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*TRANSFER OF TRAINING – A SUGGESTED COURSE OF ACTION FOR
LOCAL AUTHORITIES COPING WITH ACUTE FINANCIAL DISTRESS
AND ONGOING WORKFORCE CUT OFF
AN ISRAELI CASE STUDY*

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*"At the end of the day, training transfer is where the rubber meets the road.
Training only creates value when is transferred and applied to work."*

**The American Society for Training & Development (ASTD),
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABA - American Bankers Association

ADDIE model – Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, Evaluation model

ASTD - American Society for Training & Development

B5M - The Big Five Model (Personality model)

CC - Career Commitment

ERG - Existence, Relatedness, Growth (Theory of motivation)

FFM - The Five Factor Model (Personality model)

ID - Instructional Design

IS - Instructional System

LOC - Locus of Control

MBTI - Myers – Briggs Type Indicator

MTIWL - Motivation to Improve Work through Learning

OC - Organizational Commitment

OECD – Organization for Economic Co- operation and Development

SKA - Skills, Knowledge, Ability

TEPAV – Turkiye Economi Politikolari Arastirma Vakfi (Economic Stability Institute of the Economic Research Foundation of Turkey)

VIE -Valance – Instrumentality – Expectancy (Theory of motivation)

ABSTRACT

Local authorities in many free market economy – based countries as well as welfare economy - based countries, experience acute fiscal distress and ongoing cut- offs in the workforce. For years, many of the local authorities in Israel have been coping with ongoing acute fiscal distress, which has had a significant impact on their capability to create, sustain and deliver public value to their residents.

This dissertation aimed to provide suggested potential remedies for improving local authorities' and other organizations' performance. The suggested course of action was to leverage training and its transfer to work settings, although it was clearly noted that training and its successful application in the workplace are not a panacea to all the issues that the local authorities are confronting. An attempt was made to paint a picture of the key factors which may facilitate or prevent the use of training outcomes as a tool which can contribute to the abilities of an organization, acting in a turbulent environment, to accomplish its goals in the most efficient manner.

A total of 420 employees, participating in training courses, from three different sectors in various local authorities in Israel were surveyed. However, due to missing data the usable sample was 272 trainees .Two employee related constructs (trainee characteristics and motivation to improve work through learning - MTIWL) and two organization related constructs (work environment and training design) were captured for 272 trainees in an attempt to predict their impact on training transfer. Additionally, the impacts of trainee characteristics, work environment and training design on MTIWL were examined, along with the mediating role of MTIWL between the three above mentioned constructs and training transfer. The results partially supported the predicted links. Evidence for the impact of MTIWL on transfer of training was found while, in turn, rather surprisingly, the research findings revealed that trainee characteristics, work environment and training design had no influence on transfer of training. Additionally, trainee personal characteristics and work environment were found to be predictors of MTIWL. The respondents scored higher than average on all the variables, indicating above – average perceptions regarding the examined constructs. These were mapped them as important

factors in a work setting. The implications of the results were discussed and several practical recommendations were made. Additionally, the limitations of this research were noted, along with suggested avenues for future research.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES IN ISRAEL

In the current era, which is characterized by frequent and substantial changes in the work environment, flexibility is required to implement strategic and structural changes to contend with potential challenges. Both profit and non-profit organizations must maintain an intensive communication flow between various administrative levels, in order to successfully implement employee empowerment, delegate authority and responsibilities to sub-systems, stimulate creativity and innovation and develop and nurture the workforce. Fulfillment of the organization's vision and accomplishment of its goals rely on establishing a mechanism that ensures the existence of sub-systems, based on a skilled and professional workforce working together in integration and synergy.

Effects of this rapidly changing environment did not skip 253 local authorities in Israel - 75 cities, 122 local councils, 54 regional councils and 2 industrial councils: Ramat - Hovav and Tefen.

In every corner of the world, sub – national governments play an important role in improving the government sectors' operations and activities by providing public services more effectively and efficiently. The local authorities in Israel provide education, social welfare and environmental services as "subcontractors" of the central government, as well as oversee traditional municipal services, such as water supply, sewage disposal and treatment, leisure, sport and local public infrastructures, that fall predominately in their jurisdiction. As the level of governance closest to the people, the local authorities play a vital role in implementing national and sub - national policies regarding almost all the aspects that determine the quality of life.

Through democratic elections, the voters in the community elect the head of the authority and the plenum. The head of the authority is elected for a period of five years, without restrictions limiting terms of duty. As opposed to the national level, a direct relationship between the citizens and the head of the authority exists on the local level, which is committed to fulfill the demands and needs of the citizens, providing leverage in future polls. For this reason the head of the local authority is personally committed to the citizens and the degree of his success in daily performance has a direct impact on the opportunity to be re-elected. In the recent years, there has been a significant increase in the number of

independent candidates elected without affinity to a political party. This situation reflects the fact that, on the local level, community members vote for candidates perceived as capable of fulfilling needs and wants, rather than supporting a party member representing an ideology.

The juridical status of the local authorities in Israel is based upon legislation dating back to the British Mandate in 1934, and while technical amendments have been made several times, no adaptations concerning the official authorities and duties of the local authorities have been integrated. Lack of a juridical framework delimiting the scope of their duties and authorizations has a negative impact on performance of the local authorities.

The financial sources of local authorities are monitored and supervised by the central government. Reliance on the central government has increased in recent years, effectively rendering the local authorities part of the executive arm of the government (Dery, 1994). On a national level, the Ministries' strength *vis-à-vis* the local authorities enables the government to:

- a. Impose expected work patterns;
- b. Disperse an increasing volume of services traditionally provided by the central government to the responsibility of the local authorities while maintaining central control;
- c. Limit the scope of local decision making.

Based on data provided by international institutions, Israel is one of the leading countries in the level of governmental grants (equalization payments) given to local authorities (Razin, 2003).

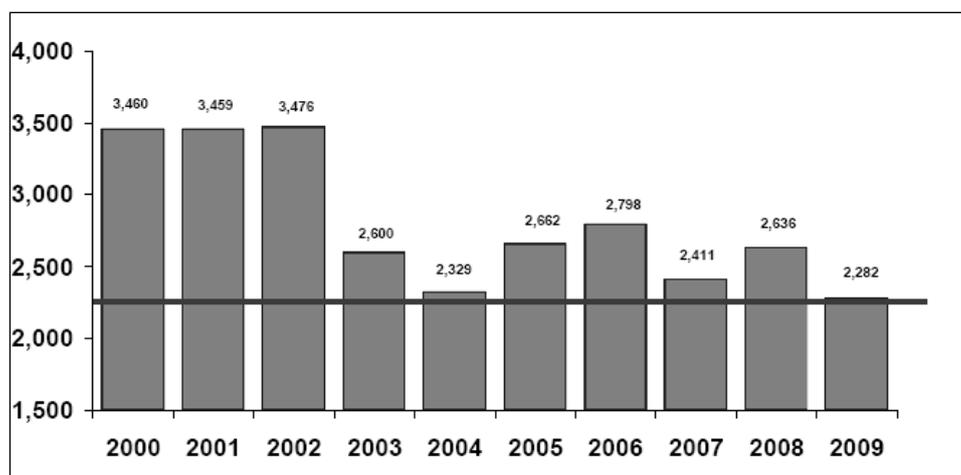
The primary goals of the Israeli government's new economic policy, as formulated in 1985, are to decrease inflation, reduce the public sector's expenses and to cut off subsidies. The public sector is urged to act in a more economic manner, as called for by this policy. Local authorities are asked to conduct their activities more efficiently and effectively; to implement measures such as better utilization of assets, expanded tax collections from citizens, ongoing cut-offs in the workforce and expanded economic development. Beyond the directives of the new economic policy, citizens are now more aware of high-quality services, which are based on improved infrastructures, as well as a professional and qualified workforce. This awareness is expressed in the electronic media, local newspapers, demonstrations and activities of local pressure groups. The needs and demands of citizens

for improved services focus primarily on education, welfare and environmental issues. Citizen expectations are the catalyst which cause local authorities to take the necessary innovative and effective steps required to consistently improve worker's capabilities, skills and knowledge. All of these steps should be taken in order to provide the best possible services in all aspects of life, thus fulfilling the bulk of the needs.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

For some years now, local authorities in Israel have suffered from serious ongoing fiscal and financial distress, with many of them in a dire economic state, in spite of an improvement reported in the mid- 90's. Several factors contributed to the brief improvement in the budgetary deficit, including budgetary directives imposed by the government and the growing ability of citizens to track the financial performance of local authorities (Navon, 2005). This improvement came to an end in 2001. An era of significant growth in the budget deficit was ushered in during 2003, and more so in 2004. Growing budgetary deficit led to an additional decline in services and an inability to pay the salaries of both workers and suppliers. Cut-offs in the balancing grants (Diagram 1) transferred by the government, mainly in education and welfare, had a crucial impact on the local authorities, particularly those suffering from low socio-economic levels. While improvement peaked in 1999, with number of balanced authorities reaching 135, this figure dropped to 43 by 2003 (Financial Data - Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2003).

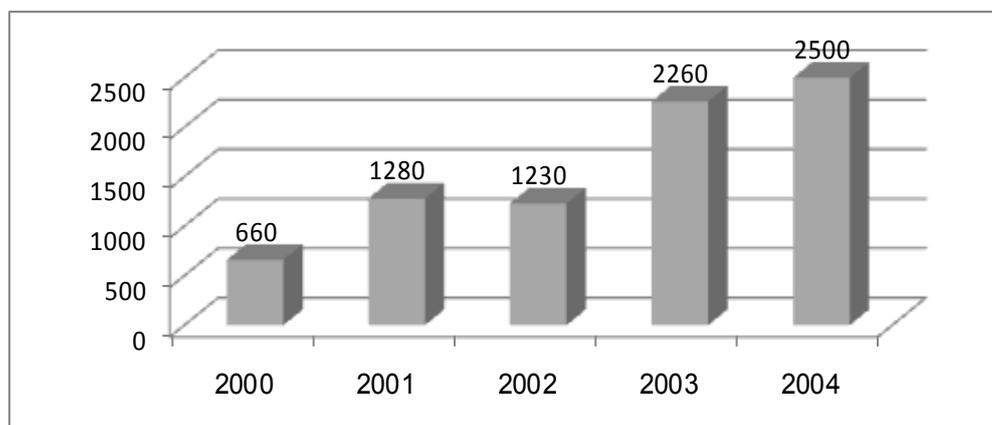
Diagram 1 -Balancing grants (millions of NIS) – 2000 – 2009 (Own creation)



Source - Inspected data - Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2001 – 2009.

The budgetary deficit of 660 million NIS in 2000 reached 2.5 billion NIS (6.25 million US Dollars) in 2004 (Financial Data - Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2000 to 2004). Diagram 2 shows the current budgetary deficit between 2000 and 2004.

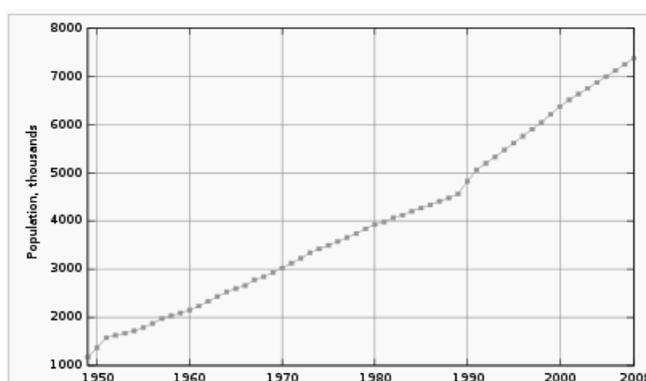
Diagram 2 – Current budgetary deficit (millions of NIS) - 2000 – 2004 (Own creation)



Source – Financial Data – Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2000 – 2004
(Remark: Current budgetary deficit 2005 – 2007 is shown in diagram 4)

The primary factor for the increased budgetary deficit was the gap which existed between expenditures in education and welfare compared to the sums allocated by the government for these purposes. While crises continued, the most severe occurred in 2003. By 2004, over 100 local authorities failed to pay salaries to 30% of their employees on time. As a direct result, the government canceled planned further budgetary cut-offs in 2004 and decided to transfer an equal rate of balancing grants to 2003. These steps were conditioned on the implementation of certain measures by the local authorities, including increased efficiency and wide-scale cut-offs in workforce. In recent years, the number of employees decreased continuously while the population raised by an average of approximately 2 % per year. Israel's high rate of population growth is due to immigration and high level of fertility. Population growth during six decades is emphasized in Diagram 3.

Diagram 3 – Population growth 1950 – 2008 (Own creation)



Source – State of Israel - Central bureau of statistics annual publication

Table 1 illustrates the employee cut-off vis-a-vis the population increase between 2000 and 2004. This trend continues, and has even increased, to date, as depicted in Table 2 (data for 2008-2009 is not currently available).

Table 1 –Local authorities employees vis – a – vis population 2000 – 2004 (Own creation)

Year Job	2000 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)	2001 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)	2002 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)	2003 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)	2004 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)
Education employees	42,832		43,124		43,563		63,631		42,356	
Social welfare employees	6,269		6,360		6,514		6,597		6,370	
Municipal employees	36,784		37,572		37,914		37,745		35,899	
Elected functioneers	578		577		586		550		441	
TOTAL	86,463		87,633		6508,8		88,577		6631,1	
Number of employees per 1000 residents	13.57	13.46	13.36	13.12	12.38	13.57	13.46	13.36	13.12	12.38

Source – Financial Date – Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2000 - 2004

Table 2 –Local authorities employees vis – a – vis population 2005 – 2007(Own creation)

Year Job	2005 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)	2006 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)	2007 Number of employees	Total population (in thousands)
Education employees	42,721		43,500		43,853	
Social welfare employees	6318		6,318		6,165	
Municipal employees	33,736		32,573		32,034	
Elected functioneers	437		430		409	
TOTAL	83,212		6990,7		82,821	
Number of employees per 1000 residents	<i>11.9</i>		<i>11.6</i>		<i>11.3</i>	

Source – Financial Data – Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2005 - 2007.

As displayed above, local authorities employed 82,461 workers in 2007, while the population of the State of Israel reached to 7 million. The number of employees per thousand residents was 11.3. Compared to other developed countries, with similar population, this is extremely low. For example, for thousand residents in Hungary during 2008, 47 public servants were employed, with 470,000 serving a population of approximately 10 million (Vigvari, 2008).

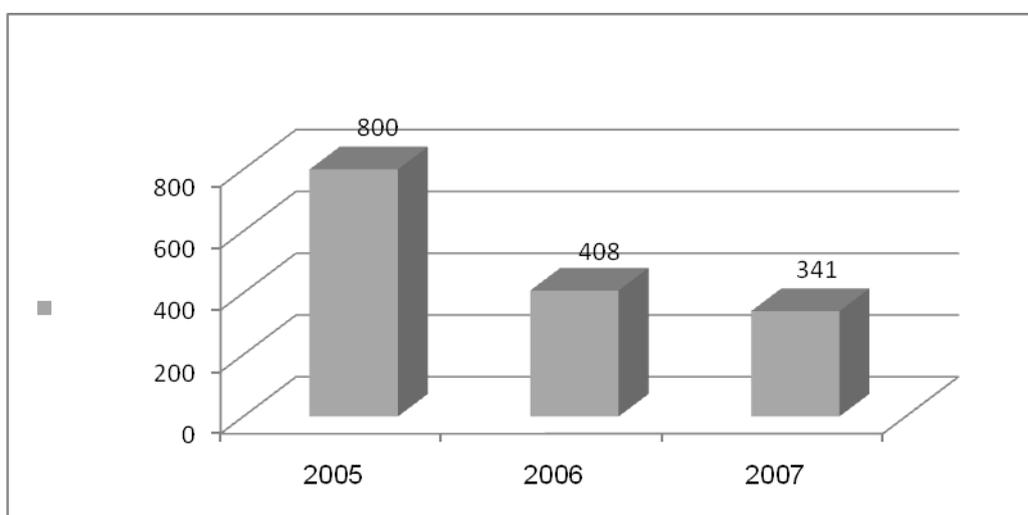
Beginning in 2005 and afterwards, local authorities made ongoing efforts, and to a certain extent succeeded, in reducing the current budgetary deficit despite;

a. governmental policies urging the local authorities to provide an increasing amount of services traditionally characterized as national-level services;

b. an ongoing decline in governmental financial grants pertaining to the scope of the services local authorities are requested to provide .

Besides limited success in reducing the current deficit, local authorities remain in a severe accumulated overall budgetary deficit preventing them from performing appropriate public services expected by the community. The accumulated overall budgetary deficits reached 5 billion NIS (1.35 billion US dollars) in 2007 (Financial Data – Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior,2007). Diagram 4 shows the current budgetary deficit in 2005 – 2007 (Financial Data - Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior, 2005,2006,2007). No data is available for 2008 and 2009.

Diagram 4 –Current budgetary deficit (million of NIS) - 2005 – 2007 (Own creation)



Source – Financial Data – Local Authorities, Israeli Ministry of Interior,2005 - 2007.

Acute financial distress among local authorities is a well - known common worldwide phenomenon. For example, the financial distress among local authorities in two OECD countries, an organization in which Israel is a member, emphasizes the magnitude of the problem. In Norway, although revenues from taxes have increased by 15.1 percent from 2000 to 2001, and there has been an increase by 4.5 percent in central government grants , current expenditures increased by 9.4 percent, resulting in a budgetary deficit, before financial transactions, of about 5.2 billion Norwegian Krone (NOK) in 2001 (Statistics Norway,2001). The budgetary deficit, before financial transactions, reached to 9.2 billion NOK in 2002 (Statistics Norway, 2003) and 24.7 billion NOK in 2008 (Statistics Norway, 2009). The Fiscal Monitoring Report – Budget Realizations (2007), which has been prepared by the Economic Stability Institute of the Economic Policy Research Foundation of

Turkey (TEPAV), warned that the local governments in Turkey are in a serious financial distress and this situation can cause problems in the future. Due to its significant impacts on the political, economical and social state of affairs and particularly on day – to – day life, financial distress in local authorities has been a key subject of concern and inquiry.

1.3 THE BUSINESS PROBLEM OF THE LOCAL AUTHORITIES

The business problem that the local authorities are currently confronting is the extent of their ability to perform an increasing volume of tasks, i.e., inability to meet the community's needs and demands for high - quality public services.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

How can the local authorities in Israel, which are fiscally - distressed and suffering from workforce cut offs, leverage workforce training and its application to the work setting in order to improve performance and meet the complex challenge of creating and delivering sustainable public value ?.

1.5 RESEARCH AIMS

1.5. 1 THE ACADEMICAL (THEORETICAL) AIMS

The academical aims of this research are:

- a.To paint a picture of the key factors which may facilitate or prevent the use of training outcomes as a tool which can contribute to an organization's abilities to accomplish its goals in the most efficient manner, as it continues to function in a dynamic environment and suffers from an ongoing shortage of tangible assets.
- b.To conduct a holistic empirical study embedding the key factors (variables) which may lead to a higher quality of employee services and the correlations between them, in order to find a response to the problems that can be improved by training.

1.4.2 THE PRACTICAL (IMPLEMENTATION) AIMS

The practical aims of the research are:

- a. To provide local authorities with possible courses of action which could aid their ability to create, deliver and sustain distinctive public value to their residents.

b. Considering that local authorities in many countries experience financial distress and ongoing cut-offs in workforce, the research conclusions and recommendations could be helpful to other organizations and local authorities functioning in similar working patterns and under similar constraints.

c. To provide local authorities with a "toolbox" which could enable them to focus their training investments on transfer affecting factors that are within their sphere of control and feature a high cost – value ratio.

Schumaker (2004, 51), emphasizes the crucial importance of training among local authorities employees – "training fills a critical need for local government employees who are expected to assimilate rapid changes in the workplace while providing increasingly efficient and high – quality service". Local governmental training in Israel is planned and carried out by the Training and Development Center. The center was established in 1984 by the Ministry of Interior and the local authorities in order to create an infrastructure of training and development for the entire municipal system in Israel. The Training and Development Center receives a designated budget for organizational training and development to ensure uniform application of Ministry of Interior's policies. Local authorities also receive a criterion – based budget to finance training and development needs. Thus, the work plan of the center reflects both the goals of the Ministry of Interior and those decided by the heads of local authorities. The relative autonomy enjoyed by the center implies that it can determine priorities in training. Trainees from regional councils, local councils and municipalities attend class training courses focusing both on professional and general issues.

While training and its successful application to the workplace are not a panacea to scarce resources, faulty management and economic downturn; research in training and particular in its application to the workplace, plays a large role in solving numerous issues. In today's Information Age, the development of the human asset through training is as critical to business activity as raw materials were during the Industrial Age.

The paucity of research dealing with the application of training to the workplace (Cheng, 2000), is surprising. Future research may help identify, clarify and map factors which could improve both personal and organizational performances. Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992), state that due to the complexity of the training transfer, a process which involves numerous influencing factors, a holistic research defining and mapping these factors can advance

human resource development beyond the mere question of if or why training works. Insufficient research, however, has been devoted to investigating the combined effects of the major organizational and personal factors, particularly in real organizational settings. Furthermore, the implementation of conclusions and recommendations a holistic research may contribute to an improvement in organizations' performance.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 PREFACE

Productivity and peak performance are the major concern in modern economies. The bulk of the more powerful determinants of productivity such as political, legal, economic, ecological, social and technological factors, which represent meta-level external forces influencing organizations, are not subject to the impact of the organization and business strategies. Nevertheless, employee motivation and ability remain two factors that can be influenced by managerial practices. Both ability and motivation are required by employees to perform most jobs. However, Pinder, (2008) opines that highly motivated employees who lack the ability to fulfill their jobs are incapable of translating their motivation into performance. The researcher posits that if there is an ability problem the organization can make efforts to solve it by leveraging employee's skills or replacing the employee. But if motivation is the problem, the task of the organization is more challenging because of its intangible character. Ability can be translated to productivity only when it is reinforced by motivation.

Researchers attempted to describe the magnitude of employees' performance and output based on different factors, including job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001), organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), stress (Siu, 2003) and training (Krieger et al., 2004). Swanson & Holton (2001), argue that the performance-oriented HRD paradigm stresses human resource development as an organizational effort to improve individual and organizational performance through training.

As a direct result of the transition from the Industrial Age to the Knowledge Age (Ducker, 1959), the human resource has become the organization's most important asset. An understanding of the changing nature of work and the key role of human resources is increasing for countries and organizations to move towards the development of their knowledge based economies. The rationale behind such a shift is an understanding that people and their intellectual capital can play a crucial role in an economy in which these

intangible assets are becoming important for economical growth and development. Drucker (1999 b, 79) emphasizes that " the most valuable asset of a 20th company was its production equipment. The most valuable asset of a 21st century institution (whether business or non – business) will be its knowledge workers and their productivity". Drucker et al., (2008), emphasize that in view that people are the most valuable asset, organizations must prepare them through continuous education, development and training. Employees with unique skills, abilities and knowledge who are capable of converting ideas and knowledge into tangible assets and values, lead to an improvement in performance and contribute to the organization's ability to accomplish its goals and fulfill customers' expectations. Bates, et al., (2007), suggest that due to the complexity and changing nature of work, organizations have realized that highly skilled workers are essential in order to obtain a competitive advantage and that training has become a critical practice in HRM.

Training, as the key practice for expanding employee skills, knowledge and abilities, has ceased to be an independent HR management practice standing on itself, (Salas & Canon – Bowers, 2001), but has transitioned into an ongoing process of socialization and learning which should rank highest among an organization's priorities and be enhanced in its long-term strategy (Peters, 1991; Sims, 1998). Being so, training, in the present era, is not perceived by a growing number of private sector firms and public organizations as expenditure but as an investment with a long – term dividend stream. Empirical evidence confirmed that in today's knowledge based – economy, higher investments in training and development activities generate beneficial outcomes (Bartel, 1994; Swanson, 1998) and increases revenue, profitability, shareholder value and reach. Bassi et al., (2004), find a strong link between training investments and subsequent stock market performance. They confirmed that higher investments in employee development subsequently conveyed to higher stock prices. They concluded that investors would have more benefit by considering firms' human capital investment strategies as an integral part of their investment decision. American Bankers Association (ABA) benchmarking study, which was introduced to participants at the Chief Learning Officer Summit in 2004, reveals clear evidence of a positive relationship between 17 U.S. banks financial performance and investments they made in professional development of their human capital. They concluded that those institutions that demonstrate the greatest commitment to human capital development enjoy the greatest financial rewards. In another study, conducted in 2000 by American Society for Training & Development (ASTD), among 575 publicly traded companies, found that for

every increase of approximately \$700 in per employee training, there was a six percent growth in total shareholder return in the following year.

In 1977, organizations in the USA, employing more than 100 workers, invested a total of 200 billion dollars in training (Yamhill & Mc. Lean, 2001). The American Society for Training and Development's 2009 report, indicates that U.S. organizations invested \$134.07 billion in employee training in 2008, a slight drop from the \$134.39 billion invested in 2007. The report emphasizes that the faltering economy forced organizations to limit the training investment per employee. On average, organizations budgeted \$1,068 for training per employee in 2008, a decline of 4% from 2007. The faltering global economy made 2009 to another difficult year for U.S. companies and financial pressures and efforts" to stabilize the boat" continued to impact training initiatives. Training budgets of U.S. firms have decreased a total of 21 percent over the past two years (O' Leonard, 2010 b). American Society for Training and Development Report (2010), claims that in 2009 U.S. organizations spent 125.9 billion dollars on employee training a one – year drop of 6.1% whilst annual learning expenditure per employee grew from \$ 1.068 in 2008 to 1,081 in 2009 – a slight increase of 1.2%. British organizations invested £ 621 in 2009 per learner (O'Leonard, 2010 a).

However, large investments in training are not all that is required in order to improve organizational performance and produce business results. Training that does not contribute to advances in conduct, ability, skills and employee performance does not accomplish its goals (Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Schletter, 2003). Scholars estimate that that only 10% of the billions of dollars invested each year on training activities is translated into tangible values and transferred to job performance (Holton & Baldwin, 2000; Awoniyi et al., 2002). Relating to local authorities, Schumaker (2004), states that, in a climate of reduced budgets, training investment is the first thing to be cut especially if the training outcomes do not indicate that employees perform better than before.

Training alone does not spell improved performance; it must be accompanied by actions from key stakeholders (e.g. executives, supervisors, team leaders, trainers, organization development experts and performers) who urge the need for improved performance (Broad, 2006). Drucker (1999 b), states clearly that the enterprise must demand of the worker that he does something with personal involvement. Furthermore, Chen et al., (2006 a), argue that to maximize ROI, managers and training department officials should give priority to issues

pertaining to the application of training, ensuring that no barriers exist which prevent trainees from transferring learned skills back to their work environment.

2.2 TRANSFER OF TRAINING

Transfer of training is defined as:

- a. Effective and continuous implementation of knowledge and skills obtained in workplace training (Broad and Newstrom, 1992);
- b. Ability to implement learned skills in different aspects and to transfer learned outcomes to new situations (Haskell, 2001);
- c. The implementation of skills and behavior learned in workplace training and their preservation throughout a certain period (Cheng and Ho, 2001a);
- d. Ensuring full application of new skills and knowledge to the workplace (Broad, 2008).

Those definitions all have a common denominator: implementation of the learned in work settings. All of them fail to point out transfer of training as a series of activities that lead to a particular result, namely a process that leverages performance and productivity. Although the topics of transfer of learning and transfer of training are used by most training professionals as similar and discussed as one unit, it is important to clarify the differences between them. As the transfer of training process involves the implementation of what was learned in the workplace, the transfer of learning refers to the extent to which trainees acquire attitudes, knowledge and skills imparted during the training program and is a prerequisite which essentially enables the transfer to take place. Transfer of training can be understood in a four dimensional context:

Near versus far transfer: Near transfer occurs when the stimulus in the transfer condition is similar to the stimulus in the original learning condition (Royer, 1979). As a result, the trainee is able to utilize training in a manner and situation similar to that used in training setting, enabling the exact application of learned skills to the work setting. Far transfer occurs when the stimulus in the transfer condition is to some degree different from the stimulus in the original learning condition (Royer, 1979). Since the trainee must apply the training in manners and situations different from those used in the training setting, he must be able to apply learned skills to work setting despite difference between the work environment and the learning conditions.

Specific versus general transfer: Specific transfer occurs when the contents of learning are transferred. In the case of general transfer, general skills or underlying principles are transferred.

Surface versus deep transfer: The trainee transfers learning to a similar set of circumstances in surface transfer. In deep transfer, the trainee might transfer learning to a different set of circumstances.

Maintenance over time: Maintenance of a behavior or skill is a type of transfer. In this case, the learned skill or behavior is maintained over a period of time on the job.

Kim (2004), states that training transfer is important in that it facilitates the alignment between training interventions and individual performance. Furthermore, considering that individual performance is a necessary condition for organizational performance, ensuring successful training transfer process is also crucial to improve organizational performance. Transfer of training is a crucial output of organization's human asset development process (Holton et al.,2000). Working under the assumption that training indeed makes a difference, organizations should identify training needs and create appropriate tools to obtain maximal transfer. Furthermore, organizations must carefully identify, map and nurture the factors that influence the transfer of skills, behaviour, abilities and knowledge obtained during training. Managers, trainers and trainees are the key stakeholders in training transfer and their actions before, during and after training determine the success of its transfer (Broad & Newstrom,1992, Broad,2008). Training transfer is a socio-political process influenced by the relations among people in organizations and disparate views held by the stakeholders. Hence, the transfer issue and performance improvement at the individual and organizational levels depends on the social relationships within the organization (Kim, 2004).

Broad & Newstrom (1992), suggest multiple strategies to enhance learning transfer to work setting, such as:

- a. Engaging potential participants in a training program during the planning phase. Planning a successful training program depends primarily on the inputs of stakeholders with respect to the program's content;

b. Aligning the training design and the transfer. The better the training experience is aligned to the needs of the trainees and to actual practice at work, the more likely is that successful transfer will take place;

c. Ensuring a supportive transfer climate and environment. Program designers must encourage supervisors to participate in formulating the content of the training and to finding methods determining how the learned skills, knowledge and abilities will be transferred to work setting;

d. Ensuring discussions prior to the course, setting training goals, proper feedback and follow-up. Organization's HRD managers must ensure that supervisors are aware of transfer strategies (Hawley & Barnard, 2005). Development of action plans by the trainees prior to the training can be useful in overcoming obstacles hindering transfer.

Although existing literature on training transfer has increased in the last years, much of the research is descriptive and fails to shed light on the realization of its potential to improve organizational performance (Holton & Baldwin, 2000). Little empirical research has been conducted in this field - the little which have taken place is based on two classical models from the previous centuries: the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and the seminal work on transfer of training (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Several factors related to transfer of training have been identified and mapped by numerous scholars, as displayed in Table 3.

Table 3 - Factors related to transfer of training (Own creation)

Factors related to transfer of training	Researchers
<i>Training design</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Baldwin & Ford, 1988, • Garavaglia, 1993 • Lim, 2000 • Lim & Johnson, 2002
<i>Trainee characteristics</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Baldwin and Ford, 1988 • Elengovan & Krakowsky, 1999
<i>Work environment</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Baldwin & Ford, 1988 • Kontoghiorghes, 2001 • Lim & Johnson, 2002 • Clarke, 2002
<i>Motivation to learn and motivation to transfer</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vroom, 1964 • Noe, 1986 • Bates & Holton III, 1999 • Cheng, 2000 • Baldwin et al., 2000 • Cheng & Ho, 2001b • Kontoghiorghes, 2002

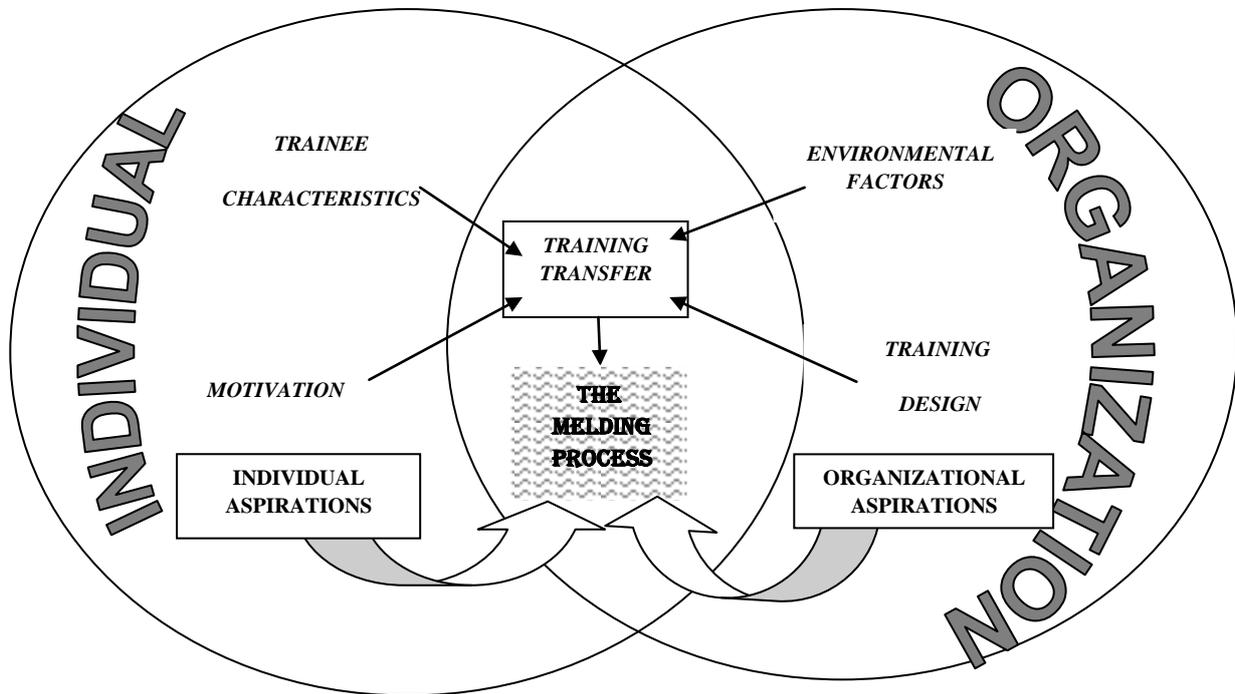
The research conducted in transfer of training till 1998 was surveyed by two main studies:

- Baldwin & Ford (1988), review research conducted prior to 1987, pointing out several restrictions within the studies. Examples include a lack of generalization concerning training design and insufficient research concerning trainee characteristics and work environment.
- Cheng & Ho (2001 a), survey research conducted between 1989 and 1998. These studies concentrated on personal characteristics, motivational and environmental factors and their dimensions. Cheng & Ho (2001a), recommended that further research be conducted in order to investigate the correlation between other factors and the transfer of training, such as the participation of trainees in formulating the training design, work environment and aspiration for achievement.

Based on the classic model of Baldwin & Ford (1988), the most comprehensive research in the present century was conducted by Kontoghiorghes (2004). It concentrated on factors as work environment, motivation to learn and motivation to transfer.

This study is based on the researcher's conception that, in a work setting, two distinct expectations exist: individual and organizational. Individuals aspire to maximize personal goals, such as income, satisfaction and status, while organizations seek to employ individuals who are capable of contributing to achieving organizational goals and to optimizing organizations' competitive edge. These aspirations meet at several planes, such as acceptance examinations, job interviews and training provided by the organization. Within the interfacing processes, particularly during a training course, a fusion process occurs, whereby the individual increasingly identifies himself with the organizational goals, becomes more committed to leverage his productivity as he begins to realize that doing so comes in tandem with fulfilling personal goals. On the other hand, the organization identifies itself with the individual who attends training and gradually becomes "part of the family" and more committed to the organization. This melding process is expedited by the training transfer. The researcher posits that the main factors facilitating the contribution of training transfer to that process are brought to the "melting pot" by both the individual and the organization: trainee characteristics and motivation on one hand and training design and work environment on the other (Figure 1).

Figure 1 -The melding process of aspirations model (Own creation)



Based on this comprehensive perception, this chapter attempts to conduct a systematic review of the theoretical background relating to main factors in person and organization that influence transfer of the learned in training to job performance. The discussion will raise controversial approaches and their different impacts.

2.3 TRAINING DESIGN

Although training design was discussed by many scholars, no comprehensive definition of it was formulated. It was mentioned as a construct composed by two primary topics: a. *training content*, and b. *instructional methods*. The researcher defines training design as an entire process of analysis of trainee and the organizations needs and goals, and the development of content and delivery systems to meet those needs and goals.

Lim (2000), suggests that the training design is one of the most influential factors in terms of transfer of training and that mapping its dimensions, which contribute or delay transfer, is a necessary step before advancing to the planning phase of the training. Numerous scholars opine that suitable preparation tailored to the content and instruction methods can enable trainees to learn and to transfer training into the workplace (Belling et al., 2004; Holton,

2003). Gegenfurtner et al., (2009 a), suggest that employees who found the training content more interesting and engaging, could be exposed to external rewards which would encourage the implementation of the training in work setting. Furthermore, the design of the training to increase willingness to learn enhances transfer motivation (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006, Devos et al., 2007; Bates, et al., 2007).

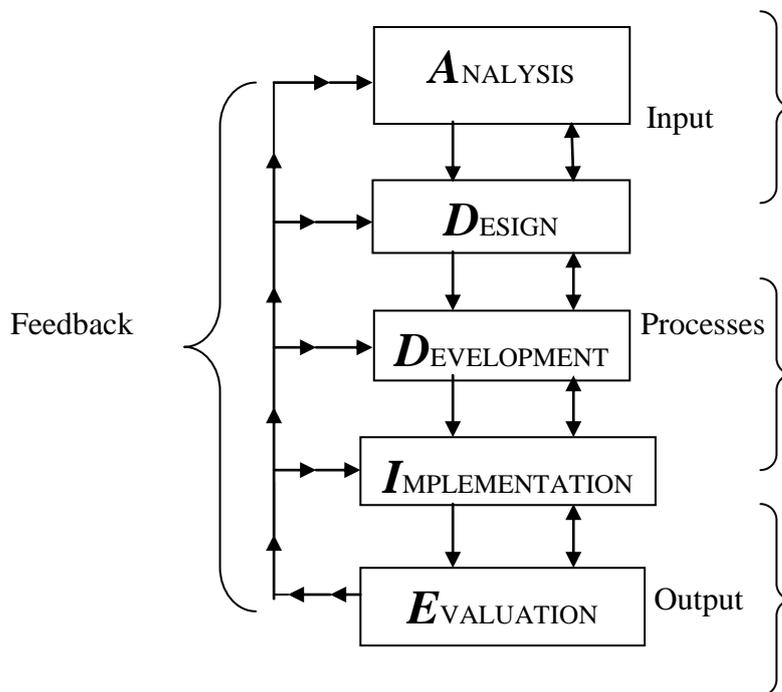
Lim (2000), is the pioneer of a comprehensive research conducted in training design. The research sample was out of employees from different levels in the SK group (The fourth biggest conglomerate in South Korea) who attended HR program in the University of Illinois. The research findings shed light on several training design dimensions such as insufficient exercises, poor clarification of technical terminology, insufficient computer time and ineffective visits to the industries that prevented transfer of training. The participants in the research perceived trainer's moral involvement, the presentation of a wide scope of examples related to the learned topic, team work, useful background papers, participation in lectures and the use of different frontal instruction methods as the dimensions that did contribute to positive transfer.

Researchers who studied training design posited that to maximize the training transfer and to obtain expected results from the training, it is necessary to pay attention to numerous aspects of the training design: a. conformity between the training context, the trainee's job (relevance) and actual transfer context (identical elements); b. presentation of different theories pertaining to the learned topic; c. the usage of analogies and examples, (Lim & Johnson, 2002; Garavaglia, 1993; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Machin & Forgarty 2003; Kelly et al., 1985; Parry & Reich, 1984).

In addition, the formulation of an effective training course demands the alignment of inputs, processes and outputs; named Instructional System (IS). Hodell (2006), points out five generic processes of IS: a. Analysis – Data gathering; b. Design – Learning goals, content and planning; c. Development – Pilot testing (determination of the design functions properly); d. Implementation – The phase where the design plan meets the trainee; and e. Evaluation.

This systematic approach to instructional system design, known as the ADDIE Model (Grafinger, 1988; Gagne et al., 2005), provides a step by step five generic phases (Figure2)

Figure 2 – The ADDIE Model (Own creation)



Three well - known instructional design integrated models, each containing the five ADDIE components although not all in the same order; are:

- a. The Dick and Carey System approach model (Dick & Carey, 2005), focuses on the interrelationship between context, content, learning and instruction. According to this approach different phases are executed in parallel rather than linearly.
- b. The classroom oriented Morrison, Ross and Kemp Model (Morrison et al., 2004) describes a holistic approach to instructional design (ID) by considering all factors in the environment. It has three elements that differentiate it from other models: instruction is considered from the perspective of the trainee; the model components are independent of each other; and it emphasizes management of the ID. According to this model, an instructional designer has to evaluate six issues: required level of the trainee readiness; instructional strategies that are most appropriate for the content and the target population; level of trainee support; evaluation of achievement and strategies to be implied to achieve summative evaluation. Next, the instructional designer addresses the nine elements of the model: identification of instructional problems, awareness of trainee characteristics, performance of task analysis, specification of instructional objectives; performance of

content sequencing; formulation of instructional strategies; planning of the instructional message development of the evaluation elements to achieve the objectives of the training, and selection of resources to support instruction and learning activities.

c. The Seals and Glasgow Model (1990), is product oriented and has three phases: needs analysis, instructional design, implementation and evaluation. Need analysis includes the establishment of instructional goals, requirements and context. The instructional phase that starts after need analysis has six steps: task and instructional analyses; objectives and tests; formative evaluation; materials development; instructional strategy and delivery systems. All steps are joined by feedback and interaction. The third phase includes development and production of materials, training delivery and summative evaluation.

Each of the three models includes: analysis to establish appropriate strategies that would best suit the content, context and the trainees; the establishment of instructional and performance goals; the identification of most suitable media; the development of instructional strategies; formative and summative evaluation; and project management.

Traditionally, the bulk of the training took place within a classroom environment. Today there is increased reliance on integrative instruction methods that combines the classical method with e-Training. Baldwin (1992), discovers that trainees exposed to a mix of several different instructional methods generalized desired skills much better than others. Navon (2001), suggests that training which utilizes combined, integrated methods, ranging from books through classrooms and up to electronic methods, is the best mix to obtain training goals and achieve desired results. Gibbons (in Walker & Perrin, eds., 2001), states that whilst e-Training represented only 20% of all training in 1999, it increased to 40% by 2001. This data emphasizes the current trend towards integration of different instruction methods. E-Training has many advantages: it is more time-efficient, it is capable of bridging geographical constraints, and it aids knowledge retention, particularly in organization with large employee turnovers, reduces trainee aversion to computers and provides more possibilities to obtain additional knowledge. In 2008, among U.S companies the hype for e-Training was moderate. Only 31.8 percent of formal training was delivered by e-Training, down from 32.1 percent in 2007. In 2009, e – Training in U.S represented 33% of all training whilst in the U.K. it was only 14% (O' Leonard, 2010a). During this period, classroom training rebounded from the lag it had experienced in the previous two years (Kranz, 2009). Some researchers point out various aspects of the instructional methods that

contribute to positive training transfer, such as the usage of examples and the use of simulation based training, using diversified instructional tools (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Garavaglia, 1993). Others, (Gopher, et al., 2001), study the viability of computer games for training of complex tasks. They tested the skill transfer observed between a computer game and the flight performance of cadets in the Israeli Air Force flight school. By comparing the flight performance of two groups of cadets, one which participated in computer game training and one which did not, they demonstrated that the group which amassed computer game experience performed substantially better in test flights than their peers with no game experience.

The design of the training to increase willingness to learn enhances transfer motivation (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006, Devos et al., 2007; Bates & Holton, 2004). However, Naquin & Holton (2003 a), opine that effectiveness of training is not solely based on learning content and the quality of the methods used, but on the trainee's ability, motivation and environment as well (trainability).

2.4 WORK ENVIRONMENT

Work environment is defined as:

- a. A large spectrum of organizational factors that limit or empower the implementation of the material learned (Mathieu et al., 1992).
- b. Situations and consequences that encourage or prevent the transfer of the learned in training process to the workplace (Roullier & Goldstein, 1993);

From these definitions, it becomes obvious that a work environment highlighting the importance of training contributes to the motivation to transfer the training. The essential role of work environment in limiting or empowering the motivation to transfer was discussed in detail by several scholars (Bates & Holton, 2004; Egan et al., 2004).

Kontoghiorghes (2002), maps the primary dimensions of the work environment: supervisory and peer support for new skills and knowledge, task cues, career utility, training accountability, opportunity to practice, use of new skills and knowledge in workplace, and intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Supervisory support has been defined as the extent to which supervisors encourage subordinates to implement knowledge, skills and attitudes obtained from training (Nijman,

2004). Supervisory support can be either practical or emotional and can take place before, during or after the training course.

Peer support has been defined as the extent to which co-workers support the implementation of training in the workplace (Russ – Eft, 2002). This support includes learning goal setting, assistance, positive feedback and encouragement. With the growing importance of teamwork, peers might have greater influence on trainees than their supervisors do.

Numerous scholars perceived both peer support and supervisory support as factors having a crucial influence on transfer behavior (Van der Klink et al., 2001; Hawley & Barnard 2005; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004).

Peer support, both within and outside the training course, facilitates the training process and, as such, lack of support is perceived as a serious obstacle and as a situation that may hinder transfer (Belling et al., 2004; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Taylor, 2000).

Conclusions from a number of studies conducted indicated that:

- Supervisory and management support has a significant effect on transfer (Xiao, 1996; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Russ – Eft, 2002; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Liebermann & Hoffman, 2008).
- Gumuseli & Ergin (2002), argue that few managers know how to support and assist their employees during the training process and that some do not even view their support as necessary. They pointed out a positive but non - significant relation between supervisory support and training transfer.
- Awoniyi, et al., (2002), do not indicate any effect of supervisory support on transfer.
- Nijman et al.,(2006), note the remarkable finding that a significant negative relationship exists between supervisor support and transfer of training.

Career utility is the perceived role that training plays in achieving career goals, such as a raise in salary, promotion or a new interesting job. Results of Cheng's (2000), research indicate that there is a positive correlation between career and job utility and the transfer of training.

Training accountability is the degree to which the organization expects the trainees to implement the knowledge and skills during their job and holds them responsible to do so

(Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995; Kontoghiorghes, 2002). Such an expectation sends a clear and significant signal that the organization perceives training transfer as an important process to the organization.

The opportunity to apply and practice what has been learned in training was rated as the highest supportive factor contributing to the training transfer process (Lim & Johnson, 2002). It impacts the motivation to implement the training (Bates & Holton, 2004; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006).

A number of studies assessed the relationship between the dimensions of the work environment factor and motivation to learn and motivation to transfer (Cheng & Ho, 2001a; Seyler et al., 1998; Cheng, 2000; Orpen, 1999). Some of the research mentioned by Cheng and Ho (2001a), indicate the existence of a strong positive correlation between supervisory or peer support and motivation while others do not find this relationship. Results of research conducted by Seyler et al., (1998), indicated a strong positive correlation between opportunities provided to use and practice new skills and knowledge, supervisory and coworker support and transfer motivation. Orpen (1999), found a positive correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic support and trainee motivation.

2.5 TRAINEE CHARACTERISTICS

The construct of trainee's personal characteristics is defined as the distinguishing qualities (trainability, personality and attitudes) that influence how he or she learns new tasks and information (Werner & DeSimone, 2009). The researcher opines that a more comprehensive definition may contribute to understand its significance in the training context. Hence, it is defined hereby as a dynamic and organized set of inherited individual traits that may facilitate or prevent the achievement of training goals.

Personality research has led to the development of a number of theories and models that clarify how and why different personality traits develop. Most temporary psychologists tend towards the nomothetic approach that encourages drawing comparisons between people while maintaining that individuals are unique in the combination of their traits. In contrast, the idiographic approach stresses that each person has a unique psychological structure and that certain traits can be wholly unique to one person.

The current leading approach among prominent psychologists and researchers in personality psychology is the Big Five Personality Dimensions Model, also called the “Five Factor

Model” (FFM). Goldberg (1993), an outstanding personality researcher, claims that the Big Five Dimension model is the core paradigm in personality research. In contrast to other models, this model is not based on a specific theory but on how individuals perceive their own personalities and those of others. The model identifies five dimensions of personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991): Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism (Negative affectivity), Extraversion (vs. Introversion) and Openness to Experience. The Big Five Model (B5M) is currently the most widely accepted and utilized model in personality psychology research but not the only one - the MBTI- Myers- Briggs Type Indicator and recently the HEXACO model of personality structure (Ashton & Lee, 2007), are both used often as well.

While the personality of the trainee was identified as an important factor determining the transfer of training process (Baldwin & Ford, 1988), other scholars have argued that, although it does play a role in the transfer of learning, it has little impact on the transfer of training (Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986). Rowold (2007), shows that the five dimensions of FFM influence the motivation to transfer training. Research conducted by Sackett (2001), indicates the personality components and characteristics as factors that influence employee qualities in work. Numerous scholars have examined, across multiple occupations, the correlations of the five dimensions of personality with motivation to improve work through training (Naquin & Holton, 2002; Herold et al., 2002; Barrick & Mount, 1991).

In order to define strategies for training, content and different learning styles, it is necessary to fully understand the various personality types. Relating to the interrelation between ones’ personality and the formulation of training methods, Vincent & Rose (2001), posit that aiming to differentiate learning styles is a direct result of different types of personality. Trainees must be aware of their learning style in order to learn in a more effective and efficient manner and on the other. Trainers must identify different learning styles adopted by the trainees in order to prepare the most comprehensive and useful training, tailoring both instruction methods and contents in order to convey knowledge to the largest possible number of participants.

Trainee personality is but one dimension of personal characteristics. Work locus of control, self-efficacy, personal cognitive abilities, organizational commitment, career commitment, job involvement, readiness to participate in training, self-esteem and desire to be more

efficient are additional dimensions of this factor (Cheng, 2000; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Naquin & Holton III, 2002).

Locus of control (LOC) refers to the extent to which an individual believes that the outcomes of his actions are determined by himself (internal locus of control) or alternatively are generated by uncontrollable external forces (external locus of control). This psychological concept was developed by Rotter (1966), and named Locus of Control Reinforcement. He posited that an individual's behavior is determined through rewards and punishments, through which individuals perceive the reason for their actions. Although Tziner & Falbe (1993), report that the LOC has a minor effect on transfer motivation, Tziner et al., (1991), determine that trainees with an internal locus of control transferred that learned at higher levels. Colquitt, et al., (2000), report that those with an internal locus of control were more motivated to learn, and that external locus of control moderately related to the transfer of training. A number of field studies have investigated the relationship between locus of control and job performance. Mixed results have been found. Some studies (Broedling, 1975; Majumder, et al., 1977) find that those with internal locus of control perform better than externals, while other studies either report no relationship between locus of control and performance (Johnson, et al., 1984; Szilagyi et al., 1976) or that externals perform better (Brownell, 1981).

Self-efficacy is defined as the belief of one's capability to perform courses of action in a specific manner in order to attain defined goals and produce given results (Bandura, 1997; Omrod, 2006). Most scholars point out two dimensions of self-efficacy: level and strength. High level of self-efficacy leads to more positive behavioral outcomes while strength of self-efficacy contributes to more successful performance outcomes. Holladay & Quinones (2003), point out an additional dimension: generality ("efficacy beliefs associated with one activity can be generalized to similar ones within the same activity domain or across a range of activities" - p.1094). In a dynamic work setting, where ongoing learning and performance improvement is needed, individuals with high level of self – efficacy react less defensively in case of negative feedbacks (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). Bandura (1993), opines that people with low level of self – efficacy shy away from difficult tasks, while those with high level of self – efficacy approach similar tasks as challenges to be mastered, they heighten their efforts in case of failure and attribute it to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills that are achievable. Many researchers found self-efficacy to be positively related to training transfer (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Stevens & Gist, 1997; Ford et al., 1998).

Holladay & Quinones (2003), validate earlier research which showed a positive correlation between self-efficacy and transfer of training, as well as the crucial role self-efficacy generality plays in training transfer (individuals who generalize self – efficacy are expected to have a similar rate of self-efficacy level and strength in different tasks). To summarize, it is well established that self-efficacy enhances learning outcomes, organizational commitment, motivation and performance (Salas & Canon – Bowers, 2001).

Although Clark & Voogel (1985), posit that trainees with advanced cognitive abilities achieve far better levels of transfer, Robertson & Downs (1979), state that the influence of individual cognitive ability correlated with 16% of variance in training transfer and effectiveness

Organizational commitment (OC) is the multi-dimensional attitudes and behaviors that represent the relationship between employees and the organization. This is a product of an employee's loyalty to his workplace, identification with organizational goals, willingness to invest considerable efforts for the organization's success and maintain membership in the organization. Kontoghiorghes (2002, 2004), finds that organizational commitment is strongly associated with transfer motivation.

Meyer & Allen (1991); Dunham et al., (1994), suggest the following a typology of commitment:

- a. Affective commitment – emotional identification of an employee with the organization and its goals, as well as the willingness to invest efforts to benefit the organization;
- b. Continuance commitment – willingness to retain membership of an organization due to relationships with peers and the rewards and benefits unique to the organization;
- c. Normative commitment – the moral obligation an employee feels towards the organization. Retention, job performance, extra-role behavior and perceived job security are the main commitment outcomes.

The researcher opines that organizational commitment is one of the major determinants of organizational effectiveness and has a crucial role in generating responsibility that, by implementing learned SKAs to work settings, should be translated to peak performance.

Career commitment (CC), is defined as:

- a. Individual motivation to work in a chosen vocation (Hall, 1971);
- b. The individual's attitudes towards his vocation and profession (Blau, 1988).

Career commitment can be characterized as multi-dimensional factor composed of three elements (Carson & Bedeian, 1994):

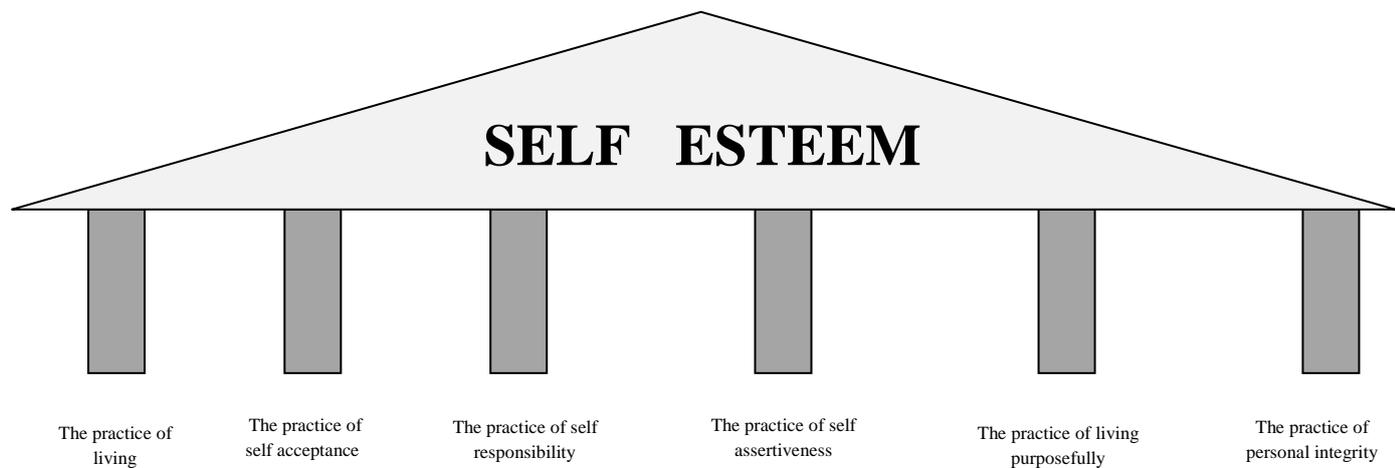
- a. Career identity – a strong emotional association with one's career;
- b. Career planning – formulation of development needs and the setting of personal goals;
- c. Career resilience - resisting delays in career development due to obstacles.

Research conducted by Mrayyan & Al Faouri (2008), among 640 nurses employed in 24 hospitals in Jordan revealed the presence of a significant and positive relationship between career commitment and job performance.

Job involvement is defined as the individual's psychological identification with his present job (Kanungo, 1982). This is a byproduct of the relationship between an individual's work and his self-concept. Job involvement is an individual attitude that maximizes effectiveness in work. Elenkumaran (2004), emphasizes the relationship between an employee's personality and job involvement.

Self-esteem is a psychological concept encapsulating an individual's overall perception, evaluation and appraisal of self-worth; essentially measuring the extent to which an individual values himself. Pinder (2008, 188), defines self-esteem as a "set of beliefs, attitudes, and emotional reactions a person holds about one's self". Branden (1994), argues that self-esteem consists of two components: self-efficacy and self-respect. He emphasizes that these two components are interrelated. He points out six pillars of self-esteem, as illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3– The Six Pillars of Self-Esteem (Own creation)



Brockner (1988), explains why individuals with varying levels of self-esteem respond differently to external cues, contending that those with lower levels of self-esteem would be more responsive to external cues and thus should be more "behaviorally plastic". It is expected that people attending training do not respond in a uniform manner (Creed et al., 2001) and that those with lower self-esteem, who are behaviorally plastic, should respond differently than those who have a higher level of self - esteem and hence benefit more from training. The researcher opines that those with lower self – esteem are more exposed to benefit from training due to their perception that obtaining new skills, knowledge and abilities may leverage their self – worth and their status in the organization and community.

Relatively few studies on the effect of self - esteem on performance quality have been conducted and this leads the researcher to suspect that the results are not unequivocal. While Wallace & Baumeister (2002), and Baumeister et al. (1993), find that there was no effect of self - esteem on performance, Campbell & Fairey (1985), find that people with high self – esteem performed better than those with low self – esteem. The researcher opines that in situations in which a possible failure is salient, higher self - esteem may have an effect on performance.

Several researches examine the existence of a correlation between personal characteristics and the motivation to learn or motivation to transfer. In two studies cited by Cheng & Ho (2001 a), a strong positive correlation between aspiration to self-efficiency and motivation to learn was found. In three other studies, a strong positive correlation was found between aspiration to self-efficiency and transfer of training. Six other studies failed to determine the

existence of a correlation between aspiration to self-efficiency and transfer of training. Only one study found a strong positive correlation between work locus of control and transfer of training. Research results conducted by Seyler et al. (1998), identify the interrelation between personal characteristics, organizational commitment and transfer of training.

Naquin & Holton III (2002), are the main researchers who investigated the interrelation between personal characteristics and motivation to learn. They recommend that organizations must concentrate more on the personal characteristics of employees in effort to maximize readiness to learn and to transfer.

2.6 MOTIVATION - THEORIES OF MOTIVATION, MOTIVATION AT WORK, MOTIVATION TO LEARN, MOTIVATION TO TRANSFER AND MOTIVATION TO IMPROVE WORK THROUGH LEARNING

2.6.1 BACKGROUND

Weiner (1992, 1), states that "Motivation lies at the hart, the very center, of psychology". Human motivation is a complex concept that has roots not only in psychology but also in the fields of sociology, education, training and organizational behavior. Human motivation has been defined as:

- a. The will to achieve (Bedeian, 1993);
- b. An internal drive to satisfy an unsatisfied need (Higgins, 1994);
- c. A predisposition to behave in a specific manner to achieve defined, unmet needs (Buford et al., 1995).

The researcher defines human motivation as a stimulus deriving from a combination of four basic independent emotional drives and needs that people are guided by: the drive to obtain; to pertain, to satisfy curiosity and to protect against external threats.

By looking into multiple theories of motivation, one will find that there are two basic types of human motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation goes back to Atkinson (1964), DeCharms (1968); Deci (1975) and is used to describe employee motivation and to explain organizational behavior (Brandling, 1977). Intrinsic motivation derives from within the individual or from the activity itself and

affects positively performance, behavior and satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation refers to motivation deriving from external factors as tangible rewards that provide satisfaction and pleasure. Brief and Aldag (1977, 497), define comprehensively intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation as:

- Intrinsic work motivation - "a cognitive state reflecting the extent to which the worker attributes the force of his or her task behaviors to outcomes derived from the task per se; that is, from outcomes which are not mediated by a source external to the task – person situation. Such a state of motivation can be characterized as a self – fulfilling experience".
- Extrinsic work motivation - "a cognitive state reflecting the extent to which the worker attributes the force of his or her task behaviors to having and/ or expecting to receive some extrinsic outcome. Such a state of motivation can be characterized as a regulated or instrumental experience".

In a training context, motivation is an integral aspect of training and a central predictor of its transfer. The time, money and resources an organization allocates to ways of increasing an employee's abilities are wasted to the extent that an employee chooses not to learn what is being thought or not to apply acquired knowledge and skills in the workplace. Hence, the purpose of leveraging performance is to focus not only in identifying the requisite abilities an individual requires to be more effective, it is also to coach the person so as to inculcate a desire of continuous improvement. Motivation is a force that energizes enthusiasm about the training program, a directing stimulus that guides the trainees to learn and attempt to apply the learned in a work setting even in situations in which there is lack of reinforcement for use of the training content (Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

A major concern in psychology and education is that rewards have negative effects on intrinsic motivation (Deci, et al., 1999; Jordan, 1986). However, numerous researchers disagree strongly to those conclusions and state that in general, rewards are not harmful to motivation to perform a task (Cameron et al., 2001). Pierce et al., (2003), find that rewards can actually enhance motivation when they are linked to meeting progressive, demanding and achievable standards. In economics, attitudes towards rewards and performance are controversial too. Standard economic approaches assume that performance – contingent rewards are positive stimulus on performance whilst psychological economics show that those rewards can lead to a reduction in effort .In economics, The Motivation Crowding Effect

suggests that external monetary incentives or punishment may undermine, and in under identifiable conditions, strengthen intrinsic motivation. A survey conducted by Frey & Jegen (2001), showed that some scholars' criticism on empirical evidence of the crowding effect is unwarrantable. Drucker (1989), argues that financial rewards and incentives are important but they work largely negatively. He opines that although discontent with financial rewards undermines responsibility for performance, satisfaction with monetary rewards is not sufficient to motivate. The researcher strongly agrees with this statement and believes that the incentive pay generates better output where there is already identification with the organization, responsibility and willingness to perform better otherwise it is not effective and is often destructive. Furthermore, recent changes in management, from command and control type of management to a management, requiring and supporting employee commitment, engagement, creativity and initiatives, emphasize the necessity of intrinsic rewards. Thomas (2009), suggests a matrix of four intrinsic rewards:

- A sense of choice - the extent to which employees have the opportunity to select tasks that they feel they are good for them. The ability to choose how the tasks are performed;
- A sense of meaningfulness – the feeling that tasks are a part of a higher purpose with a meaning in it that is worth investment of time and energy;
- A sense of competence - the feeling of accomplishment after performing skillfully work activities and reinforcement of this feeling by having positive feedback from both managers and peers;
- A sense of progress – The feeling of progress in task and personal development.

The researcher opines that the controversial views on the effects of reward contingencies on intrinsic motivation may carry interesting consequences from the point of view of how to motivate employees to participate in training, to learn and to transfer.

Three dominators that may be said to characterize the phenomenon of motivation. That is, when discussing motivation, we are primarily concerned with a. what energizes human behavior; b. what directs and channels such behavior, and c. how this behavior is maintained and sustained (Porter et al., 2003). Each of these three components represents an important factor in understanding human behavior and they appear again and again in the motivation theories and research.

An understanding of motivation theories may help organizations to leverage employee performance. Employees generally fall into two types: self-motivated, and those that require external motivation to stay motivated. Self-motivated employees tend to exhibit good performance even if they are never provided with much external motivation, but their performance increases when provided with that motivation. Employees that do require external motivation certainly improve performance quality when motivated skillfully.

Despite the interest in the content of motivation, no overall accepted approach to motivation exists. Nevertheless, a cursory view of the literature indicates that motivation theories may be grouped in two general categories: content theories (need) theories and process (cognitive) theories. Content theories of motivation focus on the assumption that people share a similar set of human needs which are motivated to satisfy. In general, such theories regard motivation as the product of internal drives that direct a person to act or move toward the satisfaction of his needs. Process theories are centered on the rational cognitive process and state that while most people may have similar needs, their importance differs from one person to another. In general, such theories are concerned with determining how individual behavior is energized, directed and maintained in the self – directed human cognitive processes.

In the next part of this section, several early psychological approaches to motivation, that involved the constructs of instinct, drive and reinforcement, are discussed alongside leading modern psychological motivation theories.

Most psychological theories have their roots in the hedonistic creed which argues the individual's tend to seek pleasure and avoid pain. These theories basically assume a certain degree of conscious behavior on the part of individuals whereby they make intentional decisions or choices concerning future action. At the end of the 19th century, motivation theory began to move towards more empirically based science of psychology attempting to formulate relationships among sets of factors which could be used to predict human behavior. Freud, (1915); McDougall (1908); James (1890), posit two variables that were crucial to understand behavior: instinct and unconscious motivation. Theories based on the concept of instinct (James, 1890; McDougall, 1908), posit that every individual has different instincts such as locomotion, curiosity, sociability, love, fear, jealousy and sympathy, in greater or lesser degree which determine behavior and that internal and external cues affected predispositions to behave in a certain way. The second concept is that of unconscious motivation. Freud (1915), states that behavior is not determined consciously since individuals

are not always aware of all their aspirations and needs. Thus, the major factor influencing human motivation was seen as resulting from forces unknown to the individuals. In the mid 20th century numerous psychologists discussed whether the unconscious motives were instinctive or were learned behavior. This discussion formed the basis of the second school of motivation theorists, known as "drive theorists". Canon (1939), Hull (1943), emphasizes an internal drive as a necessary factor to be taken in consideration while the reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1953), places total emphasis on the consequences of behavior and focused mainly on the relationship between behavior and the pattern of consequences. Skinner ignores the inner state of an individual and concentrates in what happens to a person when he takes some action. The reinforcement theory is not a motivation theory because it does not focus on the question what initiates behavior. Nevertheless, since it provides means of analysis of what controls behavior, it is considered in discussion of motivation.

Prominent modern psychological motivation theories are:

Content theories: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two- Factor Theory (Motivation/ Hygiene), Alderfer's ERG Theory, McClelland's need theory and McGregor's X Y Theory.

Process theories: Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Adams' Equity Theory and Goal setting Theory

Drawing from the abundance of theories that relate to motivation, some of the leading content and process theories are reviewed in the following sub - chapter. Weiner's Attribution Theory (1986), and Vygotsky's Socio - cultural Theories (1978), being leading theories of motivation in contemporary educational psychology, are reviewed as well.

2.6.2 LEADING THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

According to the hierarchical theory of human motivation developed by *Maslow*, individuals have five levels (categories) of basic human needs (Maslow, 1943): physiological, safety, social, ego, and self-actualization. He outlined those needs as necessary for the achievement of a completely satisfied individual. Maslow claims that before higher levels of need would motivate employees, the lower levels had to be fulfilled and once a need becomes fulfilled its strength diminishes while the strength of the higher need in the hierarchy increases. The researcher opines that the major weakness of this theory is the non recognition of individual

differences and ignoring the social context in which the needs are felt. It is important to emphasize that Maslow realized that his hierarchy of needs was more theoretical than being useful in practice. The researcher opines that this theory then must be considered to be a framework for future research. Nevertheless, the theory had a tremendous influence on *McGregor's* formulation of "*Theory X*" and "*Theory Y*".

McGregor (1960), argues that manager actions are based upon their personal perception on how employees function. Based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, he distinguished between two groups of managers. Managers under the Theory X assumption perceive employees as lazy, self – interested and thus believe that workers should be guided and controlled (Authoritarian style management). Managers under the Theory Y assumption perceive employees as capable, self – controlled and self – directed (Participative management style). McGregor identifies the two theories as separate entities. He suggests that in most cases, management could rely upon either theory to motivate employees, but that they would achieve better results using Theory Y than Theory X, as X appeals to higher level needs. Drucker (2007), opines that Theory X control was minimally effective and destructive, and observed that managers applying X management techniques in fact de - motivated employees. Furthermore he considered the discussion over Theory X and Theory Y a sham battle. The researcher posits that Theory X and Y are limited in that they are absolute since McGregor defines them as the two ways in perceiving all employees. In real life, however, seldom does someone see that one person has exclusively Theory X or Theory Y perceptions regarding employees. In most cases managers find certain employees are more apt to be motivated in certain ways since employees actually have the drive, motivation to be treated differently.

Alderfer's ERG (Existence, Relatedness and Growth) theory (1972), was formulated to align Maslow's motivation theory with empirical research. In attempt to address problems with Maslow's theory, the ERG Theory reformulated it based upon three related needs in an organizational setting namely:

- Existence – Physical security needs;
- Relatedness – Internal esteem needs;
- Growth – Self-actualization and self-esteem needs.

The ERG Theory differs from Maslow's Motivation Theory on three main points:

- It suggests that it is not necessary to satisfy a lower need before advancing to a higher need; multiple needs can be satisfied simultaneously.
- It points out cross-cultural differences.
- It assumes that if a higher need cannot be obtained, an individual may regress to increase the satisfaction of a lower and more achievable need.

Unlike Maslow's hierarchy, Alderfer argues that those three needs can affect a person simultaneously. The researcher opines that recognition and understanding of these differences are essential for managers to know when introducing and implementing motivation processes in workplace. The implementation of this theory is that managers need to recognize the multiple needs that may be driving an employee at a given point to understand his behavior and to motivate him accordingly.

Hertzberg describes two dimensions of conditions: *motivators and hygiene factors* (Hertzberg et al., 1959). He emphasizes that Motivator (intrinsic) factors, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth and advancement, all lead job satisfaction. On the other hand, Hygiene (extrinsic) factors, such as company policy, supervision, relationships with supervisors and work conditions do not lead necessarily to motivation or satisfaction, but rather reduce job dissatisfaction. The study noted that motivator factors are work conditions which satisfy the need for psychological growth. A lack of hygiene factors is associated with dissatisfaction and invoked feelings of being unfairly treated while motivators led to feelings of growth and development. This theory claims that in order to motivate employees, motivator factors must be instituted within all types of jobs and that the work must generate available opportunities to achieve goals, should be interesting, should provide conditions for advancement and should require responsibility. Jobs that are properly designed with these factors in mind establish an environment conducive to motivation. Similar to Maslow and McGregor, Hertzberg believe that the primary function of any organization should be to implement the needs for employees to enjoy meaningful existence. He expresses that a job must be enriched in ways that will allow an employee to become motivated to perform effectively. For managers, the implication of this theory is that meeting employees lower needs by improving pay, benefits and safety may prevent

employees from becoming dissatisfied but will not motivate them to make additional efforts to improve performance. The researcher opines that in order to motivate employees, managers must concentrate in changing the content of jobs by giving more autonomy and responsibility to workers and encourage them to develop their skills, abilities and knowledge and improve productivity. This the main challenge to the management in the present century. Once it is achieved, it may be followed by improvement in salary and other benefits.

Adams' theory of equity (1965), is based upon three assumptions:

- a. People develop beliefs determining the perceived fair return for their contribution to their jobs;
- b. People tend to compare their perception of the exchange they have with their employers with their perception of the exchange other employees have with their employers;
- c. People are motivated to take action if they believe that their own treatment is not relative to what they perceive others to be making.

The theory aims to explain how employees respond to perceived unfairness in workplace, determining that employees strive for equity with peers in the workplace, as well as with workers in other organizations. This theory extends beyond the individual by integrating influence and comparison asserted by peers and friends. Equity is achieved when the ratio between employee inputs and outcomes is equal to the ratio between inputs and outcomes of another employee (Adams, 1965). According to this theory, people are motivated to act when they perceive that they are in an unfair position, leading to either a change in conduct or a change in perceptions in effort to establish equilibrium. The theory assumes that lower qualified employees work harder in effort to balance their inputs with relatively higher outputs. Noe & Schmitt (1986), opine that individuals may participate in a training course to gain equity in pay or other rewards and that in this case a greater probability that learning and its transfer to the work setting may occur. For managers, this theory highlights the importance of a reward system as far as it is perceived as fair by the employees. The researcher opines that this theory is one of the most explicit models developed to address the question of how individuals evaluate social exchange relationships. The concepts of fairness, equity and justice are of crucial importance in a work setting. They are the strongest

explanations for employee satisfaction which is an important predictor of productivity. One of the main predictors of low productivity is employee discontent in work.

Similar to Equity Theory, *Vroom's expectancy theory* (1964), states that people base their actions on their perceptions and beliefs. Unlike the Equity Theory, which focuses only on the outcomes of an individual's perceptions of fairness relative to a comparison other, this theory was developed to explain entire work related behavior ranged from occupational choice to job performance. Unlike equity theory, expectancy theory attributes harder work, among lower qualified employees, as an attempt to increase recognition and job security (Lawler, 1968). The expectancy theory assumes that behavior is a result of conscious choices made between alternatives in effort to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. Vroom claimed that employee performance is based on individual factors, such as personality, KSAs, experience. The theory suggests that individuals, having different sets of personal goals, can be motivated if they believe or perceive that:

- A positive correlation exists between efforts and performance;
- Rewards that are granted will satisfy an important need;
- The desire to satisfy the need is sufficient to justify the effort.

This theory is a landmark to modern Valence – Instrumentality – Expectancy (VIE) theories that are among the more popular theories concerning work motivation. Vroom's theory suggests that motivation is a function of Valence – perceived value of rewards by the employee. The term valence was used by Vroom to refer to affective orientations that individuals hold with regard to outcome. Motivation is also a function of expectancy – the varying levels of confidence that employees have regarding their abilities and expectations – which was defined by Vroom as outcome beliefs held in individuals' mind. Finally, motivation is a function of instrumentality - employee belief regarding whether they will indeed receive what they desire. The term of instrumentality is used by Vroom to describe the relation between job performance and resulting outcomes. He argues that expectancies, valence and instrumentalities interact to create motivational force to act in a way that brings pleasure and avoids pain. Thus, managers should aim to ensure, to the extent possible, that the employees believe that increased effort will generate improved performance and that better performance will lead to valued rewards. Colquitt et al., (2000), provide evidence that

there is a positive and significant relationship between valance, motivation to learn and transfer of training. Additionally, Smith et al., (2008), find that learning have a direct impact on the expectancy and valance of the trainees. Use of the expectancy is made by Chen et al., (2006 b), to examine the influence of various motivational factors on research productivity among numerous faculties. They find that a faculty with higher total motivations for rewards published significantly more articles than those with lower motivation for rewards.

The researcher posits that components of this theory may cancel each other out when they are combined. High task confidence (expectancy) and high incentive (valance) may convey to high level of arousal and hence lead to decreased performance.

Mc Clelland (1961), argues that individuals amass different and generally well-defined competing needs which play a role in motivating behavior. This theory, called the “*Need*” theory or the “Acquired Needs” theory, indentifies three needs effecting motivation and job effectiveness:

- a. The need for achievement concerning individual issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals, persistence and the ability to overcome difficulties;
- b. The need for power, fulfilling the need to impact others, influence people or events and make a difference in life;
- c. The need for affiliation that concerns the need to establish and maintain warm, close and intimate relationships with others.

Managers should make utmost attempt to understand whether and to which extent their employees have one or more of the needs mentioned above, and the extent to which their jobs can be structured to satisfy them.

Goal setting theory is a theory of employee motivation regarding task performance. The theory posits that a specific difficult goal influences an employee's behavior not only through choice, effort and persistence but also through the search for knowledge of ways to attain the goal (Morin & Latham, 2000). Wexley & Nemeroff (1975; Wexley & Baldwin (1986), find that the process of goal setting increases positive transfer of training. Locke (1968), states that employees are motivated by clear goals and appropriate feedbacks. He and Smith et al., (2008), argue that aiming to achieve goals is an important method of

motivating employees to training transfer and performance improvement. Beyond functioning as an important motivation and performance facilitating process, goal setting also enhances organizational support for training transfer (Skinner & Roche, 2003). Locke & Latham (1990), argue that when formulating and setting goals, managers must take into account that the goals should be clear and accompanied by employee commitment necessary for their achievement. Additionally, managers must allocate time for formal and informal feedbacks to maintain ongoing performance improvement and generate conditions that the goals entail should not hinder employees from accomplishing their objectives. Methods of management, based on the setting of goals, emphasize the positive motivational impact of difficult goals to achieve has on employees (Locke et al., 1981). Goals formulated with employees consent, cooperation and acceptance are highly motivating factors compared to goals imposed on employees (Erez & Kanfer, 1983). The researcher opines that employee peak performance occurs when there is an interaction between goal difficulty and goal commitment. However, difficult goals do not always result in higher performance on complex tasks. High performance goals only have positive impact when the person has the ability to achieve them and successfully accomplish the task. Two boundary conditions to the goal – setting process can be mentioned: first, goals may narrow an employer's focus to perform only behaviors connected with specific goals and second, multiple goals can cause employees to experience confusion, and to neglect performance on one goal to meet a second goal.

While Yamnill & McLean (2001), claim that the equity, expectancy and goal setting approaches supported personal motivation to transfer, Lim and Morris (2006), argue that high motivation to learn and transfer may influence expectancy and goal setting for transfer.

Weiner's Attribution Theory (1986), is concerned with perceived causes of success or failure and the motivational consequences of particular attributions. An important assumption of the Attribution Theory, in the training context, is that when a learner succeeds in a training course, he likely attributes success to his efforts and personal abilities. In case of failure, he attributes it to environmental causes such as non appropriate instruction. Furthermore, attribution analyses contribute not only to explain how individuals interpret their achievement outcomes but also the reactions of supervisors who evaluate the causes of employee failure as a result of low ability or lack of effort. Hence, this theory is both intrapersonal and interpersonal motivation theory of motivation. Attribution Theory has

provided the field of educational psychology with theoretical basis in the achievement domain. For example, an employee who is taught to attribute his failure to low effort rather than to low aptitude is more likely to be optimistic to success in the future.

Unlike most theories that describe motivation as an individual phenomenon, *Vygotsky's Socio – cultural Theory* (1978), provides an explanation of the way that history and society impact the ways individuals develop and learn. Those theories argue that knowledge and motivation originate in a social context and explanations for differences in motivation should begin in classroom, home and socio – cultural background, rather than the individual himself. Although Vygotsky's theory emphasizes the influence of culture, peers and adults on the developing child, Bonk & Kim (1998), argue that given the myriad of institutions, environments and cultural artifacts, there are many possibilities for extending the socio – cultural theory to adult learning in early, middle and late adulthood. Bonk & Cunningham (1998,.25), opine that "A primary tenet of Vygotskian psychology is that individual mental functioning is inherently situated in social interactional, cultural, institutional and historical contexts. Therefore, to understand human thinking and learning, one must examine the context and setting in which that thinking and learning occurs". Starting in the 21st century; motivation, in the context of socio – cultural perceptions, had emerged as an important theme among motivation researchers particularly in educational psychology (Turner & Meyer, 2000, Järvelä & Salovaara 2004 , Nolen 2007).

Although the concept of motivation is a very – well developed one in scholarly work, realization in real – world is another issue. Numerous scholars opine that the nature and depth of the problems regarding the realization of motivation theories are difficult to be summarized in a concise way; however, Ford's (1992, 4), statement provides a good initial overview: " Nevertheless, trying to make a case for the central role of motivation in real – world problems by cataloguing the practical contribution of past scholarly work on motivation is challenging, if not possible, task.....a brief review of the history of scholarly work on motivation reveals numerous obstacles to the application of theory and research to real world problems". The lack of a unified theory of motivation emphasizes the complexity of the construct which resides in its endeavors to explain individuals' actions and behavior. The interaction of many factors determining motivation seriously hinders the ability to understand all motivational processes.

2.6.3 MOTIVATION AT WORK

Motivation can affect not only the achievement of individuals' skills and abilities but also how and to which extent they use their skills and abilities (Locke & Latham, 2004).

Motivation at work, also known as work motivation, is defined as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work – related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration" (Pinder, 2008, 11). Employee motivation is perceived by managers as an integral part of the performance equation, whilst researchers see it as a fundamental pillar in the development of effective management theories (Steers & Shapiro, 2004). Thus, employee motivation has a crucial role both practically and theoretically in the field of management.

According to Drucker (1969), knowledge has become a central factor of production in the advanced industrial economy. In most countries, knowledge work has been recognized as a key sector of the modern economy. The most valuable asset of the present century organization will be its knowledge workers and their productivity. Along with the transition to the knowledge economy; knowledge workers are gaining an increasingly crucial role. Drucker (1993), who coined the term "knowledge worker", observes that we are entering a "knowledge society" where the basic resources are no longer capital, labor or natural resources but is and will be knowledge in which knowledge workers will play a central role. The nature of knowledge work requires continual growth, in terms of skill development. Motivated workers, by dint of their being more creative and productive, are a crucial factor in organization's survival and ability to compete. Knowledge workers must become interested in obtaining new information, memorizing it and desiring to incorporate the new obtained SKAs into work. A key consequence of this trend is the realization of knowledge as a primary source of wealth and competitive advantage. The goal is to make productive the specific strengths and knowledge of each individual. (Drucker, 1999 a, 22) asserts that "the starting point of the task both in theory and practice may have to be managing for the performance and not managing the people". The challenge is how organizations can increase the effectiveness of their training strategies as to be able to maximize the productivity of knowledge workforce. The main concern of management in the 21st century is to leverage the knowledge worker motivation and productivity. Motivation and productivity are twin concepts in organizational development with three connections. First, motivation works as the energizer towards productivity; second, motivation is the best cause to reach productivity as a favorable effect

and lastly, motivation is the trigger to productivity as a response. People need motivation just as pieces of equipment need fuel and operators.

As mentioned, many theories of motivation exist. The question is: how can these theories be integrated and implemented at the workplace?. Managers must understand what motivates employees and take the necessary steps to assure and maintain high employee motivation. As already discussed, motivation at work is important because of its significance as a determinant of performance, and its centrality in the field of organizational behavior and management. Despite this, it is invisible and an internal construct that is not possible to be measured directly. We rely on the established spectrum of theories in measuring observable manifestations of work motivation. For this reason, understanding the traditional motivational theories is important. Employees with low motivation are characterized by low levels of satisfaction, organizational commitment and responsibility that lead to low performance whilst employees with high levels of commitment, satisfaction and responsibility contribute to the financial performance of a company. In today's business world, shaped by knowledge, creativity and innovation, the value of satisfied, committed and motivated employees is increasingly important ([http:// knowledge @ wharton. upenn.edu/article](http://knowledge@wharton.upenn.edu/article)). One of the findings of the research conducted by Edmans (2009), indicates that, as a motivational tool, employee satisfaction is positively correlated with shareholder returns. This is consistent with human capital centered theories. One of the dangers presented by employees with low motivation is the negative influence they have on others in the organization. For example, an employee who is unsatisfied with his job may reduce the motivation and satisfaction of others. Assuring and maintaining high motivation among employees is a crucial and essential tool to achieve expected organizational performance. Hence, we must ask how managers can effectively motivate employees.

To summarize, so long there is freewill, it is obvious that any theory of motivation will work for all people. Despite the perception that realization of motivation theories in real life is challenging and a hard mission to accomplish, the researcher opines that if managers are seeking to motivate their employees, then the best approach seems to be the use all of the theories in the contexts they seem best suited. Perhaps the main practical application of motivation theories is that it may serve the purpose to understand and think constructively about what activities and circumstances motivate employees who possess different backgrounds. Effective motivation at work is achieved by identifying each employee's

motivation levels. After mapping the motivation levels, the required course of action should be chosen. Managers must identify personal needs of each employee and find ways to meet them. Gegenfurtner et al., (2009 b), indicate that training failures and the low ROI, created by the lack of employee motivation, are the major concerns of human resource development theory and practice. In this context, the researcher wishes to note that little empirical research was conducted to examine how motivation influences training transfer and task performance. Furthermore, most of research areas examined either motivation or outcome factors as performance, without studying the link between these constructs.

2.6.4 MOTIVATION TO LEARN, MOTIVATION TO TRANSFER AND MOTIVATION TO IMPROVE WORK THROUGH LEARNING

Gregoire et al.,(1998), emphasize the critical impact of motivation on the process of transfer of training, earmarking motivation as a crucial factor on trainees' attitudes during three phases of the training process – pre-training, actual training and post-training. If motivation is lost during any of these phases, transfer will not occur.

Some scholars argue that extrinsic (pay and promotion) and intrinsic (self - esteem, sense of accomplishment, feeling of development of special talents) motivation factors have an impact on transfer of training (Rouiller & Goldstein 1993; Santos & Stuart, 2003; Taylor et al., 2005). Others emphasize that intrinsic motivation factors have more influence on transfer of training (Kontoghiorghes 2001). However, Taylor et al. (2005), assert that the extrinsic components have more influence on transfer outcomes. Vroom (1964), contends that from the cognitive approach to motivation, an individual chooses and acts based on behavioral patterns affected by various factors. Understanding these factors, especially those that affect the motivation to transfer the training, provide organizations with shaping techniques and methods to strengthen and increase motivation among the employees. He further avers that employees will be motivated to participate in training once convinced that these efforts will result in new skills, which in turn will place desired results closer at reach. Some models of motivation to learn and motivation to transfer were investigated empirically, although their results were not consistent and the researchers recommended further research.

Noe (1986), is the pioneer of the literature dealing with motivational factors regarding training transfer. In his article, He shapes a model based on factors including behavior,

approaches, qualities and trainee characteristics that might affect transfer of training and assumed that some personal characteristics, when integrated with organizational factors, might contribute to achieve expected results from training. He posits that Self- efficacy, expectations, the need for self-development and job-related factors affect the motivation to learn.

Researchers pinpoint personality, relevance of training to the job, trainees' expectations from training, the need for self-development, job and career involvement, organizational commitment and supporting work environment as the main factors that affect motivation to transfer (Seyler et al., 1988; Elengovan & Karakowsky, 1999; Cheng, 2000; Cheng & Ho, 2001 b; Kontoghiorghes, 2002). Others point note career and organizational commitment, and commitment to quality as factors that affect motivation to learn (Cheng & Ho, 2001 b; Kontoghiorghes, 2002). Wlodkowski (1999), isolates four motivational conditions that strengthen motivation to learn: generalization, tendency, ability and signification. He argues that the personality of the trainee and the trainer, as well as their psychological background, have a significant contribution to the motivational climate to learn. People seek to learn if they have self-confidence and are convinced that their opinions are important to others. Wlodkowski numberes five instructor characteristics that instill motivation in trainees: familiarity with the training content, enthusiasm, involvement, clarity in instruction and cultural response.

Foxon (1993), states that motivation to learn (to train) and motivation to transfer are two different factors. Motivation to learn (pre-training motivation) is determined as the existing level of intensity and desire prior to training (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005). Numerous researchers find that motivation to learn is a key factor impacting training effectiveness and transfer (Chiaburu & Marinova 2005; Noe, 1986., Facteu, et al., 1995). Motivation to transfer is defined as trainee's intended efforts to implement skills and knowledge obtained in training to a real work setting (Noe, 1986). Yelon et al., (2004), shows that motivation to transfer of training develops during the course of training. Axtell et al., (1997), find that motivation to transfer is a key predictor of positive training transfer. Kontoghiorghes (2002), concentrates on studying the influence of motivation to learn on motivation to transfer.

Naquin & Holton (2002), introduces a new construct: motivation to improve work through learning (MTIWL). They defined MTIWL as a process that integrates the will to participate in training, to learn and to transfer the obtained knowledge to improve his work. In a later

study, MTIWL is defined by Naquin & Holton (2003 a, 87), as "the motivation to increase work outcomes by engaging in training or learning activities and using what is learned to perform job functions differently".

This is introduced in a study investigating the extent to which the Five-Factor Model of personality dimensions, affectivity and work commitment influenced MTIWL. Naquin & Holton (2002), state that combined motivational influences are those that convey to expected training and learning outcomes. Naquin and Holton (2003 b), perceive MTIWL as a function of individual's motivation to learn / train, and motivation to transfer.

$$\begin{aligned} & \textit{Motivation to improve work through learning} \\ & \textit{(MTIWL) = f (Motivation to train/ learn and} \\ & \textit{motivation to transfer)} \end{aligned}$$

Results of their empirical research indicated affectivity, personality and organizational commitment as additional factors which influence MTIWL.

MTIWL is an important construct for organizations that aims to improve individual and organizational performance. To do so, organization should hire employees who are conscientious, agreeable, extroverts and have positive affectivity (McCloy & Wise, 2002). However, the researcher opines that organizations, stuck with unproductive employees, must identify situational factors (variables that are present at a given point in time but not on a permanent basis) that may assist in increasing the current staff's motivation, in order to improve work through learning. McCloy & Wise (2002), demonstrate that MTIWL is related to dispositional influences and that companies aiming to improve motivation to learn must be aware of the relationship that exist between motivation, situational factors and dispositional influences.

Trainees with higher motivation will perceive learning as more important and shall strive to best implement the knowledge obtained in order to improve their performance (Bates & Holton, 1999).

2.7 SUMMARY

Chapter 2 overviewed the theoretical background of transfer of training and factors that affect the implementation of new KSAs achieved in a training course. The theoretical background reveals that transfer of training is a complex process influenced by many factors.

In this research, by incorporating more dimensions, the researcher attempts to provide further insight into the relationship *between*:

● *The independent variables* and their dimensions:

- *Trainee characteristics* – self - esteem, self - efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus of control;

- *Work environment*– Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply and implement;

- *Training design* – Instructional methods and training content and,

● *The dependent variable*: *Transfer of training*.

Motivation to improve work through learning (motivation to learn and motivation to transfer) will be *the mediating variable*.

Although, in today's Information Age, the development of the human asset through training is as critical to business activity as raw materials were during the Industrial Age, and research in training and its transfer may contribute to improve individual and organizational performance, the paucity of research dealing with the application of training to the workplace is surprising. Although each of the above mentioned factors has been studied individually, to the researcher's best knowledge, no previous comprehensive investigation has examined their combined contribution to training transfer in a real setting. The crucial novelty of this research is to direct further thinking towards combining the main factors and to examine how these influence training transfer.

Expansion of the existing research in transfer of training and the contribution of its outcomes, conclusions and recommendations, to improve both individual and organizational performance and create value through people, instigated this research.

2.8 HYPOTHESES

The research hypotheses for this study are stated as follows:

2.8.1 Hypothesis 1 - Trainee characteristics will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.

Sub Hypotheses

- Self - esteem, self - efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.
- Self - esteem, self - efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus of control will be positively related to the motivation to learn.
- Self - esteem, self - efficacy, organizational commitment and locus of control will be positively related to motivation to transfer.

2.8.2 Hypothesis 2 – Work environment will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.

- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.
- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to motivation to learn.
- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to motivation to transfer.

2.8.3 Hypothesis 3 – Training design will be positively related to the motivation to improve work through learning.

- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.
- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to motivation to learn.

- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to motivation to transfer.

2.8.4 Hypothesis 4 – Trainee characteristics will be positively related to the transfer of training.

- Self - esteem, self - efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus of control will be positively related to transfer of training.

2.8.5 Hypothesis 5 – Work environment will be positively related to transfer of training.

- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to transfer of training.

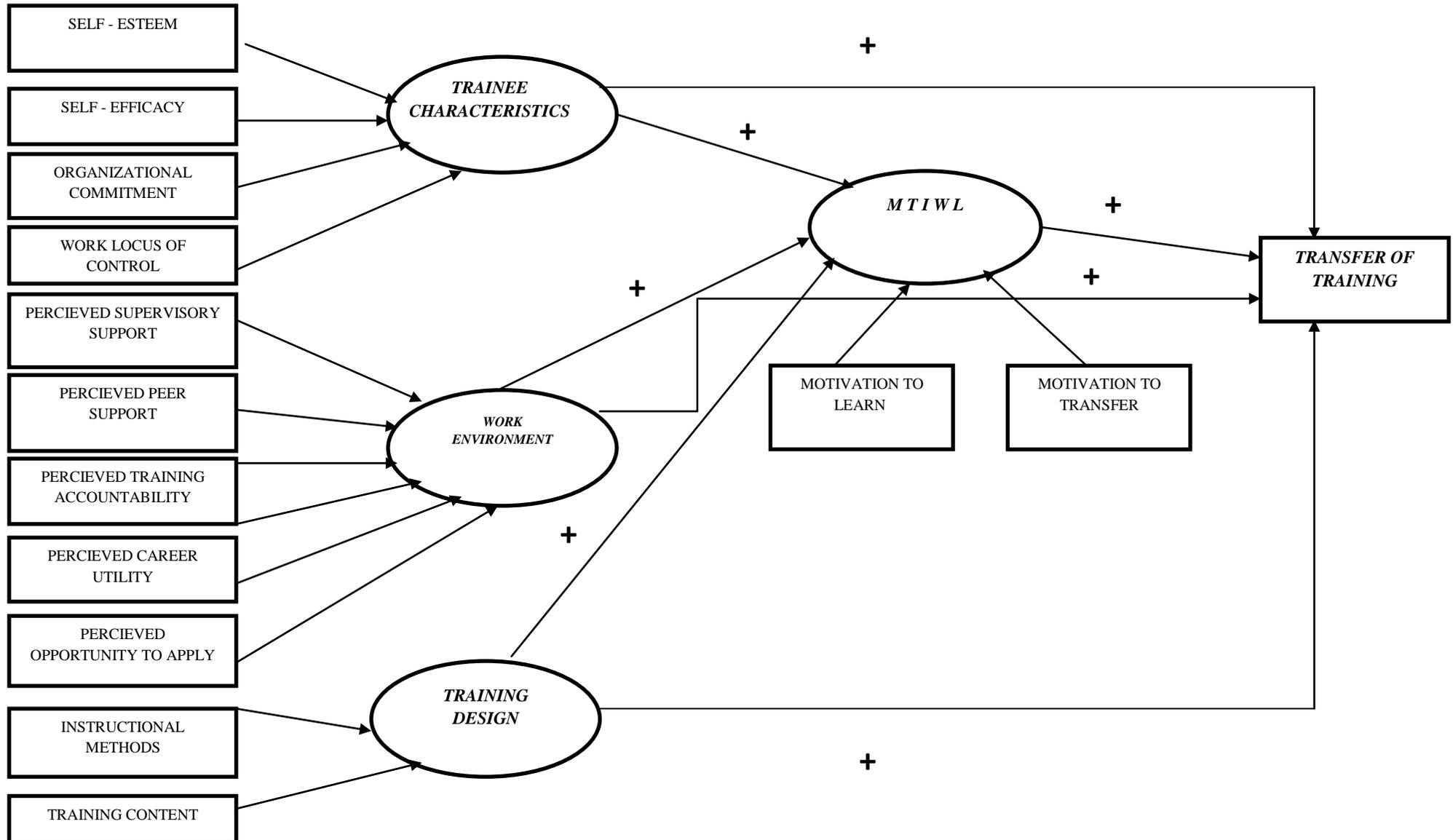
2.8.6 Hypothesis 6 – Training design will be positively related to transfer of training.

- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to transfer of training.

2.8.7 Hypothesis 7 – MTIWL will be positively related to transfer of training.

- Motivation to learn and motivation to transfer will be positively related to transfer of training.

2. 9 THE RESEARCH MODEL



3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH VARIABLES

3.1.1 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

- Trainee characteristics

Nominal definition – Trainee's personal characteristics are distinguishing qualities (trainability, personality and attitudes) that influence how he or she learns new tasks and information (Werner & DeSimone, 2009).

Empirical (Operational) definition – Trainees' self – esteem, self – efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus of control were examined.

- Work environment

Nominal definition – Situations and consequences in workplace encouraging or preventing learning transfer, gained in a training process, to workplace (Roullier & Goldstein, 1993).

Empirical (Operational) definition – Trainees' perceptions on supervisory and peer support, training accountability, career utility and opportunity to apply were examined.

- Training design

Nominal definition – Integration of instruction methods and the training content to achieve training needs and goals (Lim, 2000).

Empirical (Operational) definition – Trainees' satisfaction from the content and instruction methods of the training course was examined.

3.1.2 MEDIATING (MEDIATOR) VARIABLE

- Motivation to improve work through learning (MTIWL)

Nominal definition – "The motivation to increase work outcomes by engaging in training or learning activities and using what is learned to perform job functions differently" (Naquin & Holton, 2003 a , 87).

Empirical (Operational) definition – Trainees' motivation to learn and motivation to transfer were examined.

3.1.3 DEPENDANT VARIABLE

- Transfer of training

Nominal definition – The implementation of skills and behavior learned in workplace training and the preservation throughout a certain period (Cheng & Ho, 2001 a).

Empirical (Operational) definition – Trainees' perceptions about themselves were examined – to which extent trainees feel that they implement the KSAs obtained in training.

3.2 THE RESEARCH METHOD

This dissertation is based on desk and field research. The desk research focused on research that examined the factors facilitating or preventing the training transfer processes. It revealed the lack of a holistic research in this field. The vast majority of the research concentrated on the relationship of one dimension with training transfer. The relationships between factors and their dimensions with training transfer were mostly discussed and very little examined by:

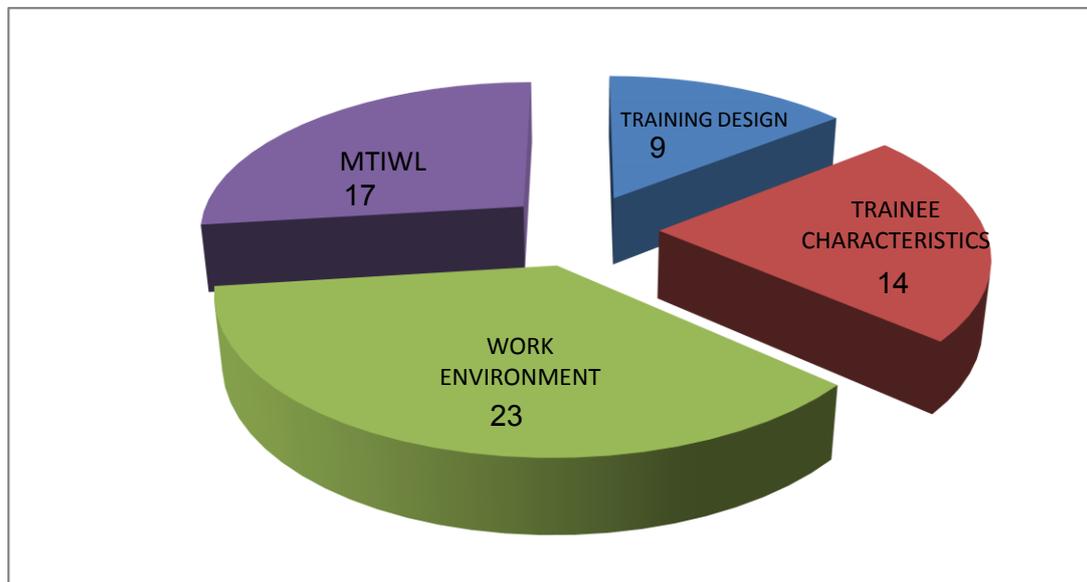
Training design: Parry & Reich, 1984; Kelly et al., 1985; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Baldwin, 1992; Garavaglia, 1993; Lim, 2000; Gopher et al., 2001; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Machin & Forgarty, 2003.

Trainee characteristics: Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Elengovan & Krakowsky, 1999; Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Stevens & Gist, 1997; Ford et al., 1998; Holladay & Quinones (2003); Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Rowold, 2007; Sackett, 2001; Tzinner et al., 1991; Colquitt et al., 2000; Seyler et al., 1998.

Work environment: Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Clarke, 2002. Van der Klink et al., 2001; Bates & Holton, 2004; Egan et al., 2004; Hawley & Barnard 2005; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Belling et al., 2004; Hawley & Barnard, 2005; Taylor, 2000; Xiao, 1996; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Russ – Eft, 2002; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Liebermann & Hoffman, 2008; Gumuseli & Ergin (2002); Awoniyi, et al., (2002); Nijman et al., (2006); Cheng, 2000; Lim & Johnson, 2002.

Motivation to improve work through learning: Vroom, 1964; Noe, 1986; Bates & Holton III, 1999; Baldwin et al., 2000; Cheng, 2000; Cheng & Ho, 2001b; Kontoghiorghes, 2002; Rouiller & Goldstein 1993; Santos & Stuart, 2003; Taylor et al., 2005; Kontoghiorghes 2001; Taylor et al. (2005); Chiaburu & Marinova 2005; Noe, 1986; Fecteu, et al., 1995; Axtell et al., (1997); Noe & Holton, 2003b.

Figure 4 - Researches and studies examining relationships between transfer of training and training design, trainee characteristics, work environment and MTIWL



The figure shows that the most examined relationship is between work environment and transfer of training (23 researches and studies) whilst the less examined is between training design and transfer of training (9 researches and studies).

The most comprehensive, although not complete, research in the present century, was conducted by Kontoghiorghes (2004), based on the classic model of Baldwin & Ford (1988), and concentrated on factors as work environment, motivation to learn and motivation to transfer.

The field research which is Descriptive-Quantitative, investigated the interrelations between variables. By relying on this research method, the researcher intended to investigate and survey existing phenomena, to examine statistical interrelations (correlations) between the variables and to draw conclusions whether or not a correlation exists between them. That requires the collection of data on various variables to investigate differences. The advantages of the Descriptive - Quantitative research are:

- a. The assessment of large amounts of variables simultaneously and the investigation of correlations between them.
- b. This method is a relatively fast and easy regarding the collection of data in a relatively short time (Birenboim, 1993).

The disadvantages of this research method are:

- a. It does not guarantee a causal correlation;
- b. It is difficult to refute commutative explanations such as that found in experimental research.

Descriptive research is preferable to experimental research since the data collecting process is faster. Furthermore, experimental research is conducted in a sterile situation, which makes it difficult to apply to natural situations.

This research as being quantitative is based on numeral data and thus differs from qualitative research, which is based on interviews and focus groups and uses small, focused samples.

3.3 TARGET POPULATION

82,461 employees of the Israeli local authorities - 53.2% in the education sector, 39.2% in the municipal sector, 7.1% in the welfare sector and 0.5% elected functionaries (Ministry of Interior, Supervised financial data on the Local Authorities, 2007). Data defining this population by age, gender, educational level and seniority was not published.

3.4 THE SAMPLE AND THE SAMPLING METHOD

A sample 420 trainees in total, employees of local authorities (water supply and canalization engineers / inspectors, procurement officers and assistants to kindergarten principals) participating in training programs organized by The Training and Development Center was used. However, due to missing data the usable sample size was 272 (65% correct criterion level).

Since it eases accessibility, the sampling method in this study was cluster sampling. This sampling method has an advantage since there is virtually no differentiation between the clusters while the differentiation within the clusters exists (Saunders et al., 2000). As the researcher was unsure about the existence of this condition in the present research, training programs in which participants from municipal and education sectors were chosen (92.4% of the employees in local authorities are from the two sectors). As such, the sample promised lack of differentiation.

3.5 INSTRUMENTS

Data was collected from two sources for this research:

- Questionnaires (statements / questions)
- Interviews with managers in the local authorities who are in charge of relevant sectors.

3.5.1 QUESTIONNAIRES (Appendices 1 – 7)

- Procedure

Data was collected out of five questionnaires. All measures were assessed using a five – point Likert – type scale (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= indifferent; 4= agree; and 5= strongly agree / I don't implement at all to I fully implement). The first, second and fifth questionnaires were delivered to two native speakers who translated them independently to Hebrew (for distribution purposes) and the third and fourth questionnaires were translated by them to English (for presentation purposes in this work). The final versions were formulated by the researcher and the translators. The questionnaires were filled out by participants in the different training programs during and after the programs. The first questionnaire included demographic information. The consideration in choosing this type of instrument stems from financial considerations, the limited time frame available for the collection of responses, the large amount of information it can include and the fact that the researcher is only required to be present for the distribution and collection process. Respondents were requested to indicate their names in order to trace the questionnaires in the future and conduct the analysis. Prior to their hand delivery to the trainees by the researcher, the questionnaires were submitted to five individuals who did not participate in the training course. They were asked to evaluate the questionnaires for clarity and the wording.

A personal letter signed by the researcher was enclosed as a preface to each questionnaire. This letter included the purpose of the research, as well as the university and program for which it is conducted. The researcher assured that the data collected was used only for the specific research and the names or any other personal data shall be kept confidential. At the end of the letter the researcher expressed his gratitude. Saunders et al., (2000), indicate that a large number of researches emphasize that this

kind of approach may contribute to motivation for high response among the respondents.

- Description and structure of the questionnaires

● **First questionnaire** (Appendix 1) includes 12 statements and 4 background questions (Demographic information).

Structure of the questionnaire

Self - esteem – Statements 1-3 (statement 3 is reversed in valence). The statements were derived from The Rosenberg Self –Esteem Scale (1965). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.86$.

Self - efficacy – Statements 4- 6. The statements were derived from The General Self - Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.87$.

Organizational commitment - Statements 7 - 9 (statement 7 is reversed in valence).The statements were derived from Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter et al., 1974). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.90$.

Work locus of control - Statements 10 -12. The statements were derived from Work Locus of Control Scale (Spector, 1982). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.83$.

Background (demographic) questions enabled to examine the existence of further relationships beyond the research hypotheses. The demographic factors were the control variables.

● **Second questionnaire** (Appendix 2) includes 17 statements.

Structure of the questionnaire

Perceived supervisory support - Statements 1 - 7 (Statements 3, 4 are reversed in valance). Statements 1 - 4 were derived from Holton III et al. in Seyler et al. (1998). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.86$. Statements 5 -7 were derived from Yarnal (1998). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.95$.

Perceived peer support - Statements 8-10. Statements 8, 9 were derived from Holton III et al. in Seyler et al. (1998). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.83$. Statement 10 was derived from Noe and Schmitt (1986). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.87$.

Perceived training accountability - Statements 11, 12. Statement 11 was derived from Fecteau et al., (1995). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.83$.

Statement 12 was derived from Mathieu et al., (1992). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.88$.

Perceived career utility – Statements 13, 14. Statement 13 was derived from Ryman & Burner (1975). Statement 14 was derived from Nordhaug (1989). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.74$.

Perceived opportunity to apply - Statements 5 - 17. Statement 15 was derived from Shafer et al., (2002). Statement 16 was developed by the researcher. Statement 17 was derived from Lui et al., (2001). Statements 15, 17 were adapted to examine the perceived opportunity to apply although originally were designed to examine professional conflict.

● **Third questionnaire** (Appendix 3) includes 10 statements.

Structure of the questionnaire

Satisfaction from the instructional methods - Statements 1- 5.

Satisfaction from the training content - Statements 6-10.

The statements were derived from questionnaires developed by The Training and Development Institution of the Local Authorities Center and translated to English as shown in appendix 3.

● **Fourth questionnaire** (Appendices 4 – 6). The aim of the questionnaire was to examine training courses participants' perceptions about the extent to which they implemented the KSAs achieved in training in workplace (Transfer of training). The researcher developed different questionnaires to each training course in consistence with its content and after consulting with the course managers. The questionnaires were identical in their structure but differed in their content according to the learned in the training course. Each questionnaire contained 10 questions.

● **Fifth questionnaire** (Appendix 7) includes 7 statements

Structure of the questionnaire

Motivation to learn - Statements 1 - 4. Statements 1, 2 were derived from Guglielmino (1977), Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.91$. Statement 3 was derived from Switzer et al., (2005). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.82$. Statement 4 was derived from Noe & Schmitt (1986). Internal consistency: $\alpha = 0.81$.

Motivation to transfer - Statements 5 - 7. Statement 5 was derived from Noe & Wilk (1993), and statements 6 - 7 were derived from Seyler et al. (1998).

3.5.2 INTERVIEWS (Appendix 8)

The researcher attributes utmost importance to the interviews as a complementary instrument to the questionnaires. Interviews were held with **six** managers in charge of purchasing, canalization and education activities in different local authorities. As having

great experience in these fields and many years of seniority in their capacities, they were asked for their opinion on the research findings and the relevance of training design, trainee characteristics, work environment and motivation on the implementation of the knowledge, skills and abilities obtained in training to daily work. The questions posed were open questions which enabled to conduct an efficient conversation and to collect utmost information which may potentially clarify several findings of the research and contribute to the conclusions. The main outcomes of the interviews are discussed in Chapter 5.

3.6 PROCEDURE

3.6.1 TIMETABLE AND QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION

- The first and second questionnaires were distributed in the opening session of the training courses.
- The third questionnaire was distributed at the last session of the course.
- The fourth questionnaire was distributed following the training course.
- The fifth questionnaire was distributed in the opening session of the training courses. The trainees were requested to answer to statements 1 – 4 (motivation to learn) in the opening session and to statements 5 – 7 (motivation to transfer) at the last session.

The questionnaires were hand delivered to the trainees by the researcher and the respondents were allotted 15 minutes to fill each of them out due to time restrictions imposed by the organizing institution.

3.6.2 TIMETABLE FOR THE INTERVIEWS

The interviews were conducted after the factor analysis and the collection of the findings.

3.7 FACTOR ANALYSIS METHOD

The responses of each trainee were entered to an electronic spreadsheet. A mean of the responses of each individual to each variable and dimension was calculated separately.

3.7.1 THE SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS AND THEORETICAL STATISTICS

- Frequency, relative frequency, accumulated frequency and accumulated relative frequency were calculated relating the demographic variables.

- Mean, minimum, maximum, mode, median, range, standard deviation (STDV), coefficient of variation and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha coefficients) were calculated concerning the research variables and their dimensions.

The findings were presented in tables and graphs.

3.7.2 CONCLUDED STATISTICS

- Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the independent variables (including their dimensions) and the dependent variable.
- Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the independent variables (including their dimensions) and the mediating variable (including its dimensions)
- Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the mediating variable (including its dimensions) and the dependent variable.
- The t-test was used to examine the differences (if existing) of the demographic variables relating each variable.
- Kolmogrov – Smirnov test (Z test) was used to examine the mediation extent of the mediating variable: motivation to improve work through learning.

4. RESULTS

This chapter presents the questionnaires outcomes, which were completed properly by 272 trainees.

4.1 THE SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS (Demographic outcomes)

Table 4–Trainees data distribution

Gender	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Male	113	41.54%
Female	159	58.46%
Total	272	100.00%

Figure 5- Trainees data distribution

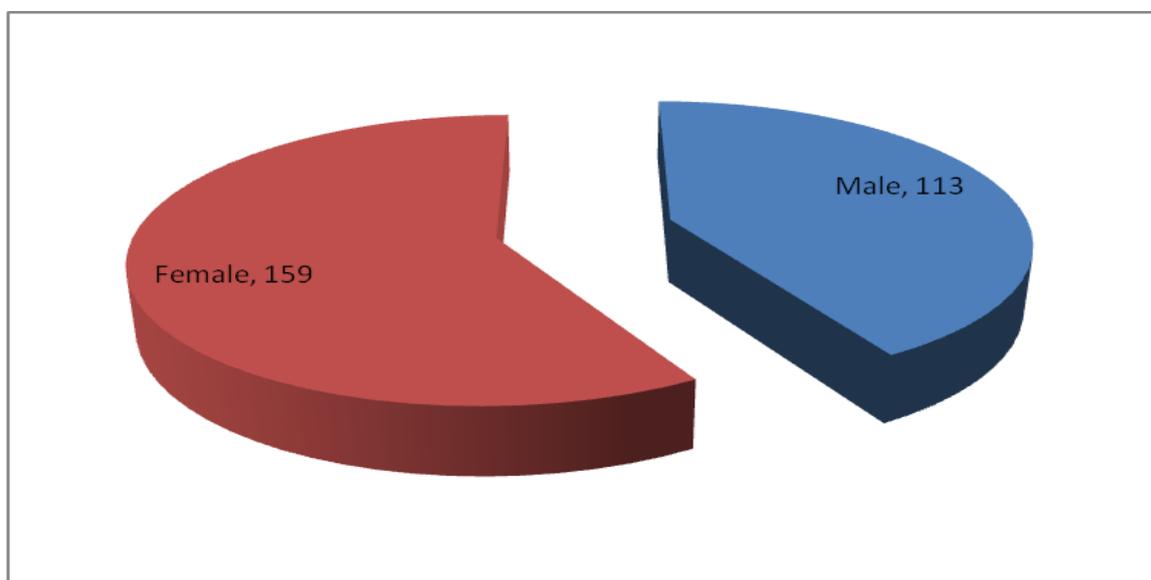


Table 5- Distribution according age

Age	Frequency	Relative Frequency	Accumulated Frequency	Accumulated Relative Frequency
25-30 Years	20	7.35%	20	7.35%
31-35 Years	29	10.66%	49	18.01%
36-45 Years	102	37.50%	151	55.51%
46-65 Years	121	44.49%	272	100.00%

Figure 6- Distribution according age

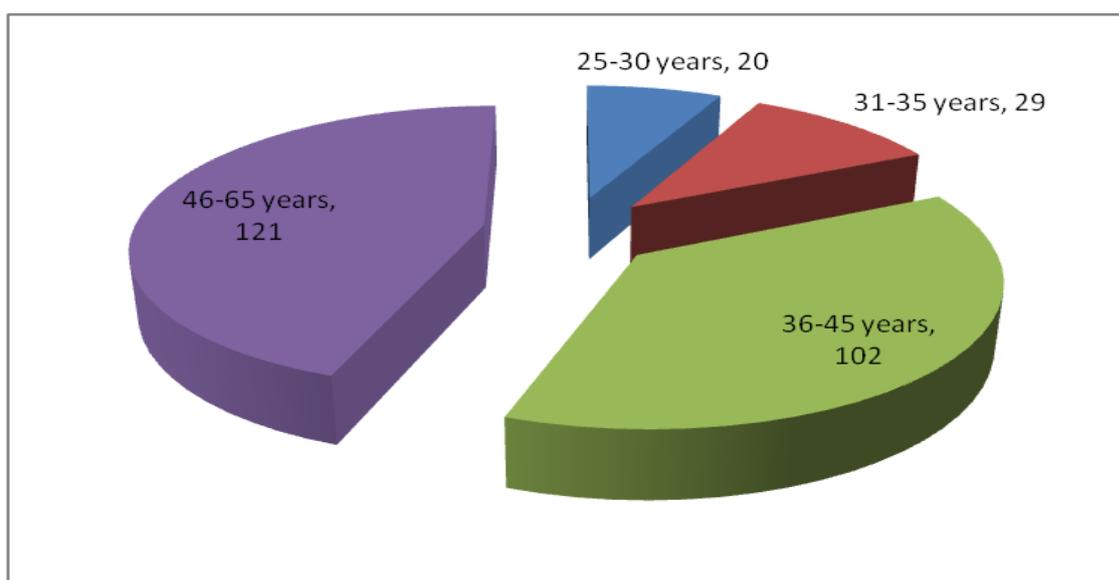


Table 6 – Distribution according seniority

Seniority	Frequency	Relative Frequency	Accumulated Frequency	Accumulated Relative Frequency
Up to 5 Years	56	20.58%	56	20.58%
5-10 Years	77	28.30%	133	48.88%
11-15 Years	65	23.89%	198	72.77%
16-20 Years	57	20.95%	255	93.72%
Above 20 Years	17	6.28%	272	100.00%

Figure 7– Distribution according seniority

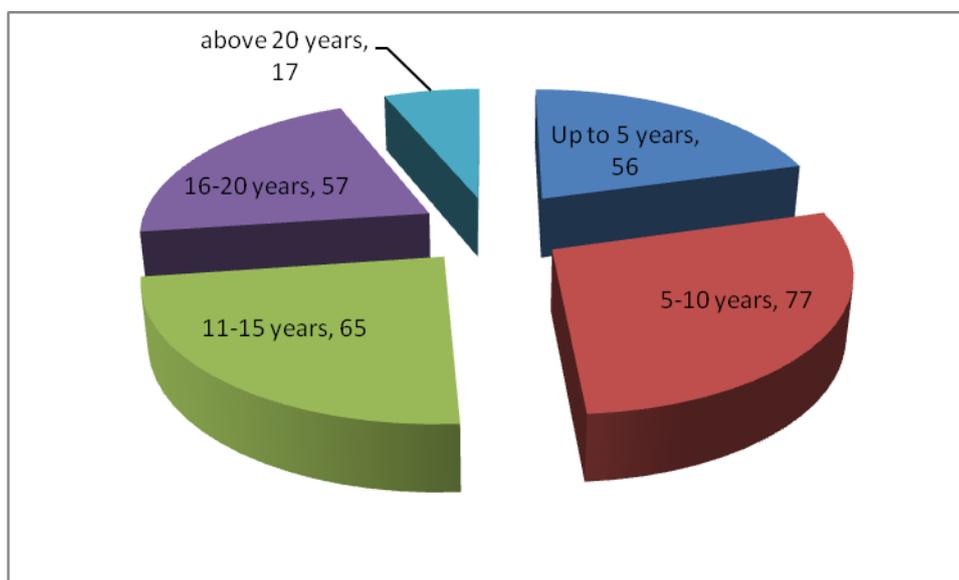
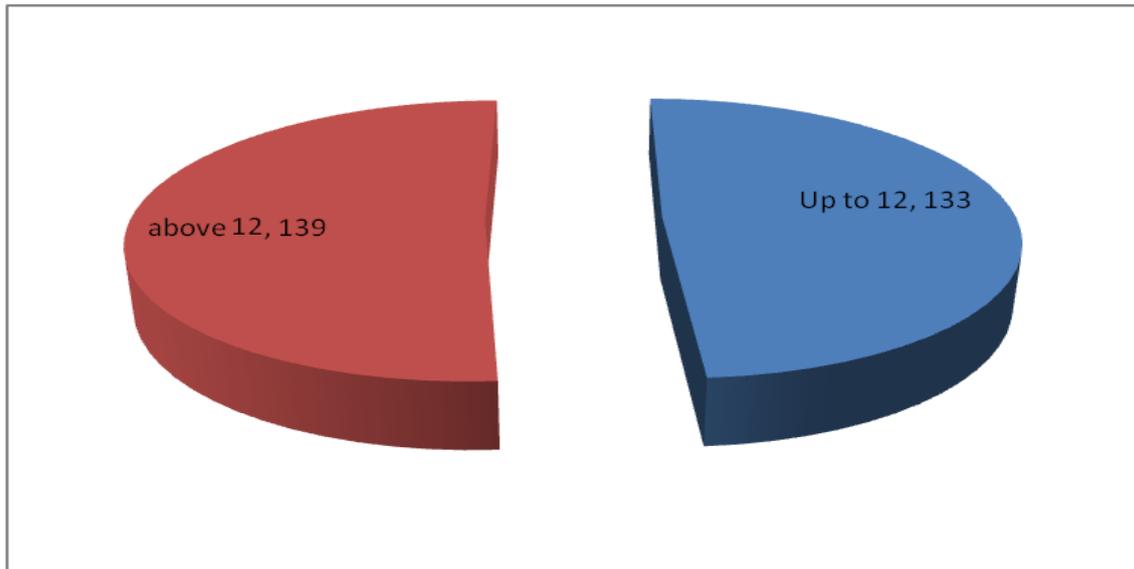


Table 7 - Distribution according education

Education	Frequency	Relative frequency
Up to 12 Years	133	48.89%
Above 12 Years	139	51.11%
Total	272	100%

Figure 8 – Distribution according education



The demographic data analysis indicates that:

- 58.46 % of the respondents or 159 were female and 41.54 % or 113 were male.
- 44.49 % or 121 of the respondents were above 46 years old.
- The majority of the respondents had 5 to 10 years work experience (seniority).
- The majority of the respondents had education more than 12 years.

4.2 THEORETICAL STATISTICS

Table 8– Center and dispersing dimensions of trainee characteristics

(All the trainees)

Variable Dimensions	Mean	Min.	Max	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Trainee characteristics	3.23	1.00	5.00	3.91	3.33	4.00	1.1847	36.63	.917
Self esteem	3.15	1.00	5.00	3.66	3.00	4.00	1.1930	37.93	.870
Self efficacy	3.18	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.33	4.00	1.1907	37.35	.759
Organizational commitment	3.31	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.33	4.00	1.1340	34.21	.718
Work locus of control	3.30	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.66	4.00	1.2211	37.03	.757

Table 8 shows that the respondents scored on trainee characteristics higher than mediocre (3.23 in a scale of 5), while they scored the highest on organizational commitment (3.31 in a scale of 5) and the lowest on self - esteem (3.15 in a of 5).

Table 9– Center and dispersing dimensions of trainee characteristics
(according to jobs)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Trainee characteristics	3.27	1.00	5.00	3.50	3.25	4.00	1.1194	34.27	.894
Engineers									
Trainee characteristics	3.21	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.33	4.00	1.1475	35.79	.938
Purchasing officials									
Trainee characteristics	3.23	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.25	4.00	1.2482	38.81	.918
Assistants									

Table 9 shows that the engineers scored on trainee characteristics higher (3.27 in a a of 5) than the purchasing officials (3.21 in a scale of 5) and the kindergarten assistants (3.23 in a scale of 5).

Table 10– Center and dispersing dimensions of work environment

(All the trainees)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Dimensions									
Work environment	3.57	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.88	4.00	1.1347	31.53	.899
Percieved supervisory support	3.68	1.00	5.00	4.14	4.00	4.00	1.1074	30.13	.828
Percieved peer support	3.52	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1.1403	30.20	.797
Percieved training accountability	3.57	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1.2038	33.80	.739
Percieved Career utility	3.60	1.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	1.1972	33.44	.740
Percieved opportunity to apply	3.33	1.00	5.00	366	3.33	4.00	1.1050	33.35	.544

Table 10 shows that the respondents scored on the work environment higher than mediocre (3.57 in a of 5), while they scored the highest on percieved supervisory support (3.68 in a scale of 5) and the lowest on percieved opportunity (3.33 in a scale of 5).

Table 11 – Center and dispersing dimensions of work environment

(according to jobs)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Work environment Engineers	3.45	1.11	5.00	3.58	3.52	3.88	1.0639	30.92	.901
Work environment Purchasing officials	3.33	1.00	5.00	3.64	3.26	4.00	1.1178	33.56	.917
Work environment Assistants	3.79	1.05	5.00	4.47	3.94	3.94	1.1443	29.94	.862

Table 11 shows that the kindergarten assistants scored on work environment higher (3.79 in a scale of 5) than the engineers (3.45 in a scale of 5) and the purchasing officials (3.33 in a scale of 5).

Table 12 – Center and dispersing dimensions of training design

(All the trainees)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Dimensions									
Training design	3.48	1.00	5.00	3.90	3.60	4.00	1.0473	30.17	.867
Instructional methods	3.49	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.80	4.00	1.0754	30.85	.763
Training content	3.47	1.00	5.00	3.80	3.40	4.00	1.0191	29.48	.833

Table 12 shows that the respondents scored on training design higher than mediocre (3.48 in a scale of 5), while they scored the highest on instructional methods (3.49 in a scale of 5) and the lowest on training content (3.47 in a scale of 5).

Table 13– Center and dispersing dimensions of training design

(according to jobs)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Training design Engineers	3.49	1.00	5.00	3.80	3.65	4.00	1.0099	28.99	.891
Training design Purchasing officials	3.38	1.00	5.00	3.70	3.55	4.00	1.1326	33.67	.874
Training design Assistants	3.53	1.00	5.00	3.90	3.80	4.00	1.0109	28.74	.843

Table 13 shows that the kindergarten assistants scored on training design higher (3.53 in a scale of 5) than the engineers (3.49 in scale of 5) and the purchasing officials (3.38 in a scale of 5).

Table 14 – Center and dispersing dimensions of MTIWL

(All the trainees)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Dimensions									
MTIWL	3.33	1.00	5.00	3.57	3.57	4.00	1.1351	33.58	.791
Motivation to learn	3.43	1.00	5.00	4.00	3.75	4.00	1.1714	34.10	.773
Motivation to transfer	3.18	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.33	4.00	1.0866	32.89	.624

Table 14 shows that the respondents scored on MTIWL higher than mediocre (3.33 in a scale of 5), while they scored on motivation to learn (3.43 in a scale of 5) higher than motivation to transfer (3.18 in a scale of 5).

Table15– Center and dispersing dimensions of MTIWL

(according to jobs)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
MTIWL Engineers	3.21	1.00	5.00	3.20	3.15	4.00	1.0134	31.70	.910
MTIWL Purchasing officials	3.09	1.00	5.00	3.20	3.00	4.00	1.0470	33.93	.938
MTIWL Assistants	3.27	1.00	5.00	2.90	3.10	4.00	1.0545	32.52	.936

Table 15 shows that the assistents scored on MTIWL higher (3.27 in a scale of 5) than the engineers (3.21 in a scale of 5) and the purchasing officials (3.09 in a scale of 5).

Table 16 – Center and dispersing dimensions of transfer of training

(All the trainees)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	α
Transfer of training	3.20	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.10	4.00	1.0435	32.70	.929

Table 16 shows that the respondents scored on transfer of training higher than mediocre (3.20 in a scale of 5).

Table 17 – Center and dispersing dimensions of transfer of training
(according to jobs)

Variable	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mode	Median	Range	STDV	CV%	<i>α</i>
Transfer of training Engineers	3.45	1.00	5.00	3.85	3.57	4.00	1.1245	32.59	.819
Transfer of training Purchasing officials	3.31	1.00	5.00	3.71	3.28	4.00	1.0430	31.67	.723
Transfer of training Assistants	3.25	1.00	5.00	3.14	3.42	4.00	1.1847	36.80	.800

Table 17 shows that the engineers scored on transfer of training higher (3.45 in a of 5) than the kindergarten assistants (3.25 in a scale of 5) and the purchasing officials (3.31 in a scale of 5).

4.3 CONCLUDED STATISTICS - Hypothesis analysis

Hypothesis 1 - Trainee characteristics will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.

Table 18 – Pearson correlation between trainee characteristics and MTIWL

Variable Dimensions	Test	Trainee Characteristics	Self Esteem	Self Efficacy	Organizational Commitment	Work locus of control
MTIWL	r	***.348	***.343	***.382	.173	** .298
	r ²	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.03	0.08
Motivation to Learn	r	***.327	***.324	***.347	.170	** .282
	r ²	0.10	0.10	0.12	0.02	0.07
Motivation to Transfer	r	** .270	** .262	** .313	.124	* .228
	r ²	0.07	0.06	0.09	0.01	0.05

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 18 shows that a significant high positive correlation between trainee characteristics (and its dimensions) and MTIWL (and its dimensions) was found:

$$r = .348 \quad p < 0.001 \quad r^2 = 12\%$$

No correlation between organizational commitment and MTIWL and its dimensions was found.

The research hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 – Work environment will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.

Table 19 – Pearson correlation between work environment and MTIWL

Variable dimensions	Test	Work environment	Percieved supervisory support	Percieved peer support	Percieved training accountability	Percieved career utility	Percieved opportunity to apply
MTIWL	r	** .286	.181	*** .327	*** .419	.048	* .196
	r ²	0.08	0.03	0.10	0.17	0.00	0.03
Motivation to Learn	r	*** .341	** .263	*** .363	*** .434	.076	* .207
	r ²	0.11	0.06	0.13	0.18	0.00	0.04
Motivation to Transfer	r	.114	.004	.172	** .267	-.008	.119
	r ²	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.07	0.00	0.01

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 19 shows that a significant high positive correlation between work environment and MTIWL was found:

$$r = .286 \quad p < 0.01 \quad r^2 = 8\%$$

Additionally, positive correlations between most of the dimensions were found.

The research hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3 – Training design will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.

Table 20– Pearson correlation between training design and MTIWL

Variable Dimensions	Test	Training Design	Instructional Methods	Training Content
MTIWL	r	.124	.080	.145
	r ²	0.30	0.22	0.18
Motivation To Learn	r	.073	.047	.085
	r ²	0.02	0.01	0.01
Motivation To Transfer	r	.145	.103	.188
	r ²	0.50	0.39	0.30

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 20 shows that no positive correlation between training design (and its dimensions) and MTIWL (and its dimensions) was found.

The research hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 – Trainee characteristics will be positively related to transfer of training.

Table 21 – Pearson correlation between trainee characteristics and transfer of training

Variable Dimensions	Test	Trainee Characteristics	Self Esteem	Self Efficacy	Organizational Commitment	Work locus of control
Transfer of Training	r	-.096	.114	.025	.064	.124
	r ²	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 21 shows that no significant positive correlation between trainee characteristics (and its dimensions) and transfer of training was found .

The research hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 – Work environment will be positively related to transfer of training.

Table 22 – Pearson correlation between work environment and transfer of training

Variable Dimensions	Test	Work environment	Percieved Supervisory Support	Percieved Peer Support	Percieved Training Accountability	Percieved Career Utility	Percieved Opportunity To Apply
Transfer Of Training	r	.098	.049	.103	.131	.067	.077
	r ²	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 22 shows that no significant positive correlation between work environment (and its dimensions) and transfer of training was found.

The research hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 – Training design will be positively related to tranfer of training.

Table 23 – Pearson correlation between training design and transfer of training

Variable Dimensions	Test	Training Design	Instructional Methods	Training Content
Transfer of Training	r	.182	.176	.153
	r ²	0.03	0.03	0.02

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 23 shows that no significant positive correlation between training design (and its dimensions) and transfer of training was found.

The research hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 – Motivation to improve work through learning will be positively related to tranfer of training.

Table 24– Pearson correlation between MTIWL and transfer of training

Variable Dimensions	Test	MTIWL	Motivation to Learn	Motivation to Transfer
Transfer of Training	r	*.212	*.238	.107
	r ²	0.04	0.05	0.01

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01 *** p < 0.001

Table 24 shows that a significant high positive correlation between MTIWL and transfer of training was found :

$$r = .212 \quad p < 0.05 \quad r^2 = 4\%.$$

Additionally, a high significant correlation between motivation to learn and transfer of training was found while a moderate positive correlation between motivation to transfer and transfer of training was found.

The research hypothesis 7 was supported.

Kolmogorov – Smirnov test (Z test) was used to examine the mediation extent of the mediating variable: motivation to improve work through learning.

Table 25 – Kolmogorov-Smirnov (z) test

		One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test				
		Trainee	Work	Training	Transfer	MTIWL
N		272	272	272	272	272
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.2396	3.5720	3.4824	3.2096	3.3314
	Std. Deviation	.85755	.70413	.70751	.81778	.75828
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.112	.061	.089	.068	.076
	Positive	.066	.026	.035	.068	.076
	Negative	-.112	-.061	-.089	-.051	-.057
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.846	1.001	1.476	1.121	1.255
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.269	.026	.162	.086

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Table 25 shows that the mediating variable is not significant between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

4.4 ADDITIONAL FINDINGS

The t-test was used to examine the differences (if existing) of the demographic variables relating each variable.

Table 26 – Analysis of differences in gender regarding the trainee characteristics variable

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Trainee Characteristics	Male	113	3.29	-0.168	97	.902
	Female	159	3.31			

Table 26 shows that a significant difference between male and female perceptions regarding the trainee characteristics variable **was not found**. Among the female a slight difference of 0.02 was found.

Table 27– Analysis of differences between up to 8 years seniority and above 8 years seniority regarding the trainee characteristics variable

Variable	Seniority	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Trainee Characteristics	Up to 8 years	98	3.12	-3.095	102	.001
	Above 8 years	174	3.50			

Table 27 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with seniority up to 8 years and perceptions of those with seniority above 8 years regarding the trainee characteristics variable **was found**. Among respondents with more than 8 years seniority a difference of 0.38 was found.

Table 28– Analysis of differences between age up to 40 years and above 40 years of age regarding the trainee characteristics variable

Variable	Age	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Trainee Characteristics	Up to 40 years	88	3.29	-2.832	97	.002
	Above 40 years	184	3.57			

Table 28 shows that a significant difference between perception of respondents up to 40 years old and perceptions of those above 40 years old regarding the trainee characteristics variable **was found**. Among the respondents above 40 years old a difference of 0.28 was found.

Table 29 – Analysis of differences between education up to 12 years and education above 12 years regarding the trainee characteristics variable

Variable	Education	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Trainee Characteristics	Up to 12 years	132	3.21	-1.115	107	.761
	Above 12 years	140	3.31			

Table 29 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with education up to 12 years and perceptions of those with education above 12 years regarding the trainee characteristics variable **was not found**. Among respondents with the education above 12 years a slight difference of 0.10 was found.

Table 30 – Analysis of differences in gender regarding the work environment variable

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Work environment	Male	113	3.50	0.813	93	.812
	Female	159	3.43			

Table 30 shows that a significant difference between male to female perceptions regarding the work environment variable **was not found**. Among the male a slight difference of 0.07 was found.

Table 31 – Analysis of differences between up to 8 years seniority and above 8 years seniority regarding the work environment variable

Variable	Seniority	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Work environment	Up to 8 years	98	3.65	0.967	101	.945
	Above 8 years	174	3.54			

Table 31 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with seniority up to 8 years and perceptions of those with seniority more than 8 years regarding the work environment variable **was not found**. Among respondents with seniority up to 8 years a slight difference of 0.11 was found.

Table 32 – Analysis of differences between age up to 40 years and above 40 years of age regarding the work environment variable

Variable	Age	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Work environment	Up to 40 years	88	3.68	-0.325	99	.986
	Above 40 years	184	3.71			

Table 32 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents up to 40 years old and perceptions of those above 40 years old regarding the work environment variable **was not found**. Among the respondents above 40 years old a slight difference of 0.03 was found.

Table 33 – Analysis of differences between education up to 12 years and education above 12 years regarding the work environment variable

Variable	Education	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Work environment	Up to 12 years	132	3.60	1.609	8	.689
	Above 12 years	140	3.49			

Table 33 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with education up to 12 years and perception of those with education above 12 years regarding the work environment variable **was not found**. Among the respondents with education up to 12 years a difference of 0.11 was found.

Table 34– Analysis of differences in gender regarding the training design variable

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Training Design	Male	113	3.53	0.346	101	.967
	Female	159	3.50			

Table 34 shows that a significant difference between male and female perceptions regarding the training design variable **was not found**. Among the male a slight difference of 0.03 was found.

Table 35 – Analysis of differences between up to 8 years seniority and above 8 years seniority regarding the training design variable

Variable	Seniority	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Training Design	Up to 8 years	98	3.41	-1.449	95	.569
	Above 8 years	174	3.55			

Table 35 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with seniority up to 8 years and perceptions of those with seniority above 8 years regarding the training design variable **was not found**. Among respondents with seniority above 8 years a slight difference of 0.14 was found.

Table 36– Analysis of differences between age up to 40 years and above 40 years of age regarding the training design variable

Variable	Age	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Training Design	Up to 40 years	88	3.53	-0.968	103	.812
	Above 40 years	184	3.63			

Table 36 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents up to 40 years old and perceptions of those above 40 years old regarding the training design variable **was not found**. Among respondents above 40 years old a slight difference of 0.10 was found.

Table 37– Analysis of differences between education up to 12 years and education above 12 years regarding the training design variable

Variable	Education	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Training Design	Up to 12 years	132	3.50	0.617	99	.799
	Above 12 years	140	3.45			

Table 37 shows that a significant difference between respondents with education up to 12 years and perceptions of those with education above 12 years regarding the training design variable **was not found**. Among the respondents with education up to 12 years a slight difference of 0.05 was found.

Table 38– Analysis of differences in gender regarding the MTIWL variable

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
MTIWL	Male	113	3.20	-0.779	100	.807
	Female	159	3.29			

Table 38 shows that a significant difference between male to female perceptions regarding the MTIWL variable **was not found**. Among the female a slight difference of 0.09 was found.

Table 39 – Analysis of differences between up to 8 years seniority and above 8 years seniority regarding the MTIWL variable

Variable	Seniority	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
MTIWL	Up to 8 years	98	3.24	0.100	103	.942
	Above 8 years	174	3.23			

Table 39 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with seniority of 8 years and perceptions of those with seniority above 8 years regarding the MTIWL variable **was not found**. Among up to 8 years seniority a slight difference of 0.01 was found.

Table 40– Analysis of differences between age of up to 40 years and above 40 years of age regarding the MTIWL variable

Variable	Age	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
MTIWL	Up to 40 years	88	3.25	-0.375	90	.834
	Above 40 years	184	3.30			

Table 40 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents up to 40 years old and perceptions of those above 40 years old regarding the MTIWL variable **was not found**. Among respondents above 40 years old a slight difference of 0.05 was found.

Table 41 – Analysis of differences between education up to 12 years and education above 12 years regarding the MTIWL variable

Variable	Education	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
MTIWL	Up to 12 years	132	3.23	0.348	99	.944
	Above 12 years	140	3.19			

Table 41 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with education up to 12 years and perceptions of those with education above 12 years regarding the MTIWL variable **was not found**. Among the respondents with education up to 12 years a slight difference of 0.04 was found.

Table 42– Analysis of differences in gender regarding the transfer of training variable

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Transfer of training	Male	113	3.18	-3.456	101	.000
	Female	159	3.48			

Table 42 shows that a significant difference between male to female perceptions regarding the transfer of training variable **was found**. Among the female a difference of 0.30 was found.

Table 43 – Analysis of differences between up to 8 years seniority and above 8 years seniority regarding the transfer of training variable

Variable	Seniority	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Transfer of training	Up to 8 years	98	3.33	-2.444	99	.016
	Above 8 years	174	3.59			

Table 43 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with seniority up to 8 years and perceptions of those with seniority above 8 years regarding the transfer of training variable was found. Among respondents with seniority above 8 years a difference of 0.26 was found.

Table 44 – Analysis of differences between age of up to 40 years and above 40 years of age regarding the transfer of training variable

Variable	Age	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Transfer of training	Up to 40 years	88	3.28	-3.847	101	.000
	Above 40 years	184	3.71			

Table 44 shows that significant difference between perceptions of respondents up to 40 years old and perception of those more than 40 years old regarding the transfer of training variable was found. Among respondents above 40 years old a difference of 0.43 was found.

Table 45 – Analysis of differences between education up to 12 years and education above 12 years regarding the transfer of training variable

Variable	Education	N	Mean	t-test	df	2 tailed Significance
Transfer of training	Up to 12 years	132	3.42	2.497	98	.013
	Above 12 years	140	3.25			

Table 45 shows that a significant difference between perceptions of respondents with education up to 12 years and perceptions of those with education above 12 years regarding the transfer of training variable **was found**. Among respondents with education up to 12 years a difference of 0.17 it was found.

5. DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the research variables and the relationship that exists between them. This is accomplished by presenting the finding results, accompanied by literature which reaffirms or contradicts the findings.

5.1 DISCUSSION ON THE VARIABLES

- Trainee characteristics: Based on the averages for the variables and dimensions, it is evident that the respondents scored higher than average on trainee characteristics (3.23 on a scale of 5), with slight differences between the scoring on its dimensions. The respondents scored lowest on self-esteem (3.15 on a scale of 5) and highest on organizational commitment (3.31 on a scale of 5). The significance of this finding is that respondents perceived organizational commitment as the most influential dimension of trainee characteristics, while self-esteem was perceived to have the lowest influence on trainee characteristics. This finding supports the researcher's position that organizational commitment has a crucial role in generating responsibility that should be translated to peak performance by implementing learned SKAs to work settings. It is further consistent with Meyer and Allen's (1997) position that the organizational commitment has a crucial significance on employee performance. Concerning self-esteem, while Campbell and Fairey (1985) find that people with high self-esteem performed better than those with low self-esteem, Wallace and Baumeister (2002), and Baumeister et al., (1993), find that there was no effect of self-esteem on performance.

Furthermore, the distribution of perceptions according to jobs indicates that the engineers scored higher on trainee characteristics than the kindergarten assistants and the purchasing officers.

- Work environment: Based on the variable and dimensions averages, it is evident that the respondents scored higher than average on the work environment variable (3.57 on a scale of 5), with slight differences found between the scoring on its dimensions. The respondents scored lowest on perceived opportunity to apply (3.33 on a scale of 5) and highest on perceived supervisory support (3.68 on a scale of 5). The significance of this finding is that respondents

perceived supervisory support as the most influential dimension of the work environment, while perceived opportunity to apply was perceived to have the lowest influence on the work environment. This finding is consistent with the opinions of numerous researchers that supervisory and management support has a significant effect on transfer (Xiao, 1996; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Lim and Johnson, 2002; Russ – Eft, 2002; Cromwell and Kolb, 2004; Liebermann and Hoffman, 2008). This is in contradiction to others who argue that supervisory support has no effect on transfer of training (Awoniyi et al., 2002) or those who find that a significant negative relationship exists between supervisor support and transfer of training (Nijman et al., 2006). Regarding the opportunity to apply, the finding was not consistent with Lim and Johnson's (2002) position that the opportunity to apply was the highest supportive factor contributing to the training transfer process.

Additionally, the distribution of perceptions according to jobs indicates that the kindergarten assistants scored higher on work environment than the engineers and the purchasing officers.

- Training design: Based on the variable and dimensions averages, it is evident that the respondents scored on training design higher than average (3.48 on a scale of 5), with slight differences found between the scoring on its dimensions: instructional methods (3.49 on a scale of 5) and training content (3.47 on a scale of 5). Those findings are consistent with Lim's (2000), suggestion that the training design is one of the most influential factors in terms of transfer of training and with others who posited that suitable training content and appropriate training instructions enable trainees to learn and transfer training into the workplace (Belling et al., 2004).

Additionally, the distribution of perceptions according to jobs indicates that the kindergarten assistants scored higher on training design than the engineers and the purchasing officers.

- MTIWL: Based on the variable and dimensions averages, it is evident that the respondents scored higher than average on MTIWL (3.33 on a scale of 5), with slight differences between the scoring on its dimensions - motivation to transfer (3.18 on a scale of 5) and motivation to learn (3.43 on a scale of 5). The significance of this finding is that respondents perceive motivation to learn as the more influential dimension regarding MTIWL than motivation to transfer, which is viewed as being less influential. Respondent perceptions' of motivation to learn as of greater influence on the dimension are consistent with Bates and Holton (1999), who state that trainees with higher motivation will perceive learning as more important, and shall strive to best implement the knowledge obtained in order to improve their performance.

Additionally, the distribution of perceptions according to jobs indicated that the kindergarten assistants scored higher on MTIWL than the engineers and the purchasing officers.

- Transfer of training: Based on a variable average, it is evident that that the respondents scored higher than average on the transfer of training (3.20 on a scale of 5). The engineers scored higher on transfer of training than purchasing officials and kindergarten assistants.

Respondent perceptions of transfer of training as an important construct are consistent with the studies reviewed in the literature stating that training that does not contribute to advance in conduct, ability, skills and employee performance does not accomplish its goals (Burke and Baldwin, 1999; Schletter, 2003).

Table 46 represents an overview of respondents' mean scores on research variables and their dimensions.

Table 46– Mean scores - Variables / dimensions

Variable / Dimension	Mean scores (all trainees)	Mean scores (engineers)	Mean scores (purchasing officials)	Mean scores (kindergarten assistants)
<i>Trainee characteristics</i>	3.23	3.27	3.21	3.23
Self-esteem	3.15			
Self-efficacy	3.18			
Organizational commitment	3.31			
Work locus of control	3.30			
<i>Work environment</i>	3.57	3.45	3.33	3.79
Perceived supervisory support	3.68			
Perceived peer support	3.52			
Perceived training accountability	3.57			
Perceived career utility	3.60			
Perceived opportunity to apply	3.33			
<i>Training design</i>	3.48	3.49	3.38	3.53
Instructional methods	3.49			
Training content	3.47			
<i>MTIWL</i>	3.33	3.21	3.09	3.27
Motivation to learn	3.43			
Motivation to transfer	3.18			
<i>Transfer of training</i>	3.20	3.45	3.31	3.25

5.2 DISCUSSION ON THE HYPHOTHESES

5.2.1 Hypothesis 1 - Trainee characteristics will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning

- Self-esteem, self-efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.
- Self-esteem, self-efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus of control will be positively related to the motivation to learn.
- Self-esteem, self-efficacy, organizational commitment and locus of control will be positively related to motivation to transfer.

Research hypothesis 1 was supported, as a significant high positive correlation between the variables and dimensions (except organizational commitment) was found:

$$r = .348p < 0.001 r^2 = 12\%.$$

A strong positive correlation exists between the variables, with the coefficient of determination measuring 12%. In addition, strong, significant positive correlations were found to exist between most of the variable dimensions, confirming the research hypothesis.

The average score received for the training characteristic variable was 3.23 on a scale of 5, while the average score received for the MTIWL score was 3.33 on a scale of 5. From those findings, it is evident that respondents perceived the trainee characteristic variable as well as the MTIWL to be higher than average.

From previous studies, reviewed in this study, trainee characteristics and its dimensions were found to influence MTIWL and its dimensions:

- The claim that the internal locus of control influences motivation to learn (Colquitt, LePine and Noe, 2000) is supported in the present research.
- The claim that organizational commitment influences motivation to transfer (Kontoghiorghes 2002, 2004) is not supported in the present research.
- The claim that organizational commitment influences motivation to learn (Woldkowski, 1999, Cheng & Ho, 2001b; Kontoghiorghes, 2002) is not supported in the present research.

- The claim that personal characteristics influence MTIWL (Naquin & Holton III, 2002) is supported in the present research.

The findings mostly contradict the interview outcomes which pointed out those personal characteristics have no influence on motivation to improve work through learning (in the kindergarten assistants' case). Nevertheless, in the interviews, personal characteristics were indicated as factors having limited influence on motivation to learn (as in the case of the water and sewage engineers and procurement officials).

5.2.2 Hypothesis 2 –The work environment will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning

- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.
- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to motivation to learn.
- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to motivation to transfer.

Research hypothesis 2 was supported as having a significant high positive correlation between the variables and most dimensions was found:

$$r = .286 \text{ } p < 0.01 \text{ } r^2 = 8\%.$$

The average score received for the work environment was 3.57 on a scale of 5, while the average score received for the MTIWL score was 3.33 on a scale of 5. From these findings it is evident that respondents perceived the work environment, as well as MTIWL, as higher than average.

The finding showed similar correlation with most of the previous studies. Several studies assessed the relationship between the dimensions of the work environment factor and motivation to learn and to transfer (Seyler et al., 1998; Orpen, 1999; Cheng, 2000; Cheng & Ho, 2001a). Others show that the opportunity to use new skills, knowledge and abilities in a

work setting impacts the motivation to transfer (Bates & Holton, 2004; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006). In the present research no significant correlation between motivation to transfer and work environment and its dimensions was noted, with the exception of a significant correlation found between motivation to transfer and perceived training accountability. Some of the studies mentioned by Cheng & Ho (2001a), indicate the existence of a strong positive correlation between supervisory or peer support and motivation. The present research revealed a significant, high, positive correlation between perceived supervisory and peer support and motivation to learn, while no correlation between supervisory and peer support and motivation to transfer was pointed out. Results of research conducted by Seyler et al., (1998) indicate a strong positive correlation between opportunities to apply new skills and knowledge, supervisory and coworker support and transfer motivation. Those results were not reaffirmed by the present research.

The findings are partly reinforced by a quote made during interviews: "The assistants are not reimbursed in accordance with improvement in functioning stemming from training. Measures which may improve motivation to learn and motivation to improve work include supervisor's displaying interest in employee training and presenting opportunities to apply lessons learned. The kindergarten supervisor must provide the assistant with the feeling that she is expected to improve her functioning following training". This indicates that a decline in assistant motivation does exist where there is a lack of supervisor support in improving functioning by training. In an interview conducted with a water and sewage engineer supervisor, the researcher was told that "as supervisors increasingly stress the acquisition of knowledge and skills by training, encourage its application at work and institute a learning environment in the organization, motivation to learn and motivation to apply training will increase as well. Aggressive management and lack of communication between the management and the lower ranks in Israeli local authorities decrease motivation as well as training implementation".

5.2.3 Hypothesis 3 – Training design will be positively related to the motivation to improve work through learning.

- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to motivation to improve work through learning.
- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to motivation to learn.
- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to motivation to transfer.

Research hypothesis 3 was not supported, as no positive correlation between the variables and dimensions was found:

The average score received for the training design was 3.48 on a scale of 5, while the average score for the MTIWL was 3.33 on a scale of 5. This finding indicates that training design and MTIWL were perceived as higher than average.

This finding did not show similar corroboration with previous studies namely, the framing of the training to increase willingness to learn enhances transfer motivation (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006; Bates & Holton, 2007; Devos et al., 2007).

The following quote from an interview emphasizes the influence of the content of the training and the instruction methods on motivation to learn and to improve functioning through learning. "The content of the training and the training methods are directly linked to the motivation to learn and to implementation. To maximize the benefits of training, the relevant professionals – the kindergarten principals and assistants – must participate in the training content preparation stage in order to create and pinpoint a targeted training course". The assistant director of the authority responsible for water and sewage stated that training must be well-planned, both in terms of the instruction methods and in terms of the content. It is clear that successful training leads to positive results and to improvements in the worker's functioning. The content of the interviews relating to the relationship between training design and MTIWL were not consistent with the research results.

5.2..4 Hypothesis 4 – Trainee characteristics will be positively related to the transfer of training.

- Self-esteem, self-efficacy, organizational commitment and work locus of control will be positively related to transfer of training.

Research hypothesis 4 was not supported as, any significant positive correlation between trainee characteristics (and its dimensions) and transfer of training was found.

The average score received for the trainee characteristics variable was 3.27 on a scale of 5, while the average score received for transfer of training was 3.20 on a scale of 5. This finding indicates that trainee characteristics and transfer of training were perceived as higher than average.

The findings are interesting in themselves as they support claims made in interviews while contradicting the results of research conducted on the matter.

Results of research conducted by Seyler et al. (1998) identify the interrelation between personal characteristics, organizational commitment and transfer of training. Many researchers found self-efficacy to be positively related to transfer of training (Stevens & Gist, 1997; Ford et al., 1998; Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005). In their research, Holladay & Quinones (2003), validate earlier research which showed a positive correlation between self-efficacy and transfer of training, as well as the crucial role self-efficacy generality plays in training transfer (individuals who generalize self-efficacy are expected to have a similar self-efficacy level and strength in different tasks). In three other studies, a strong positive correlation was found between aspiration for self-efficiency and transfer of training. Six other studies failed to determine the existence of a correlation between aspiration for self-efficiency and transfer of training. To summarize, it is well established that self-efficacy enhances learning outcomes, organizational commitment, motivation and performance (Salas & Canon-Bowers, 2001). Only one study found a strong positive correlation between work locus of control and transfer of training.

5.2.5 Hypothesis 5 – Work environment will be positively related to transfer of training.

- Perceived supervisory support, perceived peer support, perceived training accountability, perceived career utility and perceived opportunity to apply will be positively related to the transfer of training.

Research hypothesis 5 is not supported, as any significant positive correlation between work environment (and its dimensions) and transfer of training was found.

The average score received for the work environment was 3.57 on a scale of 5, while the average score for the transfer of training was 33.20 on a scale of 5. This finding indicates that the work environment variable and the transfer of training were perceived as higher than average.

The finding showed no similar corroboration with previous studies.

Rouiller and Goldstein (1993) find that a positive work environment contributes to the level of training transfer.

The opportunity to apply and practice what has been learned in training is one of the more crucial parameters demanding consideration in the transfer of training.

Opportunities provided to use skills gained during training were rated as the highest supportive factor contributing to the training transfer (Lim & Johnson, 2002).

Van der Klink et al. (2001) find that work environment factors, such as supervisor and peer support, have a crucial influence on transfer behavior. Hawley & Barnard (2005) state that both supervisor and peer support have a significant impact on training transfer. Cromwell & Kolb (2004) note that trainees who reported that training received high levels of support from the organization, supervisors and peers, performed higher levels of transfer. Previous research has concluded that peer support and the opportunity to practice and utilize new skills and knowledge had a stronger effect on the transfer of training than supervisory support (Seyler et al., 1998).

Taylor (2000) states that co-workers' negative attitudes towards training may hinder transfer. Peer support, both within and outside the training course, facilitates the training process and, as such, lacking support is perceived as a serious obstacle (Belling et al., 2004). Hawley & Barnard's (2005) findings strengthen the claim that peer support can have a positive effect on training transfer even from a distance. Conclusions from a number of studies conducted indicate that supervisory support and have a significant effect on transfer (Xiao, 1996; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Kupritz, 2002; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Russ – Eft, 2002, Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Liebermann & Hoffman, 2008). Gumuseli & Ergin (2002) argue that few managers know how to support and assist their employees during the training process and that some do not even view their support as necessary. They pointed out a positive but non-significant relationship between supervisory support and training transfer.

While a study by Clarke (2002) determines that insufficient supervisory support has a negative effect on transfer, other researchers did not find any effect supervisory support on transfer (Awoniyi, et al., 2002). Nijman et al., (2006) note the remarkable finding that a significant negative relationship exists between supervisor support and transfer of training, influenced by trainee motivation to transfer and the transfer climate. The results of Cheng's (2000) research indicate that there is a positive correlation between career and job utility and the transfer of training. The finding contradicts statements made in interviews, where managers indicated that they view support from superiors and the opportunity to implement training as the primary factors in establishing a work environment open to the implementation of training in the workplace.

5.2.6 Hypothesis 6 – Training design will be positively related to transfer of training.

- Instructional methods and training content will be positively related to transfer of training.

Research hypothesis 6 was not supported, as a significant non-positive correlation between training design and transfer of training was found.

The average score received for the training design was 3.48 on a scale of 5, while the average score for the transfer of training variable was 3.20 on a scale of 5. This finding indicates that training design and transfer of training were perceived as higher than average.

This finding showed no similar corroboration with previous studies. Gegenfurtner et al., (2009b) suggest that employees who found the training content more interesting and engaging could be exposed to external rewards which would encourage the implementation of the training in a work setting.

Baldwin (1992) discovers that trainees exposed to several different instructional methods generalized desired skills much better than others.

Navon (2001) suggests that training which utilizes combined, integrated methods, ranging from books through classrooms to electronic methods, is the best mix to obtain training goals and achieve desired results. Some researchers point out various aspects of the instructional methods that contribute to positive training transfer, such as the use of examples and the use of simulation-based training, using diversified instructional tools (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Garavaglia, 1993). Some researchers (Gopher, et al., 1994) studied the viability of computer games for training for complex tasks. They tested the skill transfer observed between a computer game and the flight performance of cadets in the Israeli Air Force flight school. By comparing the flight performance of two groups of cadets, one which participated in computer game training and one which did not, they demonstrated that the group which amassed computer game experience performed substantially better in test flights than their peers with no game experience.

The main research in training design is Lim's (2000) study. The research sample was from the SK group (the fourth biggest conglomerate in South Korea) and included employees from different levels who attended the HR program in the University of Illinois. The research findings shed light on several training design dimensions that, in the trainees' opinion, prevented transfer of training. These dimensions included insufficient exercises, poor clarification of technical terminology, insufficient computer time and ineffective visits to the industries. According to the trainees, the dimensions that did contribute to positive transfer were the trainer's moral involvement, the presentation of a wide scope of examples related to

the learned topic, team work, useful background papers, participation in lectures, and the use of different frontal instruction methods. The presentation of examples related to the learned topic finds learning literature to indicate that teaching both correct and negative or incorrect examples of a skill or concept facilitates training transfer (Parry & Reich, 1984; Kelly et al., 1985).

The findings were not confirmed by interviews in which subjects stated that training should be thoroughly prepared, both in terms of the instructional methods, as well as the content, and that successful training indeed facilitates positive results, improving functioning and leading to better service.

5.2.7 Hypothesis 7 – MTIWL will be positively related to transfer of training.

- Motivation to learn and motivation to transfer will be positively related to the transfer of training.

Research hypothesis 7 was supported as a significant positive correlation between the variables and most of dimensions were found:

$$r = .212 \quad p < 0.005 \quad r^2 = 4\%.$$

Additionally, a high significant correlation between motivation to learn and transfer of training was found, while a moderate positive correlation between motivation to transfer and transfer of training was found.

The average score received for the MTIWL variable was 3.33 on a scale of 5, while the average score for the transfer of training was 3.20 on a scale of 5. This finding indicates that respondents perceived MTIWL, as well as the transfer of training, as higher than average.

In addition, the finding indicates that the MTIWL variable can positively influence the transfer of training significantly.

The finding shows similar corroboration with previous research. Gregoire et al. (1998) emphasize the critical impact of motivation on the process of the transfer of training, earmarking motivation as a crucial factor on trainees' attitudes during three phases of the training process – pre-training, actual training and post-training. If motivation is lost during any of these phases, transfer will not occur.

Some scholars argue that extrinsic (pay and promotion) and intrinsic (self-esteem, sense of accomplishment, feeling of development of special talents) motivation factors have an impact on the transfer of training (Rouiller & Goldstein 1993; Santos & Stuart, 2003; Taylor et al., 2005). Others emphasize that intrinsic motivation factors have more influence on the transfer of training (Kontoghiorghes 2001). However, Taylor et al. (2005) assert that the extrinsic components have more influence on transfer outcomes.

5.3 DISCUSSION ON ADDITIONAL FINDINGS

Beyond those findings, two additional tests were performed. The first, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (z) test, to measure whether the mediating variable (MTIWL) functioned as a significant mediator between the independent variables (trainee characteristics, work environment and training design) and the dependent variable (transfer of training).

The test showed that the mediating variable was not a significant one. However, this result can be explained by the fact that MTIWL was measured in two different situations and times, measuring two inherently different parameters – motivation to learn, which received above-average scores from most of the respondents, and motivation to transfer, which received lower scores.

Too often, the absence of a relationship between variables has been interpreted as a failure of the research model when instrumentation was the real problem (Carson & Badian, 1994). The researcher assumes that this situation might explain the fact that MTIWL was not found to be a mediating factor.

The second test performed was the Two-Tailed t Test. In most cases, the results did not indicate significant differences between the respondents' demographic variables and the research variables, with the exception of six results in which significant differences were found:

Trainee characteristics:

- Significant differences between those with up to 8 years of seniority and those above 8 years of seniority were found.
- Significant differences between those up to 40 years of age and those above 40 years of age were found.

Transfer of training:

- Significant differences between males and females were found.
- Significant differences between those with up to 8 years of seniority and those with above 8 years of seniority were found.
- Significant differences between those up to 40 years of age and those above 40 years of age were found.
- Significant differences were found between those with up to 12 years of education and those with more than 12 years of education were found.

6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND THE RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

Local authorities in many countries experience fiscal and financial difficulties, making it a worldwide phenomenon. This phenomenon did not skip the local authorities in Israel that are suffering from serious ongoing fiscal and financial distress, with many of them in a dire economic state. This acute situation is embedded with a continuous cut off in workforce. This situation is a serious obstacle to their ability to deliver an increasing volume of services, i.e., inability to meet constituents' needs and demands for high - quality public services. The research question posed in this research was : How can the local authorities in Israel, which are fiscally distressed and are suffering from workforce cut offs, improve performance and meet the complex challenge of creating and delivering sustainable public value by leveraging workforce training and its transfer to work settings?.This research suggested the transfer of training as a process that contributes to leverage individual and organizational performance of the local authorities in Israel. The theoretical background review showed that the transfer of training is a complex process influenced by numerous personal and organizational factors and revealed the paucity of research dealing with the application of training to the workplace and the lack of a comprehensive research combining numerous factors. The present research aimed to fill the void and hence focused on the examination of relationships between personal characteristics, work environment, training design, MTIWL and transfer of training. The respondents scored on all the factors higher than average. Surprisingly, no correlation was found between trainee characteristics, work environment, training design and training transfer. Correlation was found between trainee characteristics, work environment and MTIWL and between MTIWL and training transfer. The results did not indicate significant differences between the respondents' demographic variables and the research variables, with the exception of six cases as discussed in the conclusions section.

In the following chapters the main conclusions of the research are presented. Based on the preceding analyses and overview of results, the recommendations are derived to answer the research question and are designated to the achievement of the research goals. Additionally, several research limitations are delineated and guidelines for future research are suggested.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusions of this research are as follows:

- The findings of this research showed that the respondents had perceptions regarding all factors that claimed to influence the transfer of training, at a level higher than average (Table 46). The conclusion drawn from this finding is that the examined constructs, including training transfer, were perceived as important while work environment was perceived as the most significant.
- Somewhat unexpectedly, no support was found for the influence of trainee personal characteristics, work environment and training design on training transfer. Regarding the transfer research, Cheng and Hampson (2008, p. 334), emphasize that "inconsistent and unexpected findings have often disappointed researchers and training practitioners". Furthermore, Blume et al. (2010, p.1089), described the transfer research as having "remained characterized by mix findings". These findings are consistent with the reality that although several researchers identified the factors that are the most critical for transfer, conclusions regarding the key components of transfer remain somewhat ambivalent. Probable reason for these findings may be the lack of homogeneity of three different trainee groups with respect to how trainees may apply of the learned KSAs in the job. Despite those findings, influence of MTIWL on training transfer was found. This finding strengthens the perception that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. Trainees' motivations have influence on cognitive engagement which in turn influences the transfer of training (Pugh & Bergin, 2006). Additionally, trainee characteristics and work environment were found as predictors of MTIWL. These findings convey to the conclusion that motivation plays a central and crucial role in training transfer since eventually the trainees are those to decide whether to transfer or not, and even how much knowledge, skills and abilities they are ready to transfer ,while factors related to organization and person contribute to leverage the individual's motivation level.
- MTIWL was not found to be a mediator between trainee characteristics, work environment, training design and transfer of training although a positive correlation between MTIWL and

transfer of training was found. However, the explanation may lie in the fact that MTIWL was measured in two different situations and times, measuring two inherently different components: motivation to learn; a more frequently assessed and a component including general characteristics and unlikely, motivation to transfer which is more directly related to the transfer process.

- The Two – Tailed t Tests showed that, in most of the cases, the results did not indicate significant differences between the respondents' demographic variables and the research variables, with the exception of six cases:

- A significant difference was found in the perceptions of respondents regarding trainee characteristics between those with less than eight years of seniority and those with more than eight years of seniority. Respondents with more than eight years of seniority perceived trainee characteristics at a higher level than those with less than eight years of seniority. The probable explanation for this finding may be that self-esteem, self-efficacy, and locus of control are related to work experience and hence people with greater seniority perceive those constructs as more important than those with less seniority who have less work experience in the present work setting. Generally, as people have greater seniority in the workplace their commitment increases.

- A significant difference was found in the perceptions of respondents more than 40 years of age and those less than 40 years of age regarding trainee characteristics. Respondents older than 40 years of age perceived trainee characteristics at a higher level than the younger respondents. The probable explanation to this finding may be that as people get older and remain in their organizations; their commitment increases, probably because alternative employment opportunities diminish for them and because commitment may be a successful strategy in getting along. In addition, as persons grow older, gain more experience, and rely on generalized experiences their internal locus of control strengthens. Internality tends to increase with age.

Older people perceive self-esteem higher than young because part of it originates in personal experiences. Individuals who come to feel efficacious and competent, as derived from their experience, come to hold positive images of them, while the experience of failure will have the opposite effect and convey a low level of self-esteem.

- A significant difference was found in the male and female perceptions of transfer of training. The females perceived transfer of training higher than the males. This finding may be explained by non equal opportunities that females experience in workplaces and thus their perception training and its transfer as a tool that can leverage female performance in the workplace and thus reduce discrimination.

- A significant difference was found in the perceptions of respondents with less than eight years of seniority and of those with more than eight years of seniority regarding transfer of training. Respondents with more than eight years of seniority perceived training transfer at a higher level than those with less than eight years of seniority. This finding is interesting because respondents with less seniority would be expected to perceive the transfer of knowledge, skills and abilities obtained in training as tools that may enable them to leverage their contribution to the organization and thus improve their position. The probable explanation to this finding may be that people with more seniority, on average, have more experience regarding the importance of training.

- A significant difference was found in the perceptions of respondents more than 40 years of age and of those less than 40 years of age regarding transfer of training. Respondents more than 40 years of age perceived the transfer of training at a higher level than the younger respondents. The probable explanation to this finding may be that, on average, younger people are more open, creative, innovative, entrepreneurial, risk-tolerant and imaginative in their approach to problem-solving than older people. They are more enthusiastic users of information technology and have the required skills to take advantage of the benefits that those technologies can provide. Older people perceive training as the main source to obtain new skills, knowledge and abilities; that may improve their performance at work.

- A significant difference was found in the perceptions of respondents with up to 12 years of age and of those with more than 12 years of education regarding transfer of training. Respondents with less than 12 years education perceived training transfer at a higher level than those with more than 12 years of education. This finding may be explained by respondents with less education relating greater importance to the transfer of knowledge, skills and abilities obtained in training as a tool that may close the gap between them and their peers with higher formal education and convey them to more equity in opportunities. Furthermore, the researcher posits that individuals with higher education tend to relate less importance to workplace training and perceive it as less important than formal education.

The conclusion drawn from The Two – Tailed t Tests is that respondents' perceptions the research variables were, in most cases, similar and that the answers received are reliable and coherent when compared with the respondents' demographic composition.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, some recommendations that are supported by the results of the empirical research are given. Based on the preceding analyses and overview of results, the recommendations are derived to answer the research question and are designated to the achievement of the research goals.

- *Motivation to improve work through learning* was scored by the respondents as being above average, a finding leading to the conclusion that they perceived this construct to be important in leveraging their performance. Moreover, the research results point to the impact of MTIWL on training transfer and its relationships with trainee characteristics and the work environment.

Based on these findings, the researcher opines that some recommendations should be made to increase employee motivation to improve performance by transferring new skills, abilities and knowledge to work settings. In an environment where the citizens are said to be increasingly demanding of high quality services but doubtful about the ability of local authorities to deliver them, there is a necessity to tap the employees' minds and to help them to see the rationale in the need to leverage their skills, knowledge and abilities to provide an efficient delivery system of services. It is a psychological fact that employees need to be appreciated and compensated accordingly. A way to do it is to instill motivation that will usually result in increased responsibility and productivity. A motivated workforce will benefit the local authorities in terms of reduced absenteeism, increased levels of employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, responsibility and the continuous will to improve performance by training. These can then be translated into a higher quality of services and increased customer satisfaction.

While the presence of financial reward may not be a good motivator, its absence is a strong reducer of motivation. A systemic reality in Israel's local authorities is the low wages which are, at best, sufficient to live off. They are not competitive with the private sector and often not with other institutions in the public sector. Wages are too compressed, not reflecting the skills, training and seniority of management positions compared to low-paid jobs. Additionally, non-monetary compensation plays a major role in local authorities in Israel which are mostly realized after retirement. Furthermore, modification of the compensation structure implemented following training in the local authorities should be considered, by converting the present

automatic compensation system based on hours of participation in training to one based on "personal contribution-based rewards". This would increase transfer and productivity. Since the researcher is well aware of the problems that may occur in the implementation of this step in local authorities, it can be first implemented as an added bonus to automatic compensation already given relative for training hours. This would be a sign of appreciation for unique individual contribution to the organization.

Reasons for introducing performance-related pay (PRP) policies in the local authority sector are diverse. The main rationale for establishing performance pay policies is to improve performance and motivation of managers or employees. This objective is coupled with the need to provide the local authorities with greater flexibility to recognize and reward individual or team performance contributions. The introduction of PRP at the employee level is also a way to forge a closer link between individual job goals and organizational goals. Another reason for introducing performance-related pay policies is the need for the local authorities to be able to attract and retain talent currently being rewarded for performance in the private sector. This is especially important in the context of an increasing gap in pay differential between high-skill workers in the private and public sector, which constitutes a serious threat for the recruitment of high quality employees in the local authorities.

This recommendation is supported by the relevant theoretical background. Transfer rewards have been acknowledged for their impact on employee motivation to achieve goals (Cheng, 2000). Adam's Theory of Equity (1965) explains that employees strive for equity with peers in the workplace and that this equity is achieved when the ratio between employee input and outcome is equal to that of another employee. Performance-related pay can be a tool that enables ongoing performance improvement as employees will strive to gain an equal ratio to their peers and aim to benchmark the patterns of success of others. Furthermore, this course of action may lead to a situation in which other employees will be motivated and aspire to achieve equity by improving their performance through participation in training and implementing the KSAs in a work setting.

While money is one of the proven ways to motivate employees, there are also other ways to encourage them to do their best. Non-monetary motivators such as goal setting, better communication, autonomy and flexibility at work are techniques that are geared toward personal recognition and satisfaction. Setting goals is a good way to define an employee's purpose in an organization and contributes to setting a standard for him to gauge his success.

Managers in local authorities must focus on an employee's success by demonstrating his performance in comparison to the goal, either privately or publicly. Furthermore, the process of goal-setting provides an invaluable opportunity for local authorities to strengthen the communications between employees and management. Improvement in the flow of communication can be a powerful tool in motivating employees in the local authorities and raises the trust between them and management. Trust leads to autonomy and encourages independence. Independence in work, coupled with good communications, will motivate the employee to think about the best ways to improve performance, to be more productive and responsible. To sum up, the local authorities should create a better combination, balance and structure of financial and non-monetary compensation to motivate their employees to improve work through learning. One of employees' basic human needs and emotional drives is the drive to acquire both tangible and intangible profits and organizations must satisfy those needs and drivers by reward systems. The reward systems should sharply differentiate good performers from average and poor performers and should be tied clearly to performance. This direction should be improved by the local authorities and strongly supported by the government in Israel by changing the compensation system from one based not only on hours of training of an employee but also on the productivity.

- In this study *trainee characteristics* were found to influence MTIWL and were scored slightly above average. Based on those findings some recommendations should be made in order to enhance and leverage employee perceptions regarding this construct and its dimensions. Low *self-efficacy* can lead people to believe tasks are harder than they actually are. This often results in a low level of motivation to try to improve performance, and to the belief that training contributes to achieving this improvement. Employees with high self-efficacy often take a broader overview of a task in order to take the best route of action. People with high self-efficacy are shown to be encouraged by obstacles to make a greater effort. Self-efficacy, being a situation of self-confidence, is enhanced when the perception of self is increased.

A self-fulfilling prophecy occurs when expectations cause behaviors that support the original expectations. Any time expectations are fulfilled, individuals gain a sense of accomplishment. Accomplishment leads to enhanced feelings of self-worth, building on situation-specific self-efficacy. This cycle ultimately fosters motivation for the individual. After concluding that a high level of self-efficacy helps with motivation it is recommended that the local authorities need to concentrate on developing higher levels of self-efficacy among their employees. They

can begin by gaining full appreciation of differences among employees such as achievement-orientation levels, personal values, and intrinsic motivators. Additionally, understanding motivation theories, such as expectancy, equity and goal-setting, is critical because they can be utilized to achieve a high level of self-efficacy. Furthermore, they can incorporate situational approaches, the operant approach and empowerment, because they have an opportunity to make a difference by changing the situation. With the operant approach, leaders can enhance the situation by giving clear directives and expectations, providing effective consequences, assessing effective rewards and maintaining perceptual equality. Empowerment generates responsibility and a sense of accomplishment by providing individual perceived ownership, which in turn creates internal motivation to succeed. Lastly, effective communication and feedback can help employees to raise their self-image by letting them know that they have value, and motivating them to acquire new skills, abilities and knowledge in training. Such a belief that they are appreciated ultimately builds self-confidence. Providing positive feedback to the transfer of skills, knowledge and abilities builds situational self-efficacy. The importance of goal-setting, communication and feedback is supported by a quote made during interviews conducted in this research:

"The assistants are not reimbursed in accordance with improvement in functioning stemming from training. Measures which may improve motivation to learn and to improve work include supervisors displaying interest in employee training and presenting opportunities to apply lessons learned. The kindergarten supervisor must provide the assistant with the feeling that she is expected to improve her functioning following training".

In an interview conducted with a water and sewage engineer supervisor, the researcher was told that,

“As supervisors increasingly stress the acquisition of knowledge and skills by training, encourage its application at work and institute a learning environment in the organization, motivation to learn and to apply training will also increase. Aggressive management and lack of communication between the management and the lower ranks in Israeli local authorities decrease motivation as well as training implementation".

The researcher posits that *organizational commitment* is a joint product of organizational culture and individual characteristics, and a predictor of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This was tested empirically by Moon (2000) using data collected from public and private organizations in the Syracuse and Albany, New York, areas. Statistical results support that

intrinsic motivation factors are more significantly associated with organizational commitment than extrinsic motivation factors in the public sector. The researcher recommends that the local authorities should strengthen the organizational commitment of their employees by empowerment, autonomy, clear goal-setting and positive feedback to improved performance. This would leverage the affective, continuance and normative commitments as described in the theoretical background of this study.

The researcher, consistent with Colquitt et al. (2000), posits that those with an internal *locus of control* are more motivated to learn. Based on this perception, it is recommended that the local authorities promote change in employee beliefs that the outcomes of their actions are generated by uncontrollable external forces. Similar to employees in other institutions in the public sector in Israel, local authorities' employees believe that their status and career in the organization depend on external forces originating within it. In order to strengthen the internal locus of control, local authorities must emphasize that, in the new era, the "psychological contract" between the employee and the organization urges the responsibility of the former for his career and future in work. He should, furthermore, improve his performance by obtaining new skills, knowledge and abilities in order to develop his career and leverage his perceived value.

Self-esteem is required for motivation. The role of self esteem, or more specifically the self-esteem we feel about ourselves in specific fields, is ingrained in motivation to pursue values in that field. Self-esteem is an outcome of confidence. When an employee succeeds in implementing training in work and is compensated for it, his confidence is reinforced and his self-esteem and motivation to do so in the future are strengthened. Self-esteem is both a requirement for motivation and a reward for action. The local authorities must leverage employees' self-esteem by emphasizing their value in the organization and their unique contribution to improving public services, and compensate them accordingly. The feeling among majority of the employees that they are not appreciated for improved performance results in low self-esteem and lower motivation.

Although, the above-mentioned recommendations regarding trainee characteristics should be implemented in all jobs and at all levels, based on the research results, employees with less than eight years of seniority and those less than 40 years of age should receive special care.

-*The work environment* was scored highest among the research variables. Several recommendations in its regard and dimensions should be made as the construct was perceived as the most important construct and found to have an impact on MTIWL.

Regarding *supervisory support*, the application of numerous motivation theories in training management of the local authorities may contribute to increased employee motivation and thus to leveraging their productivity. First, the application of goal-setting theory may increase a supervisor's ability to design training objectives that meet employees' needs and provide clear explanations about the ways of achieving the goals. This may strongly increase employees' motivation to improve work through learning. Second, the application of Adam's (1965) Equity Theory in training management among the local authorities may lead to a situation in which employees who receive support and recognition from their supervisors, while attending and applying training, will perceive equity. Employees who feel that they are fairly treated and supported by their supervisors will invoke their motivation to learn, which, in turn, may lead to an increase in performance and productivity. Finally, application of Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory may contribute to the ability of a supervisor to open communications with his employees regarding the value of attending training and the need and importance of learning new competencies. He may thus increase employee motivation to improve work through learning and, as a result, lead to improved performance. Additionally, regarding peer support, the application of motivation theories in training management of the local authorities may contribute to increasing employee motivation and thus to leveraging their productivity.

Maslow (1943) views the need for love and belonging as a step toward achievement in his hierarchy of motivation model. In this view, the deprivation of more basic needs hinders progress along the path to achievement. According to this model, individuals must have issues of love and belonging satisfied in order to address needs of achievement. The ability to learn is built on a foundation of comfortable relationships with coworkers. The Expectancy Theory defines motivation as the product of the amount of success in a task that an individual expects to earn multiplied by the amount of value the individual places on the task. Thus, a task whose individual values and in which he expects to be successful will be motivating compared to a task with lower expected success or value. Whereas past experience can predict the expectancy aspect of this, the value placed on the task is mediated more by outside factors, such as peers. Numerous motivational theories include the incentive or rewarding aspects of motivation, which may also stem from relationships with others. If the local authorities can manage to create a work environment that strongly encourages *peer support* for education and learning, then the individual will value learning because he is reinforced, or rewarded, for behavior that indicates learning is valued. Employees in peer groups, that do not value education, lack the stimulation and reinforcement needed to encourage personal learning.

Motivation to learn is directly related to the extent to which training participants believe that such participation will affect their job or *career utility*. In other words, if the body of knowledge gained can contribute to the work to be accomplished, then the acquisition of that knowledge will be a worthwhile event for the employee and employer. The local authorities must emphasize strongly the role that personal development through learning plays in achieving personal goals such as promotion and to make serious steps to support and realize those declarations by promoting employees according to their contribution to the organization and not only according to their seniority. Furthermore, the local authorities must make it very clear that they expect their employees to implement that which they learned and signal that they hold them responsible to do so. These expectations should be well known among the workers. This step may increase the degree of *training accountability* and, in turn, increase motivation to improve work through learning in order to meet the organizational expectations and thus to increase their possibilities of gaining higher status and compensation. Paying close attention to the *opportunity to apply* such by allocating more time and resources will heighten local authorities' employee motivation to practice their newly earned skills and hence improve workplace productivity. Additionally, if the body of skills, knowledge and abilities gained can be applied to the work to be accomplished, then the acquisition of that knowledge will be worthwhile for the employee and he will be motivated to learn.

6.4 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations in this study that should be delineated:

- As the employees in local authorities have a large spectrum of jobs and the aim of this research was to build a sample representing most of the occupations; the research relied on a sample of three different groups (clusters). As such, three different questionnaires were constructed in order to measure the degree to which the respondents implemented training. Additionally, the tendency of individuals within a cluster is to have similar characteristics and with a cluster sample, there is a probability that the researcher can have an overrepresented or underrepresented cluster which can skew the results of the research.
- Data was collected from a sample consisting of three different groups working in different and a large number of local authorities; this may impair the ability to generalize the findings .
- In order to match the questionnaires for data analysis, they were not anonymous. This may have impaired respondent motivation to accurately respond, reducing a larger sample. Fear of

responders being observed by supervisors may have led to some respondents modifying answers .

- As the research basis was descriptive, even in cases where the hypothesis was supported, it is impossible to infer a causal relationship between variables instead of merely highlighting a statistical relationship between them .

- Respondents may have also made modified answers in order to not be perceived as disagreeing with social norms. This could lead to diversions in the findings and conclusions .

- A number of possible limitations stemming from the subjects may have been in place as well, including: insufficient motivation, lack of interest, lack of cooperation, lack of obligation towards the researcher, no vested interest in the study, suspicion, fatigue, attempts to please the researcher, "escaping" towards the middle of the scale – particularly towards positive sides of the scale (agree, strongly agree), shame, anxiety and the halo effect .

- Lack of question clarity (vague phrasing, negations, different aspects of the same question, reverse questions) may have stemmed from the questionnaire. In addition, as the questions were closed ones, respondents had limited possible responses, which may have prevented a wider range of answers .

- The form of study conducted (survey) focuses on and isolates a specific question and issue. As such, possible related explanations may be missed due to the lack of an over-arching perspective .

This research took a number of measures to reduce limitations in effort to increase validity. The researcher was careful to avoid imparting to the respondents a specific viewpoint, left the exact purpose of the study intentionally vague, in order to prevent respondents from providing self-fulfilling answers, and preserved a pleasant environment. Attempts were made to ensure anonymity and to ameliorate social desirability. Five individuals who did not participate in the study were displayed the questions in order to receive feedback on the question clarity, leading to changes in question phrasing. In questionnaires focusing on knowledge imparted during training, the questions were created in full cooperation with the trainers in each class, relying on professional terminology, in order to ensure accuracy .

7. DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study adds to the existing research in the implementation of the KSAs acquired in training to workplace and its role to improve performance and hopes to stimulate further research. Nevertheless, its findings should be interpreted with caution.

Surprisingly, no correlations were found between trainee characteristics, work environment, training design and transfer of training although they were scored higher than average by the respondents. Those findings contradict the results of previous research that did not examine integrated relationships between numerous factors and their dimensions. The research results mostly contradicted the interviews that were conducted with managers in the local authorities in Israel. The outcomes of the interviews supported mostly the research hypotheses. For those reasons, the researcher recommends to conduct further research combining the same constructs. It may be interesting to observe whether the research results can be confirmed within comparable organizational settings. In addition, the homogeneity of the trainee groups with respect to how trainees may apply of the learned KSA in the job could be an interesting research point. Furthermore, this research did not incorporate all possible sets of factors that could, directly or indirectly, influence transfer of training. Constructs that were not examined in this research should be assessed as well, as they may provide additional information regarding the implementation of knowledge, skills and abilities achieved in workplace. Possible directions include workplace satisfaction, internal and external compensation, lateral, vertical and diagonal communication in workplace, management styles and other issues pertaining to personal characteristics.

Future research may examine the mediating effect of MTIWL on the relationship between trainee characteristics, work environment, training design and transfer of training. It may be interesting since, in the present research, no mediating effect was found although relationships between trainee characteristics, work environment and MTIWL in one hand and between MTIWL and transfer of training on the other, were found.

Since fiscal crises and workforce cut offs are not unique to local government in Israel, an extension of this research to a cross – national study would serve to generate further insight into the factors effecting training transfer as a suggested course of action to deliver utmost public value to the residents.

Finally, a further research direction is that training transfer could be measured within training programs that differ in their instructional methods.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

THE FIRST QUESTIONNAIRE

Name and surname: -----

	STATEMENT	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4	5
3	* I feel I do not have much to be proud of. ®	1	2	3	4	5
4	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	1	2	3	4	5
6	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
7	*I feel very little loyalty to this organization. ®	1	2	3	4	5
8	For me this is the best possible organization for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10	A job is what you make of it.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.	1	2	3	4	5

Note. ® Indicates that the item is reverse scored.

Background information:

* How many years are you working in your organization? ----- Years

* Age ----- * Gender: Male----- Female-----

* Education Up to 12 years ----- 15 years ----- Above 15 years -----

Appendix 2

THE SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE

Name and surname: -----

Note. ® indicates the item is reverse scored.

	STATEMENT	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My supervisor meets with me to discuss ways to apply training on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My supervisor meets regularly with me to work on problems I may be having in trying to use my training.	1	2	3	4	5
3	* My supervisor thinks I am being ineffective when I use the techniques taught in training. ®	1	2	3	4	5
4	*My supervisor does not seem to care whether I use my training or not. ®	1	2	3	4	5
5	My supervisor perceives employee development as an important aspect of his job.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My supervisor provides me with the time I need to practice the skills learned in training.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My supervisor provides me with constant reminders how to apply the acquired skills.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My colleagues encourage me to use the skills I learned in training.	1	2	3	4	5
9	My colleagues have the technical knowledge to help me to use the techniques learned in training.	1	2	3	4	5
10	My peers care about my application of new knowledge on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I can accomplish the job tasks better by using new knowledge acquired from training courses.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Successful completion of this training course will help me to produce higher quality work.	1	2	3	4	5
13	The knowledge and experience I gain in this training may advance my career.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Participation in training programs will increase my chances to achieve promotion	1	2	3	4	5
15	Procedures and working patterns in my workplace enable utmost implementation of the learned in training courses.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Even if I learn well; there are no means (computers, hardware, instruments) to implement the learned in training courses in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The nature and content of my job enable me to express the learned in a training course.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 3

THE THIRD QUESTIONNAIRE

Name and surname: -----

	STATEMENT	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly agree
1	The training content was relevant to my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The training enriched my knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The training content will contribute to improve my performance at work.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The training met my expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The time planning and the time utilization satisfied me.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Various training accessories were used during the training.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The instructors were well prepared.	1	2	3	4	5
8	The instructors were familiar with the topics.	1	2	3	4	5
9	A large spectrum of examples was provided.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The instructors encouraged and supported trainees' active participation during the training course.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 4 - (WATER SUPPLY AND CANALIZATION ENGINEERS/ INSPECTORS TRAINING COURSE)

THE FORTH QUESTIONAIRE

Name and surname: -----

	QUESTION	I don't implement at all				I fully implement
1	To which extent do you implement the learned on "supervision on the execution of other infrastructures"?	1	2	3	4	5
2	To which extent do you implement the learned on "land in local authorities"?	1	2	3	4	5
3	To which extent the juridical aspects of engineer's professional responsibility as learned in the course are applicable?	1	2	3	4	5
4	To which extent do you implement the learned on "Building internal canalization infrastructure"?	1	2	3	4	5
5	To which extent do you implement the learned on "cathodic protection"?	1	2	3	4	5
6	To which extent do you implement the learned on " sanitary demands for placing water pipes"?	1	2	3	4	5
7	To which extent do you implement the learned on " water pipes and canalization suitability checking methods to standard demands"?	1	2	3	4	5
8	To which extent do you implement the learned on " valves, pressure decreasing equipment and other instruments"?	1	2	3	4	5
9	To which extent do you implement the learned on " pressure gauges installation methods"?	1	2	3	4	5
10	To which extent do you predict to implement the course content in the future?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 5 - (PORCUREMENT OFFICERS TRAINING COURSE)

THE FORTH QUESTIONNAIRE

Name and surname: -----

	QUESTION	I don't implement at all				I fully implemen t
1	To which extent do you implement the learned on "auctions / tenders methods"?	1	2	3	4	5
2	To which extent do you implement the learned on "changes and modifications in tender terms"?	1	2	3	4	5
3	To which extent do you implement the learned on "estimations used in evaluation of proposals"?	1	2	3	4	5
4	To which extent do you implement the learned on "criteria for evaluation of proposals"?	1	2	3	4	5
5	To which extent do you implement the learned on "threshold conditions"?	1	2	3	4	5
6	To which extent do you implement the learned on "guarantees provided by the suppliers"?	1	2	3	4	5
7	To which extent do you implement the learned on "preparation of technical specifications"?	1	2	3	4	5
8	To which extent do you implement the learned on "payment conditions"?	1	2	3	4	5
9	To which extent do you implement the learned on "demands from the potential suppliers in RFPs"?	1	2	3	4	5
10	To which extent do you predict to implement the course content in the future?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 6 - (ASSISTANS TO KINDERGARTEN PRINCIPALS TRAINING COURSE)

THE FOURTH QUESTIONAIRRE

Name and surname: -----

	QUESTION	I don't implement at all				I fully implement
1	To which extent do you implement the learned on "the kindergarten principal assistant's role"	1	2	3	4	5
2	To which extent do you implement the learned on "first impression "	1	2	3	4	5
3	To which extent do you implement the learned on "different impacts of different colors"?	1	2	3	4	5
4	To which extent do you implement the learned on "adaption of clothing to the body"?	1	2	3	4	5
5	To which extent do you implement the learned on "capability to notice personal characteristics according to clothing"?	1	2	3	4	5
6	To which extent do you implement the learned on "team work "?	1	2	3	4	5
7	To which extent do you implement the learned on "interpersonal communication in the kindergarten"?	1	2	3	4	5
8	To which extent do you predict to implement the topics of - <i>the fantasy</i> – play as learned in the theater workshop?	1	2	3	4	5
9	To which extent do you implement the learned in the theater workshop?	1	2	3	4	5
10	To which extent do you predict to implement the course content in the future?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 7

THE FIFTH QUESTIONNAIRE

Name and surname: -----

Remark: Please respond to statements 1 - 4 in the opening session of the course and statements 5 - 7 at the end of the course.

	STATEMENT	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Indifferent	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I have a strong desire to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I will never be too old to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I look forward to actively participate in training.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I try to learn as much as I can from training programs.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Before attending the training programs, I usually consider how I will use the content of the program.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I plan to use what I learned on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I believe that the transfer of the knowledge achieved in training to workplace will contribute to improve my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 8

INTERVIEWS – GUIDING QUESTIONS

1. Based on your experience, do you opine that the following factors have any influence on the implementation of learned in work setting?. Please describe:

- Self – esteem;
- Self – efficacy;
- Organizational commitment;
- Work locus of control.

2. Based on your experience, do you think that the following factors have any influence on the implementation of learned in work setting?. Please describe:

- Supervisory support;
- Peer support;
- Training accountability;
- Career utility;
- Opportunity to apply learned in work setting.

3. Do the instruction methods and the training content have any effect on the implementation of learned in work setting?. Please describe.

4. Based on your experience, do you think that motivation to learn and transfer have any influence on the implementation of learned in work setting?. Please describe.

5. Do the instruction methods and the training content have any effect on the motivation to transfer learned to work setting?. Please describe.

6. Based on your experience, do you think that the following factors have any influence on the motivation to improve work through learning?. Please describe:

- Supervisory support;
- Peer support;

- Training accountability;
- Career utility;
- Opportunity to apply learned in work setting.

7. Based on your experience, do you think that the following factors have any influence on the motivation to improve work through learning?. Please describe:

- Self – esteem;
- Self – efficacy;
- Organizational commitment;
- Work locus of control.