</i> | | 0.946 | 0.664 | Yes |
| TT1 | 0.867 | | | |
| TT2 | 0.808 | | | |
| TT3 | 0.718 | | | |
| TT4 | 0.739 | | | |
| TT5 | 0.896 | | | |
| TT6 | 0.873 | | | |
| TT7 | 0.901 | | | |
| TT8 | 0.789 | | | |
| TT9 | 0.713 | | | |

Notes: HTMT- Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio; CR - Composite Reliability; AVE-Average Variance Extracted.

Evaluating the Inner Model

We evaluate the study assumptions after ensuring that the measurement model's findings suggest that the constructs fulfill the requirements of construct and indicator reliability and convergent and discriminant validity. This activity is completed by examining the collinearity between all constructs utilizing variance inflation factor (VIF), direction, and strength, making use of path coefficient, significance level with p-values using 5000 bootstraps, the goodness-of-fit with a determination coefficient (R^2), and effect size (f^2), as proposed by Hair et al. (2017). The variance inflation factor (VIF), which has a maximum limit of 5, is used to assess multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2017). The VIF results from Table 1 are less than 5, indicating no difficulties with multicollinearity. Table 1 has the maximum VIF of 2.977. Again, because VIF is smaller than the 3.3 criteria, the model is not influenced by common method bias (Kock, 2015).

Moreover, the internal construct's coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated. The R^2 result is the total variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. Results in Figure 2 (See Appendix) and Table 2 revealed that the model indicated by hypotheses H1-H4 demonstrates that independent factors (supervisory support, training design, motivation to transfer, and opportunity to transfer) explained 78.3 percent of the training transfer variation judged substantial, as per Nitzi and Chin (2017). Furthermore, predictive relevance (Q2) is essential for determining a complex model's predictive validity (Hair et al., 2017). Q2 uses PLS to assess the predictive validity of a large, complex model based on the blindfolding technique. The study obtained a Q2 of 0.504 using an omission distance of 7, which shows that the exogenous constructs (supervisor's support, training design,

motivation to transfer, and opportunity to transfer) have a medium predictive relevance for the endogenous construct (training transfer), as shown in Table 2. According to Hair et al. (2017), effect size (f^2) enables you to analyze the relevance of exogenous constructs in explaining selected endogenous constructs. Results of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 are interpreted as small, medium, and large effect sizes. The effect size measure presented in Table 2 shows that the opportunity to transfer ($f^2 = 0.37$) has a large effect. Motivation to transfer ($f^2 = 0.07$), supervisory support ($f^2 = 0.05$), and training design ($f^2 = 0.06$) have a small effect.

Table 2: Summary of Findings

| Path | Path Coefficient (β) | Standard Deviation | T-Statistics | P-Values | VIF | R ² | f^2 | Q ² |
|----------|------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|----------|-------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| MT -> TT | 0.204 | 0.065 | 3.135 | 0.002*** | 2.635 | 0.783 | 0.073 | 0.504 |
| OT -> TT | 0.427 | 0.052 | 8.154 | 0.000*** | 2.280 | 0.783 | 0.369 | 0.504 |
| SS -> TT | 0.173 | 0.063 | 2.724 | 0.006*** | 2.533 | 0.783 | 0.054 | 0.504 |
| TD -> TT | 0.200 | 0.058 | 3.455 | 0.001*** | 2.977 | 0.783 | 0.062 | 0.504 |

Notes: *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Factors Influencing Training Transfer

The hypothesis that supervisor support positively influences training transfer is supported by a positive and significant path coefficient between the two constructs ($\beta = 0.173, p < 0.05$). The conclusion that supervisor support has a favourable and considerable influence on the transfer of training is consistent with earlier expectations and the theoretical notion of the link between supervisor support and training transfer. Past research and investigations have found that supervisory support positively influences training transfer. Supervisors may support trainees' training transfer by offering timely feedback on performances, opportunities to perform, consequences, and accountability goals and aid with workload management throughout training (Taylor, Russ-Eft, & Chan, 2005). Our results suggest that managers strongly influence trainees' performance; therefore, more insight and effort are required to support training transfer.

At the 5% significance level, the path coefficient between motivation to transfer and training transfer is significant ($\beta = 0.204, p < 0.05$). The results suggest that the second hypothesis that motivation to transfer positively influences training transfer is confirmed. The results imply that, all other things being equal, when trainees are highly motivated, the greater the likelihood of obtaining the expected gains from the training programme. This observation is analogous to the empirical evidence of Facteau et al. (1995), Chiaburu et al. (2010), Boere et al. (2023), and Jansen in de Wal et al. (2023). They disclosed that motivation to transfer does have an agreeable impact and is advantageous to employees' training transfer. Training design exhibited a significant positive relationship with training transfer (0.200, $p < 0.05$), with the significance threshold set at 5%. As a result, the third hypothesis is supported. This result is consistent with the findings of Bhat et al. (2023), Grossman and Salas (2011), Valeda et al. (2007), and Yaqub et al. (2021), who found that training design predicts training transfer. Trainees are more likely to use training content in the workplace if they are convinced the training programme was developed and presented in a way that maximizes the trainee's capabilities to transfer the training to the job (Holton, 1996).

Regarding the opportunity to transfer, this study's findings indicate a positive and significant relationship between the opportunity to transfer and training transfer. It is significant at the 5% significance level ($\beta = 0.427, p < 0.05$). This result proves that a high opportunity to transfer would increase voluntary training transfer. Thus, the fourth hypothesis is supported. The opportunity to transfer knowledge and skills throughout training (Lim & Johnson, 2002) and apply learning immediately after training is critical for training transfer (Kraiger, 2014). The result is also consistent with Nickerson et al's. (2019), who found that the opportunity to transfer positively influences training transfer. The results, as presented in Table 2, further suggest that opportunity to transfer ($\beta = 0.427, p <$

0.01) is the most important determinant of training transfer, followed by motivation to transfer ($\beta = 0.204, p < 0.01$), training design ($\beta = 0.200, p < 0.05$) and supervisor support ($\beta = 0.200, p < 0.173$).

Conclusion

The findings showed that supervisor support, motivation to transfer, training design, and opportunity to transfer influence training transfer. The research delivers critical implications to CEOs and human resource managers, and one is that training can only produce results with management support and continuous active participation. The cooperation between supervisors and representatives of personnel departments is the key to the success of such support. The study recommends that the heads of institutions of the University of Cape Coast should support training to influence senior staff training transfer. Goal setting, seeking cooperative solutions to training transfer challenges, and delivering feedback are essential concerns that should become the subject of continuous discussion among workers and their line managers.

The current study's findings show that transfer design serves as a beginning for profitable training transfer, and organisations would be wise to consider such an element. Trainers may strengthen the transfer design of a training programme by including transfer-related case studies that demonstrate how participants could efficiently use training content and abilities back at work. As a result, to achieve significant work performance, training programmes must address work-related subjects that ideally highlight the value of the training components for the workplace. This study lends credence to theoretical literature, indicating the relevance of a transfer design that maximizes the trainee's ability to transfer in improving training transfer. Organisations should design their training programmes to incorporate elements that boost the possibility of transfer.

Given the necessity of quickly applying training content and skills, it is critical to provide structured information on how to do so. Heads of department should schedule chances for practice and include an agenda for exercising skills and exchanging knowledge in crisis team meetings. The University's Management should give senior staff enough time and opportunity to apply new knowledge, skills, and behavioural patterns in the workplace. Ensuring that the organisation creates a working environment that encourages employees to apply their training knowledge is also critical. HRD practitioners must establish an effective learning organisation and a culture of knowledge exchange to satisfy these trainees. Organisations can emphasize organisational learning and knowledge sharing in various ways, such as by establishing an effective learning organisation, sharing their vision with their employees, and encouraging team learning in organisations.

Limitations and Future Studies

This present research has some drawbacks. Firstly, for the parameters under inquiry, self-report was employed. Secondly, this study gathered data at a specific time via a cross-sectional design. Nonetheless, cross-sectional methods are commonly used within training efficacy to enhance understanding before trying long-term investigations. Furthermore, because the data source is peculiar to one institution the generalization of the conclusions may be restricted. In any case, this study can be carried out in other businesses that employ various training strategies and on other trainees.

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