

THE MODERATING EFFECT OF TRANSFER CLIMATE ON THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINEES PERSONALITY
AND TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS

YIP FOON YEE

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Dedicated to my grandmother, Lee Soon Kham, my parents, Yip Chuang Ming and Chen Kim Hou , my family members and Skudai Joy Gospel Chapel 's members.

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ABSTRACT

Training is a vital contributor to employees' and organizational success. Many organizations have invested large amounts of money to provide training, but few have examined the effectiveness of training programs. Based on literature reviewed, there is limited research conducted on the moderating effect of transfer climate on training effectiveness. This study investigated the moderating effect of transfer climate on the relationship between trainees' personality and training effectiveness. The respondents were one hundred and eighty-three police officers who participated in the selection of a driving training program offered by Maktab Teknik Polis Diraja Malaysia, Muar. Three sets of questionnaires comprising Big Five Personality inventory, transfer climate scale and training effectiveness (driving knowledge test and driving competency) were distributed to the respondents during pre-training, post-training and after two months of training. The data were analyzed using statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 19.0 and SmartPLS 3.0. The findings showed that two of the personality traits, extraversion and neuroticism were significantly related to driving knowledge which is one of the training effectiveness variables. On the other hand, three personality constructs i.e, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience were significantly related to driving competency which is a training effectiveness variable. For the moderation effect of the transfer climate, only one variable opportunity to use, had negatively moderated the relationship between trainees' personality such as conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience with driving competency. The findings of the present study would allow practitioners to understand different personality traits that have a maximum impact on training transfer under certain transfer climates. Besides that, the research explored and discovered 'opportunity to use' as potential moderator in the training effectiveness research.

ABSTRAK

Latihan adalah penyumbang utama kepada kejayaan pekerja dan organisasi. Banyak organisasi telah melabur sejumlah wang yang besar untuk menyediakan latihan, namun hanya sedikit yang mengkaji keberkesanan ke atas program latihan. Berdasarkan semakan literatur, terdapat penyelidikan yang terhad dilakukan ke atas iklim pemindahan terhadap keberkesanan latihan. Kajian ini mengkaji kesan penyederhanaan iklim pemindahan terhadap hubungan antara personaliti pelatih dan keberkesanan latihan. Responden terdiri daripada satu ratus lapan puluh tiga orang pegawai polis yang mengambil bahagian dalam pemilihan program latihan memandu yang ditawarkan oleh Maktab Teknik Polis Diraja Malaysia, Muar. Sebanyak tiga set soal selidik yang mengandungi inventori Personaliti Lima Faktor, skala iklim pemindahan dan keberkesanan latihan (ujian pengetahuan pemanduan dan kecekapan pemanduan) telah diedarkan kepada responden semasa pra latihan, pasca latihan dan selepas dua bulan latihan. Data dianalisis menggunakan pakej statistik untuk sains sosial (SPSS) versi 19.0 dan SmartPLS 3.0. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa dua daripada trait personaliti, ekstraversi dan neurotisisme, secara signifikan mempunyai hubungan dengan pengetahuan pemanduan yang merupakan salah satu pembolehubah keberkesanan latihan. Sebaliknya, tiga konstruk personaliti iaitu kehematan, kebersetujuan dan keterbukaan pengalaman adalah berkait secara signifikan dengan kecekapan pemanduan yang merupakan pembolehubah keberkesanan latihan. Bagi kesan penyederhanaan iklim pemindahan, hanya satu pembolehubah, peluang untuk menggunakan, telah menyederhanakan secara negatif hubungan antara personaliti pelatih seperti kehematan, kebersetujuan dan keterbukaan terhadap pengalaman dengan kecekapan pemanduan. Dapatan kajian ini akan membolehkan pengamal untuk memahami trait personaliti yang berbeza yang mempunyai impak maksimum ke atas pemindahan latihan di bawah iklim pemindahan tertentu. Selain itu, kajian ini meneroka dan menemukan 'peluang untuk menggunakan' sebagai penyederhana yang berpotensi dalam penyelidikan keberkesanan latihan.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	-	Agree
BFI	-	Big Five Inventory
CW	-	Company's Agent
DA	-	Disagree
EQ	-	Emotional Intelligence
LTSI	-	Learning Transfer System Inventory
RMP		Royal Malaysia Police
MTPDRM	-	Maktab Teknik Polis Diraja Malaysia Muar
N	-	Neutral
SA	-	Strongly Agree
SDA	-	Strongly Disagree
Sig	-	Significant Value
SPSS	-	Statistical Packages for Social Science
SEM	-	Structural Equation Model
EFA	-	Exploratory Factor Analysis
CFA	-	Confirmation Factor Analysis
AVE	-	Average Variance Extracted
ML	-	Maximum Likelihood
PLS	-	Partial Least Square
CB-SEM	-	Co-variance Based Structural Equation Model
DSM	-	Determinant of Correlation Matrix
MSA	-	Measure of Sampling Adequacy as Per Diagonals of Anti-Image Matrices
KMO	-	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
BTS	-	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
CR	-	Composite reliability

LIST OF SYMBOLS

&	-	And
%	-	Percentage
α	-	Cronbach's Alpha
β	-	Beta coefficient
=	-	Equal to
\leq	-	smaller or equal to
N	-	Total
p	-	Significance Level
r	-	Correlation Coefficient
S	-	Sample Size
R^2	-	Coefficient of determination
*	-	Significance level less than 0.01
**	-	Significance level less than 0.05

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The workplace is an environment that is highly related to workers' productivity and quality in terms of problem-solving, decision making and quality control. Nowadays, the workplace has become a competitive environment full of global and domestic competition, rapid changes in technology and computerization and greater demand for time management. These changes necessitate the compulsion to regularly learn new skills, acquire new information and understand different processes (Furnham, 2005). Therefore, workplace training plays an important role in enhancing workers' productivity and quality. In a globalised and competitive business world, organizations are aware of training and employee development as useful tools for growth and business success. As the nature of work changes, employees are required to develop a wide, changeable set of skills that are essential to the success of their organization (Grossman & Salas, 2011). Training programs can be seen as an important tool to help individuals contribute to the organization and be successful in their current position (Fitzgerald, 1992). Training program provided by organizations can also provide a variety of benefits for both the organization and its employees (Elangovan & Leonard, 1999). Organizations gain through the improved performance and increased productivity that accompany employee development, while employees enjoy extrinsic and intrinsic rewards associated with skill development and performance improvement (Elangovan & Leonard, 1999; Noe, 2008).

Training and employee development are gaining increasing attention from organizations to the extent that they have become one of the main issues faced by human resource managers today (Stavrou, Brewster, & Charalambous, 2004). It is now common for many organizations to invest large amounts of money to effectively plan and implement programs for workers (Miller, 2014; "Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015," 2010).

According to Paradise and Patel (2009) most organizations understand the importance of training and thus spend a great amount of money on training programs. According to the American Society for Training and Development (Miller, 2014), American organizations are estimated to have spent roughly \$1,208 per employee on training and development in 2013. Canada organizations also spend an average of \$ 750 per employee on training and development in 2013-2013. Besides that, the report from tenth Malaysia plan ("Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015," 2010) stated that an allocation of RM50 million will be provided to continue the matching grants for training and skills-upgrading for employees in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). This represents the concern that American organizations and Malaysian organizations have in relation to training and developing their employees. However, studies done by Nalini and Rouiller & Goldstein (2009; 1993) found that the training effectiveness is low with most employees failing to transfer their knowledge to the workplace. It was further reported that only about 10% of what is learned in training is applied to the actual job. These findings present serious problems for organizations in terms of work efficiency. The same phenomenon holds true in Malaysia. According to Haslinda and Mahyuddin (2009), the government sector has spent large amount of money on training and development for the public sector. However, many grievances and complaints are still directed towards public sector employees for their ineffectiveness and inefficiency, and the number of complaints is still increasing. For example, complaints regarding public sector employees in 2007 totaled 5,347 cases while 2008 saw an increase of up to 33.7% (Haslinda & Mahyuddin, 2009). According to Azmar, Romle, and Ismail (2015), this scenario might be due to the workers' inability to perform their job due to their failure to transfer the skills and knowledge gained to their job effectively. It is therefore

important to investigate factors that influence the training effectiveness in organizations in Malaysia.

According to Noe (2008), training effectiveness can be defined as the extent to which training yields desired or relevant outcome. It provides exposure for workers and practitioners in their related fields, which enable them to expand their ability to utilize the knowledge, experiences, skills and behaviors learned during the training at the workplace. It is important because it emphasizes gradual and continuous development and improvement through learner's capability. The results can be seen over time in one's work performance, individual and community responsibilities as well as knowledge of coping with tasks and learning activities (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Noe, 2008; Saprin, 2006). Baldwin and Ford (1988) further describe transfer of training as the maintenance of skills, knowledge and attitudes over a certain period of time.

Previous research shows that the factors affecting training effectiveness can be divided into three categories as outlined by Baldwin and Ford (1988): characteristics of trainees, training design and work environment. Studies conducted on trainee characteristics showed that, they play a powerful role in training effectiveness (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010; Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005). Trainee characteristics can be classified as cognitive ability, motivation, self-efficacy, perceived utility of training, personality traits and job/career variables (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). It can also be defined as personality differences between trainees which can be useful in predicting performance at work (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998).

In the present study, researcher will focus on the relationship between personality characteristics and training effectiveness. Personality is a set of psychological traits and mechanisms within an individual that are organized and relatively enduring (Larsen & Buss, 2008). Personality traits are useful in explaining and predicting an individual's behavior because different people have different personality traits. Hogan (2005) states that the most important claim of personality psychology is that there are structures inside people that determine their behavior.

Organizational behavior such as job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Oakes, Ferris, Martocchio, Buckley, & Broach, 2001), recruitment (Alonzo, Paul, Thomas, Henry, & Joseph, 2008; Stephen, Nilakant, & Ross, 1994), leadership style (Ali, Nisar, & Raza, 2011; Brown & Michael, 2009; Eli, Brad, & Giles St, 2010; Rynetta, Charlotte, & Hubert, 2006) and training effectiveness (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000; Herold, Davis, Fedor, & Parsons, 2002; Tziner, Fisher, Senior, & Weisberg, 2007) can be predicted by personality variables. Since these studies showed that there are significant relationship between personality characteristic and organizational behavior, researcher should place more concern about personality characteristics in relation with training effectiveness.

Besides that, transfer climate also plays important role on training effectiveness. Several studies stated that influences within transfer climate may either enhance or inhibit training effectiveness to the job (Blume et al., 2010; Kontoghiorghes, 2001; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). For example, Tracey, Tannenbaum, and Kavanagh (1995) found that behaviors that send a message that learning and the application of learning are important and valued encourages the application of newly trained skills. It showed that transfer climate is critical for the application and maintenance of new skills on the job. The present study extended this research by examining the degree of which transfer climate moderates the relationship between trainees' personality and training effectiveness.

Previous researches examine the relationship between trainees' personality and training effectiveness which have not explored the potential moderating effects of transfer climate. Previous studies, researcher only focus on the effect of transfer climate on training effectiveness or the effect of trainees' personality on transfer training. Therefore, the role of transfer climate needs to be further investigated as a moderating variable in the relationship between personality and transfer of training. To date, there are limited study has been conducted on the moderating effects of transfer climate on both variables based on an extensive search of literature published from 1980 to May 2015. Besides that, the effect of police driving training

was conducted because majority of polices' duties involving driving in all kinds of weather and traffic condition. Moreover, statistics show that traffic crashes are the leading cause of on-duty deaths among police (Books, Wikipedia, & Group, 2011) .

1.1 Problem Statement

The police is a body of trained officers entrusted by the government to maintain public peace and order, enforce laws, as well as prevent and detect crime. Besides, the improvement and the rapid changes that have taken place in the country have further encouraged the police to attend training in order to increase their performance (Karp & Stenmark, 2011). Therefore, numerous training programs have been conducted for the Royal Malaysian Police (PDRM). Based on Pelan Strategik Lima Tahun PDRM ("Laporan Tahunan Polis Diraja Malaysia," 2008), PDRM had managed to train 60,000 police officers within five years, including training programs like police basis training, integrity training, driving training, police in-service training, police reporting system, crisis communication, crisis and disaster, investigation skill training, and emotion management training. PDRM has also spent a large amount of money around 365 million to improve the quality and the quantity of infrastructure in its training centres ("Laporan Tahunan Polis Diraja Malaysia," 2008).

Among the training programs, driving training has been listed as one of the most important trainings because the accident rate in the police force is rather high. Based on Books et al. (2011), the total amount of police killed in line is 14 out of 26 polices in 2000s to 2010s in Malaysia. The number of deaths among police officers in traffic accidents has significantly increased at 12% compared to those recorded in 1990s and 2000s (Books et al., 2011). Besides, traffic accidents had been one of the main reasons of police being killed in line of duty from 2010 to 2014 (Kalidevi Mogan Kumarappa, 2014). The figure indicated that traffic accidents have led to a

major problem among the police. Therefore, police driving training has never been more important to enhance their skills and knowledge in order to reduce the amounting traffic accidents. Moreover, based on previous researches (Gregersen, Nyberg, & Berg, 2003; Nyberg, Gregersen, & Wiklund, 2007), driving training is counter-productive in improving road safety. Besides, Anonymous (2001) stated that the death toll due to traffic accidents could probably be reduced if more officers had gone for driving training. In addition, the drivers in a large Swedish company showed that interventions, such as structured driver training and group discussions with company drivers, decreased the rate of accidents for over two years after the interventions (Gregersen, Brehmer, & Morén, 1996). Moreover, a report from Bomel Ltd (2004) indicated that the lowest accident rate was achieved by a company with 'clear driving standards and rules, excellent driver training, as well as a policy to report and try to learn from all driving incidents'. These studies amplified the importance of driving training on road safety behaviour.

Based on Al-Ghaweel, Mursi, Jack, and Joel (2009), some factors that have caused traffic accidents are human error, condition of the vehicle, safety measures, as well as environment and location of the accident. Previous researches also indicated that human-related factors, such as excessive speed and careless driving, are the main factors that caused traffic accidents (Najib, Abdullah, Abdullah, & Salleh, 2011; Treat et al., 1979). The findings showed that approximately 40% of traffic accidents resulted from human-related factors (Najib et al., 2011; Treat et al., 1979). In addition, according to Hennessy (2011), driving is a complex process that involves individual factors that are expressed within a social exchange among drivers, passengers, and pedestrians. It depicts that human-related factors are important to reduce accidents. Moreover, driving training should be conducted to enhance one's skills and knowledge about driving. In the present research, police driving skill had been the focus of the study.

Police driver training can be considered as a good module to be used to investigate driver training effects, as generally, police drivers receive similar driver training, and work under similar organizational policies and practices (Dorn, 2005).

In Malaysia, the content of police driving training differs from the public driver training. Police driving training broadly includes instructions pertaining to safe systematic driving techniques, Highway Code, protection at a road incident scene, attitudinal training, stopping vehicles, skid techniques and maneuverability, familiarization and vehicle care, emergency response driving, night driving, and basic pursuit driving. Meanwhile, the public driving training only includes stopping vehicles, parking skills, three-point turn, as well as some skid techniques and maneuverability. Furthermore, the duration of police driving course is longer than that of public training course. The duration for police driving training is 3 to 4 weeks, while public driving is within 5-6 hours for theoretical background and 16 hours for practical training.

On top of that, both courses emphasize on safe overtaking, in which trainees overtake after observing the road ahead for layout, road signs, and hazards, identifying safe gaps, and then, pulling out to initiate an overtake at speed (Jabatan Pengangkutan Jalan Malaysia, 2006; Polis Diraja Malaysia, 1989). Nevertheless, public drivers do not get the opportunity to practice these maneuvers during training to the same extent as police drivers do, nor do they have as many hours of instruction in developing other driving skills (Jabatan Pengangkutan Jalan Malaysia, 2006). Besides, the police driving training is more structured and professional compared to public driving training. Moreover, most of the duties of police involve driving, such as patrolling in a designed area of the city, going to crime scenes, as well as escorting prisoners to and from court. Furthermore, police officers need to respond to the increasing number of calls for service due to increasingly congested traffic and bad weather conditions, which could lead to accidents. Therefore, it is important to investigate the effectiveness of training among the police in the effort to reduce accident rates.

In the past decade, many researchers have studied the impact of personality, motivation, training design, manager support, transfer climate and opportunity on training transfer (Awais Bhatti, Ali, Mohd Isa, & Mohamed Battour, 2014; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bertolino, Truxillo, & Fraccaroli, 2011;

Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Burke & Hutchins, 2008; Cellar, deGrange deGrendel, Klawsy, & Miller, 1996; Colquitt et al., 2000; Fecteau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, & Kudisch, 1995; Ford, Quiñones, Segó, & Sorra, 1992; Hutchins & Burke, 2007; Machin & Fogarty, 2004; Studer-Luethi, Jaeggi, Buschkuehl, & Perrig, 2012b; Tziner et al., 2007; Wei-Tao, 2006; Woodman, Zourbanos, Hardy, Beattie, & McQuillan, 2010; Xiao, 1996; Yamkovenko & Holton, 2010). Previous studies reported that different trainee traits such as self-efficacy, 16 factor personality, locus of control and positive and negative affectivity can affect training effectiveness (Bertolino et al., 2011; Blume et al., 2010; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Chiaburu & Tekleab, 2005; Ferris, Bergin, & Gilmore, 1986; Herold et al., 2002; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Studer-Luethi et al., 2012b; Tziner et al., 2007). It is interesting to see which trait can improve one's training performance and success in transferring the learning outcome to their work.

Besides that, some of the theoretical frameworks also focus on the effect of personality on training effectiveness. For example, Noe (1986) stated that personality variables such as locus of control, motivation and reaction to skill influenced training effectiveness. Moreover, Baldwin and Ford (1988) also indicated that personality also effect training effectiveness. The models of training effectiveness that are developed by previous researchers (Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000; Mathieu & Martineau, 1993) also indicated personality plays an important role in training effectiveness. Although pervious researches and theoretical model stated that personality plays important role in training effectiveness, the role of personality is often given secondary attention in training. For example, Holton et al. (2000) stated that personality characteristic is secondary influence on training effectiveness. Based on Gully and Chen (2010), most of the training text include personality as ancillary material in needs analysis, design, implementation and evaluation. Therefore, personality should further classify in training context.

Many types of measurements have been used to analyze the influence of personality on training effectiveness. For example, Carl Jung's 16 Personality Factors, the Big Five Personality traits, self-efficacy, locus of control and other

personality types have been employed to analyze the effect of different personalities on training (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Colquitt et al., 2000; Ferris et al., 1986; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Machin & Fogarty, 2003, 2004; Oakes et al., 2001; Tziner et al., 2007; Wei-Tao, 2006). Out of all these measurements, the Big Five Personality model is widely used in personality and industrial psychology (Daniel & Jennifer, 2006; Herold et al., 2002). The measure of the five factor model has been studied extensively in cross-cultural personality research during the past decade (Cheung, 2004; Johnsson, 2009). Additionally, it has also been used extensively in China (Ningyu & Gigi, 2010), Korea, America, Japan, Hong Kong and Malaysia (Cheung, 2004). This shows, that the cross culture stability of Big Five Personality model has been confirmed. According to Larsen and Buss (2008), this model has proven to be more robust and replicable than any other taxonomy of personality. Additionally, it offers an established framework for the application of personality traits for work behaviour (Brian, 2006) as well as relevant training situations. However, only a few researches have addressed the relationship between Big Five Personalities and training effectiveness (Yamkovenko, 2009). In fact, some studies only select certain trainees' characteristic variables, which were extracted from Big Five taxonomy of traits or some unstable individual characteristics, such as self-efficacy (Cellar et al., 1996; Chiaburu & Tekleab, 2005; Lievens, Harris, Keer, & Bisqueret, 2003; Naquin & Holton, 2002). These studies had chosen to examine only a few dispositional variables, which were either relatively unstable individual characteristics (self-efficacy) or were extracted from the Big Five taxonomy of traits. Therefore, the Big Five model had been found to be the most appropriate measurement tool for identifying the relationship between trainee personalities and training effectiveness in this study.

In addition, most of training effectiveness studies focus on the relationship between self-efficacy and training transfer (Abdulkarim, Musaed, & Abdulla, 2009; Blume et al., 2010; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Chiaburu & Tekleab, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2000; Tziner et al., 2007; Van Der Klink, Gielen, & Nauta, 2001; Wei-Tao, 2006). There are very few researches existed that explore the simultaneous impact of all five personality variable on training related aspects. Although the Big Five Personality traits have been widely used as a measurement tool, there were very few

studies that use all dimensions of the model to investigate the relationship between trainees' personality and training effectiveness (Yamkovenko & Holton, 2010). Therefore, studies investigated the relationship between Big Five Personality and training effectiveness is very limited. Besides, Blume (2010) stated that inconsistent findings do exist between big five personality and training effectiveness. Burke and Hutchins (2007) also stated that there was mixed support for conscientiousness and that other Big Five personalities only had minimal or no empirical support in their relationship with training effectiveness. It indicated that Big five personalities need to be further investigated for their relationship with training effectiveness, and this notion had been supported by the others (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Yamkovenko & Holton, 2010). Therefore, the research on the relationship between Big Five Personalities of trainees and training effectiveness had been carried out in this study.

Besides the influence of an individual's personality on training effectiveness, climate transfer also plays an important role in training effectiveness. Transfer climate is defined as a work environment which include the situational cue, attitude of supervisors and coworkers, the department policy and consequences that either prevents or encourages the application of what was learned in training to the job (Bennett, Lehman, & Forst, 1999; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). The climate of an organization acts as a primary contextual variable that influences how personality variables affect behavior (Daniel & Jennifer, 2006). Besides, Ford and Weissbein (1997), as well as Smith-Jentsch, Salas, and Brannick (2001) criticized the literature as training effectiveness has only focused on trainee characteristics and work environment as independent of one another. Therefore, this study looked into the transfer climate as the moderator for the relationship of trainee personality, which are trainee characteristics and transfer training. Moreover, several studies have recommended that future research should examine the moderating effects of organizational environment on trainee characteristics for training performance (Gully & Chen, 2010; Herold et al., 2002; Rowold, 2007; Tziner et al., 2007; Yamkovenko & Holton, 2010). Additionally, several studies portrayed that transfer climate had an influence on transfer training moderator between organization factor and transfer climate (Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992; Richman-

Hirsch, 2001; Smith-Crowe, Burke, & Landis, 2003). This showed that transfer climate has the potential to be a moderator variable.

Besides that, several studies showed that transfer climate has significant relationship with the degree of learning transfer from the training program to the workplace, but these findings are inconsistent (Holton, Bates, Seyler, & Carvalho, 1997; Machin & Fogarty, 2004; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Tracey et al., 1995). According to Cheng and Ho (2001), results from ten studies were found to have positive relationships between organizational support (one of the variables of transfer climate) and training effectiveness, two studies found negative relationships and five studies found that the link was non-significant. The inconsistency of these findings should serve as an encouragement for researchers to further study the effects of transfer climate as a moderating variable between trainees' personality and training effectiveness. .

To date, there is no research that has been conducted on the moderating effect of transfer climate on training effectiveness literature. Several studies reported that transfer climate act as moderator on the relationship between organization factor and training effectiveness (Chen & Kao, 2014; Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Fletcher, Major, & Davis, 2008; Ng, Nabila, & Abd Rahman, 2014). For example, Chen and Kao (2014) showed that service climate also moderated the relationship between proactive personality and job performance. Moreover, Fletcher et al. (2008) also showed that competitive climate moderated the competitive personality trait and job dedication. Besides that, Lance, Kavanagh, and Brink (2002) stated that similarity of previous job skill requirements (as indexed by cross-job retraining time estimates) was strongly and positively related to time to proficiency in the new assignment (training effectiveness) in less constraint situation. It indicated that constraint situation which refers to lack of opportunity to use moderated the relationship between training design and training effectiveness. Peer support also plays as moderator in others previous studies (Kastenmüller et al., 2012; Sharif Ulah Jan, Anis-ul-Haque, & Naveed, 2015; Simosi, 2012). For instance, Simosi (2012) indicated that peer support significantly moderated the relationship between

supervisor support and training effectiveness. Moreover, previous studies also showed that personality has greater relationship with organization outcome in weak situation (Beatty, Cleveland, & Murphy, 2001; Daniel & Jennifer, 2006). Weak situation defined as lack of opportunity to use, less reward and lack of supporting from organization (Beatty et al., 2001). These studies showed that transfer climate such as supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards play potential moderator.

In addition, some theoretical frameworks show that the situation factor acts as the moderator for the relationship between personality and organization behavior, such as personal-environment fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004), attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) (Schneider, 1987), and the concept trait activation process (Tett & Burnett, 2003). These theoretical frameworks demonstrated that when a person “fits” well within his job, unit, or organizational outcomes are optimized through supplementary and complementary means. Therefore, a good fit between personality and transfer climate should result in optimal outcome in training. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the moderating effect of transfer climate between trainees’ personality and training effectiveness.

Based on an extensive literature search on publications up to May 2015, no research has looked into the moderating effects of transfer climate on trainee personality and training transfer. Consequently, this research aims to study the moderating effects of transfer climate on the relationship between trainee personality and the transfer of training among Royal Malaysia Police who undertake Driving Training course.

Hence questions that prompted this present study included:

1. Does driving knowledge of respondent improved after training?

2. Does trainees' personality (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) have impact on the driving knowledge?
3. Does trainees' personality (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) have impact on the driving competency?
4. Does transfer climate moderated the relationship between trainees' personality (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) and driving competency?

1.2 Research Objective

The purpose of this present study is to investigate the moderating effect of transfer climate on the relationship between trainees' personality and transfer training. Below are the present study's objectives:

1. To identify the increase of driving knowledge after training.
2. To identify the effect of trainees' personality (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) on driving knowledge.
3. To identify the effect of trainees' personality (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) on driving competency.
4. To examine the moderating effects of transfer climate (supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use and rewards) on the relationship between trainees' personality (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) and driving competency.

1.3 Scope of study

The respondents of this study consisted of police officers who attended the driving police training (vehicle class "B" and vehicle class "E2") in Maktab Teknik Polis Muar. The age of the respondents had been between 20 and 60 years old. The present research employed the purposive sampling method. The present research focused on the moderating effect of transfer climate on the relationship between trainees' personality and transfer training. The Big Five personalities were the independent variables and consisted of five dimensions of personality variables: a) openness to experience, b) conscientiousness, c) extroversion, d) agreeableness, and e) neuroticism. Meanwhile, the moderator variable was transfer climate, which consisted of four dimensions: a) supervisor support, b) peer support, c) opportunity to use, and d) rewards. Other than that, the dependent variable of the present study was training effectiveness that consisted of two dimensions: learning outcome measured by knowledge test, and behaviour change measured by driving competency.

1.4 Significance of the study

The present study contributes to current knowledge in several ways. Despite the tremendous growth of researches on personality and training effectiveness in the past few decades, the moderating effect of transfer climate on relationship between personality and training effectiveness have not been explored. Hence, the contribution of the present study is that it addressed the effect of transfer climate in increasing or decreasing the strength of the relationship between trainee's personality and transfer training. In fact, work environment could help to enhance the usefulness of the Big Five traits in predicting personal and organizational outcomes.

On top of that, many measurements of personality have been conducted with transfer training. However, most studies only focused on personality, such as self-efficacy, locus of control, and goal orientation. These attributes of personality have been considered as unstable individual characteristics (Yamkovenko & Holton, 2010). Therefore, there is lack of studies that had looked into trait personality, such as big five personality, in the literature pertaining to transfer training. Furthermore, Hogan (2005) asserted that the most important claim of personality psychology is that there are structures inside people that determine their behaviour. Thus, it is important to identify change in trainees' behaviour, which could be affected by different personality traits.

Most existing researches have studied the relationship between the three main factors, which were trainee characteristics, training design and work environment, as well as transfer training. However, no study, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, has ever examined the joint effect of the three main factors on transfer training. With that, the present study investigated the moderating role of transfer climate on the relationship between the Big Five traits and transfer training. This could give evidence for further exploration in a training environment, as well as offer guidance for future researches in relation to designing for transfer.

Besides that, present study also contributes to organization. Nowadays, training has become a very important tool to improve the productivity and the effectiveness of an organization. As mentioned, many organizations have also invested large amount of money for training program and low return on the investment (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Consequently, organizations need to be more effective in selecting trainees and designing training programs. Thus, researches that could determine the potential factors that can cause failure in transfer training would be beneficial to organizations by ensuring if trainees' personality could affect transfer training. Hence, the present study provided evidence to display the factors of transfer training. Besides, multiple organizations can benefit from the research findings by identifying the relationship between trainees' personality and transfer

training. This may increase awareness on strategies to improve learning transfer, and instructional designers can accurately diagnose factors that inhibit transfer.

The finding of present study also contributes to practitioners which allow practitioners to understand different personality characteristics, which could have a maximum impact on transfer training under certain transfer climates. When personality characteristics are compatible with the environment (job, team, and social group), individuals will experience positive consequences, such as improved work attitudes and better performance (Yamkovenko & Holton, 2010). Moreover, the effectiveness of training can be improved by ensuring a better match between trainees' personality and transfer climate when selecting a trainee to attend a training program. For example, people with high extroversion would be more concerned about the reward.

Moreover, individuals will execute better performances when rewards are offered. Therefore, practitioners can consider the suitable personality type for various transfer climates. In addition, practitioners can also develop training strategies that take into consideration the interaction between transfer climate and trainee's personality in improving transfer training. For example, by grounding this theory in research, practitioners can design more appropriate training strategies and intervention, which can match various personalities of trainees. Besides, the findings obtained from the present study also should provide valuable information to practitioners, as well as a guide to decide the personality characteristic to look for in trainees.

1.5 Conceptual and Operation Definition

The following section will discuss about the conceptual definition and operational definition of each variables in the present research:

1.5.1. Big Five Personality

The Big Five model personality contains five dimensions: Extroversion, Agreeableness, Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness and Openness (McCrae & John, 1992).

1.5.1.1. Extraversion

The conceptual definition of Extraversion is sociable, talkative, aggressive, energetic, enthusiastic, assertive, optimistic, active and impulsive and has a high desire for social recognition, praise status, exhibition and power (Costa & McCrae, 1988). Barrick and Mount (1991) list the following traits under this dimension: sociable, gregarious, assertive, active, and talkative. Extraversion also can defined as tendency to like people, prefer being in large groups, and desire excitement and stimulation; likely to be assertive, active, talkative (Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006). Hogan (2005) interprets this dimension as consisting of two components, Ambition and Sociability. In this study, extroversion refers to expressive of activity, energy, and vigorousness versus being reserved and apathetic people.

1.5.1.2. Agreeableness

The conceptual definition of agreeableness is flexible, forgiving, cooperative, friendly, trusting, good-natured, generous and altruistic (Costa & McCrae, 1988). A person who is high in agreeableness is a cooperative, forgiving, courteous, flexible, trusting, tolerant, good-natured and soft-hearted person (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Based on Major, Turner, and Fletcher (2006), traits with agreeableness dimension is tendency to be altruistic, cooperative and trusting. A person who is high in agreeableness are more concern about the interpersonal relationship (Westerman & Simmons, 2007). In present study, agreeableness defined as forgiving, not demanding, warm, not stubborn, not show off and sympathetic.

1.5.1.3. Neuroticism

The conceptual definition of neuroticism is self-pitying, anxious, less trusting, depressed, nervous, lacking positive psychological adjustment and feeling helpless and vulnerable (Costa & McCrae, 1988). A person who is low in neuroticism showed that he/she are able to perform better under pressure, uneasy to get nervous and panic and well reasonable (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Major, Turner, and Fletcher (2006) stated that neuroticism is tendency to experience negative affects, such as fear, sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt, and disgust). In the present research, neuroticism is defined as anxious, defensive, insecure, and emotional.

1.5.1.4. Conscientiousness

The conceptual definition of conscientiousness is efficient, organized, reliable, playful, thorough, responsible, achievement oriented and productive (Costa & McCrae, 1988). Conscientiousness refers to self-control and the active process of planning, organizing and carrying out task (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Conscientiousness also defined as tendency to be purposeful, organized, reliable, determined, and ambitious (Major et al., 2006). In this study, conscientiousness defined as a person who is organized, order, impulsivity, desirability, high achievement, durance and value orthodoxy.

1.5.1.5. Openness to experience

Openness to experience is described by adjectives such as imaginative, cultured, curious, original, broad-minded, intelligent and autistics (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Openness to experience, a dimension of the Big Five, acts as the predetermining factor in creating an intrinsic state conducive for transfer (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Openness to Experience includes active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, attentiveness to inner feelings, a preference for variety, intellectual curiosity and independence of judgment (Dean, Conte, & Blankenhorn, 2006). In this study, traits that associated with openness to experience means complexity, understanding, sentience, nurturance, tolerance to change and innovation.

1.5.2 Transfer climate

The conceptual definition of transfer climate is individual's perception of their work environment and is mediating variable for transfer (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). Holton et al.(1997) defined transfer climate as a psychological interpretation of the work environment that affects job attitudes and behaviors and influences the extent to which a person utilizes learned skills on the job. Characteristics of a positive transfer climate include cues that prompt trainees to use new skills, consequences for the correct use of skills and remediation for the incorrect or lack of use, and social support from supervisors and peers through the use of incentives and feedback (Grossman & Salas, 2011). In this study, transfer climate defined as the

conditions in organizations that either prevent or encourage the application of what was learned in training to the job. Transfer climate in this study is divided to supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to and rewards.

1.5.2.1. Supervisor support

Supervisor support refers to the extent to which supervisors support and reinforce use of training on the job (Holton et al., 2000). Supervisors can provide different types of support for training activities such as providing recognition, encouragement, rewards, participant the training program and modeling trained behavior (Salas, Wilson, Burke, & Wightman, 2006). Supervisor support also can refers to supervisors' participation in discussions of new learning, involvement in training and provision of positive feedback as forms of support most recognized by trainees as positively influencing their transfer (Lim & Johnson, 2002). Supervisory support in the form of encouragement for the application of new skills can influences the transfer training (Kontoghiorghes, 2001). The greater the level of support, the more likely that transfer of training will occur. Supervisor should be actively involved in the design and delivery of training programs (Awoniyi, Griego, & Morgan, 2002). In present study, supervisor support refers to the degree to which trainees' supervisor encourages and motivates them to transfer knowledge and skills gained to their workplace.

1.5.2.2. Peer Support

Peer support is defined as the extent to which peers reinforce and support use of learning to the job (Holton et al., 2000). According to Martin (2010), peer support is trainees provide feedback, encouragement, problem-solving assistance, supplemental information and coaching assistance to each another. Peer support concerns the extent to which peers behave in a way that optimizes the trainees' use of learning on the job, for example, by setting goals together and by giving trainees concrete

assistance (Russ-Eft, 2002). Peer support also can be defined as perceived workgroup support, in terms of a supportive atmosphere and assistance from co-workers, also predicts the perceived opportunities to use new knowledge, skills and attitudes (Ford et al., 1992). In present study, peer support refers to the degree to which trainees coaching, assisting and encourages each other's to apply the knowledge and skills learned to workplace.

1.5.2.3.Opportunity to use

According to Noe (2002), opportunity to transfer refers to breadth, activity level and task type. Breadth includes the number of learned tasks performed at work while activity level is the frequency with which trained task are actually performed on the job. On the other hand, task level refers to the difficulty and criticality of the trained task. In other words, the first instance of training application at work may affect continued opportunity to transfer. Opportunity to transfer also can be defined as the extent to which trainees are provided with or obtain resources and tasks on the job enabling them to use the skills taught in training (Holton et al., 2000). In this study, opportunities to use learned skills refers to the extent to which the trainee is provided with newly learned knowledge, skill and behaviors from the training program. Opportunity to use means the extent to which trainees perceive and have sufficient time and resources available determines the extent to which knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired in training will be used or constrained on the job (Russ-Eft, 2002). The opportunity to use can consequently be defined as "the extent to which a trainee is provided with or actively obtains work experiences relevant to the tasks for which he or she was trained" (Ford et al., 1992).

1.5.2.4.Rewards

Rewards will be determined when trainees return to their jobs and begin applying their learned behavior; they will encounter rewards that will affect their further use of what they have learned. Rewards shows the degree to which applying

training on the job leads to outcomes that are positive for the individual (Holton et al., 2000). Recognition and rewards from organization is a strategy that can increase the level of transfer training. Positive reinforcement refers to positive rewards such as salary increase or giving promotion (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). Cheng (2000) defined rewards is positive outcome in term of job security will be increase after apply the learned knowledge and skill. Based on Facticeau, et al (1995), rewards will be given in term o high performance evaluation when success transfer the training program. In this study, rewards refers to the extent to which organization give reinforcement such as salary increase or giving promotion after they applied their new learned skill and knowledge in work place.

1.5.3 Training Effectiveness

Conceptual definition of training effectiveness is the measurement of improvement in the employee's knowledge, skill and behavioral pattern within organization after they attend training program (AlYahya & Mat, 2013). Based on Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006), training effectiveness can be measured in trainee reaction, trainee learning, trainee behavior and organization impact. At the first level, trainee reaction refers to the examination of the participants' reactions or attitudes towards specific components of a program, such as instructor, topics, presentation style, schedule, and audio-visuals. At the second level, learning refers to an evaluation of the extent to which trainees have advanced in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitude. At the third level, trainee behaviour is addressed by the extent to which knowledge and skills gained in training are applied on the job or result in exceptional job-related performance. Finally, at the fourth level, organization impact is referred to as providing some measures of the impact that training has had on broader organizational goals and objectives (Bates, 2004). In this study, training effectiveness defined as the extent to which trainee learned (second level of Kirkpatrick's Model) and applied new learned knowledge and skill in their workplace (third level of Kirkpatrick's Model). Both level of training effectiveness

were measured based on perception of trainees. Training effectiveness was measured by

- Conceptual definition of learning outcome is trainee's knowledge of a training program, which can be measured by asking trainees to recall trained materials immediately or shortly after completion of a training program (Xiao, 1996). Learning outcome is the extent to which trainees have at their disposal directly after finishing training, the knowledge, skills and attitudes intended to be learned in training (Nijman, 2004). Learning outcome refers to the perception of how often the trainee believed they had learned the trained task (Tziner & Haccoun, 1991). In this study, learning outcome defined as the extent to which the improvement of trainee in driving knowledge after training. Driving knowledge is determined by giving pre and post test examination to trainee to examine the improvement of training knowledge in terms of the preparation of vehicle, structure of vehicle, act of traffic, road sign, and duty of police driver for both of the training program.
- Conceptual definition of behavior outcome is trainees' behavioral change after the training which can be measured by asking trainees to identify the changes made on the work after training (Bates, 2004). Behavior outcome refers to the extent to which trainees apply knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in training on the job, as measured at a certain point in time after training (Nijman, 2004). In the present study, behavior outcome of trainee's refer to the extent to which trainee applied the new learned skill in training to their workplace. Driving competency was measured by evaluating driving competency of the trainee after two months training. Driving competency can be defined as perceived transfer driving training achieved and perceived improvement in performance when on duty. Perceived transfer driving training achieved refer to extent to which individuals make changes and transfer learning to the job. While, perceived improvement in performance when on duty can

be defined as expectation that effort devoted to transferring learning will lead to changes in job performance.

1.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the background and problem statement of the research to motivate the reason for this study. Research questions and the objectives were discussed in this chapter also. The scope of study, significance of the study, limitation and conceptual definition of the study were addressed. As a guideline and references of this study, literature reviews are discussed in the next chapter.

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