



Trainee Characteristics Affecting Training Transfer Among the TVET Instructors

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Abstract: This study aims to assess whether or not perceived training transfer differs across personal and professional attributes of the instructors of technical vocational education and training (TVET) in Nepal. Gender, marital status and age were assessed under personal attributes and type of institution based on ownership, locale of the institutions and instructors' experience were assessed within professional attributes. Survey questionnaire was sent online to 251 instructors across the country who had participated in instructional skills-based training in the past three to 15 months and were engaged in technical education as instructors during the time of the study. Data were analyzed using independent samples t-test for demographic variables with two groups, and analysis of variance along with Brown-Forsythe and Welch tests for variables with more than two groups. Statistically significant results were further substantiated using power analysis. The result concluded that perceived training transfer was higher among female instructors, married instructors, privately owned TVET institutions and instructors with five to 10 years of experiences as compared to the new ones.

Keywords: Perceived training transfer, demographic factors, TVET, instructors

1. Introduction

Training is linked with the development of competent human resources for enhanced employee performance and better organizational results. It facilitates acceleration in learning and enhances the capacity of individuals through acquirement and improvement of their psychomotor and cognitive skills. Armstrong (2014) justifies the need of training to meet organizational objectives explaining that employees are required to perform the specialized and complex jobs for which they should be equipped with different skills, many of which cannot be acquired through self-learning. Effective training has been posited to equip the workforce with enhanced productivity, quality of work, efficiency, teamwork, accuracy and ultimately competitive advantages in the labour market (Salas et al., 2006). In technical vocational education and training (TVET), training has the key role in fulfilling the competency needs at school level effectively leading to employment (Bhattarai, 2020; Woo et al., 2018). Trained teachers are considered as the key resource for better teaching and learning and are termed as the agents of the change and knowledge society (Majumdar, 2011) and the quality of TVET trainers has been closely associated with the quality of TVET system (Kim et al., 2019). Machado and Cury (2009) claim that training and development for TVET teachers is imperative to meet the objectives of education. Moreover, in Asia and the Pacific region, training of TVET teachers has remained a national priority (Chinien et al., 2009). Therefore, the scope of training in TVET instruction expands from enhancing

instructors' performance to improving overall education quality and the competence of graduates.

Amidst the acknowledgments on the role of training in various spheres, the transfer of training becomes equally instrumental since the essence of the training intervention is based on the extent to which trainees apply the learning from training back at their job. In this respect, training transfer refers to the degree to which trainees systematically acquire and implement the knowledge, skills, and attitude learned in the training back in their workplace to collectively and consequently improve their performance within a certain work environment (Salas et al., 2006). For the transfer of training, the learning must be generalized and maintained at the workplace across time (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Further, Ford et al. (2018) state training transfer is a complicated process that does not occur linearly and is affected by several factors.

Numerous studies (e.g. Blume et al., 2010; Ford et al., 2018) have tapped the issues of training transfer majorly due to noticeably lower training transfer. It is because the training transfer is contextual and dependent upon various factors, the majority of which count under three main broad spectrums of trainee characteristics representing individual level, training design representing learning field level, and work environment representing organizational level (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Ford et al., 2018; Blume et al., 2010, Tonhäuser & Büker, 2016). Among them, the influence of trainee-related factors in training transfer is also pertinent in TVET instruction (Selamat et al., 2016). Though it includes demographic characteristics of the trainees, much is to be studied on their effect in the sector of TVET. Nunes (2003) critiques that demographic variables are rarely studied and have remained the center of attention. This study, therefore, aims to assess whether or not the training transfer differs across demographic variables of the instructors engaged in technical education (TVET instructors hereafter) in Nepal.

2. Demographic Characteristics and Training Transfer of TVET Instructors: An Underexplored Sphere

Several trainee characteristics have been found to either foster or inhibit the transfer process such as trainee's ability, personality, and motivation, learner readiness (Baldwin & Ford, 1988), perceived utility (Bates et al., 2012), and self-efficacy (Huang et al., 2015). Similarly, conscientiousness, cognitive ability (Blume et al., 2010), voluntary vs mandatory participation (Curado et al., 2015), internal locus of control (Colquitt et al., 2000), and motivation to learn (Park et al., 2016) have also been identified under trainee characteristics. Among these individual-level factors, demographic factors have also been confirmed to be an evident determinant of trainee characteristics (Nunes, 2003). However, the studies concerning demographic attributes have failed to grasp central attention in the research works since variables such as motivation to learn or self-efficacy have been in the limelight in the extant literature due to their influence on the training transfer process (Grossman et al., 2015).

Demographic factors as one of the components of trainee characteristics influence the training transfer process but the effects of these factors are contextual. Regarding the role of gender in training transfer, female trainees were found to have lower learning levels compared to males (Minja et al., 2022) as well as lower motivation to learn (Hicks, 2006). These findings are justified by the contexts of South Asia, particularly Nepal since the female have less access to TVET and other resources (Asian Development Bank, 2017). Similarly, some studies show that married trainees have a higher level of job satisfaction (Kumar, 2020) and organizational commitment (Choong et al., 2012) while others (Example: Bakotić, 2022) show no role of marital status in determining organizational commitment which is linked with training transfer or transfer intention.

Regarding job experiences, Lim and Morris (2006) confirmed that the job experience of the trainees was positively associated with the application of the training. Meanwhile, Hicks (2006) showed that as the tenure of the trainees increases, their motivation to learn and reaction to training both decline. This points out that they become less interested to learn which consequently inhibits the transfer of the training. On a similar note, an increase in age was linked with a decline in motivation to learn (Colquitt et al., 2000). Though this suggests a negative relationship between age and training transfer, other studies (Example: Konya et al., 2016) exhibit higher organizational commitment with increasing age that shows a possibility of higher learning transfer for better performance.

Learning transfer in schools is influenced by the availability of resources (Bates et al., 2012) which matters more in TVET for skills acquisition. In this connection, the locale of the institutions in rural or urban may also affect the training transfer process due to the constraints in teaching facilities and infrastructure. The scarcity of resources and facilities in rural and even semi-rural areas is shown to create a big challenge for schools (Johnson et al., 2021). With regards to the training transfer and type of institutions, privately owned institutions show greater concern for institutional performances and thereby training interventions than do the government-owned institutions. Therefore, private institution owners expect higher rates of return from the training opportunities (Broad, 2005). Holton (2003) also showed that the opportunity to transfer the training and performance outcome expectations were higher for private organizations as compared to public organizations.

Though these personal and profession-related characteristics have influences on the training transfer process, there are two-fold issues in the literature. First, among the relevant research, the effects of demographic factors reveal varying results. Hence, in light of such equivocal results, the role of demographic factors in training transfer becomes inconsequential. Second, findings are limited to the non-TVET sector, especially in the context of Nepal. The majority

of research on training transfer (Example: Poyck et al., 2016) is not indicative of TVET instruction. Knowledge of training transfer among the TVET instructors and the roles of demographic variables in training transfer in TVET in Nepal remain understudied, and therefore an examination of training transfer across these demographic variables has become the central concern of this research.

2.1 Research Hypotheses

Conceptualizing the demographic variables concerning training transfer, gender, marital status, type of institution based on ownership, age group, the locale of instructor's institution, and experience in TVET instruction have been considered as the major study independent variables across which training transfer of the instructors may differ. The hypotheses of this study are as follows:

H₁: Perceived training transfer (PTT) differs across the gender of the instructors.

H₂: PTT differs across the marital status of the instructors.

H₃: PTT differs across the types of institutions based on the ownership in which the instructors are engaged.

H₄: The distribution of PTT is different across the age group of the instructors.

H₅: The distribution of PTT is not the same across the locale of the institution of the instructors.

H₆: The distribution of PTT is not the same across the experiences of instructors.

3. Research Methods

3.1 Participants and Procedure

Study participants were the instructors, assistant instructors, and such (commonly termed as instructors) of TVET schools/colleges from all the seven provinces of Nepal who had taken instructional skills-related training including Training of Trainers (ToT) from the Training Institute for Technical Instruction (TITI) in the past three to 15 months referring to extant literature (Chauhan, 2017; Timperley et al., 2007). Within this period, there was a total of 719 trainees from 39 training events were selected for the survey. TITI was taken as the training provider since it is the authorized training provider for the capacity building of the workforces of TVET as per the TVET policy, 2012 of Nepal (Ministry of Education, 2012). The duration of this training ranged from seven to 15 working days. A sample size of 251 was obtained using Cochran's (1977) corrected formula and taking past references (Israel, 2009). The distribution of males i.e. 56 percent and females i.e. 44 percent was uniform in this study.

Data was collected using an online survey since the respondents were geographically dispersed across the country. Besides, an online survey was deemed suitable since the respondents were educators themselves and had the knowledge to fill out the forms online. Prior to the survey, piloting was carried out on grounds of adequacy and a small standardized effect size of 0.2 (Browne, 1995). A gentle reminder was sent after a week that increased the response rate to reach the desired size of the sample.

3.2 Measure

A self-administered questionnaire was designed as the tool for the online survey. Perceived training transfer (PTT) was measured using a seven-item scale in which four items measured generalization and three items measured maintenance of the learning. A 6-point Rating Scale was used (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 6 = *Strongly Agree*). A sample item for generalization includes "I was able to transfer the competencies learned in the training program back to my actual job" and that for maintenance is "I can easily re-state several things (knowledge, skills, and abilities) learned in the training". This instrument was translated into Nepali language at first and then back translated into English to assure that there was no deviation between the translated and original versions (Chauhan et al., 2017).

3.3 Reliability and Validity

To assure the reliability of the PTT, the internal consistency of its seven items was assessed. Reliability was assured based on Cronbach alpha value ($\alpha = .878$). The study ensured content validity by referring to the previously used scales from the literature. For instance, Caires (2013) used a three-item scale to measure training transfer and a four-item scale to measure retention of training. Similarly, Chauhan et al. (2017) used a six-item scale that included performance improvement-based statements. Considering the need for content relevance and comprehension, this study took the references of both these studies to generate a seven-item scale that included statements related to generalization and maintenance of the learning.

3.4 Analysis

To assess the level of perceived training transfer (PTT), simple descriptive statistical tools were used whereas to examine whether or not PTT differed across demographic variables, independent samples *t*-test and one-way analysis

of variance (ANOVA) were used. Independent samples *t*-test was used for gender, marital status, and type of technical institution based on the ownership (government-owned or institutional or privately owned schools/colleges) with two sub-groups. Meanwhile, ANOVA was used for age group, the locale of the institution, and years in experience with more than two sub-groups. Major safety checks were ensured for those parametric tests such as assurance of use of interval or ratio data, probability sampling, and normal distribution in outcome variables based on Kurtosis (-0.408) and Skewness (0.838) in PTT. Moreover, homogeneity (homoscedasticity) in variance in each group was also assessed using Levene’s test for equal variance (Hanneman et al., 2013).

Further to these analyses, their effect size and statistical power were measured using a statistical software named G* power (Faul et al., 2007). Effect size refers to the estimation of the extent to which the phenomenon researched in the sample occurs in the population (Hair et al., 2014). It functions in two dimensions viz. measures of difference and measures of association and quantifies the difference between groups which significance level fails to explain. Hence, researchers emphasize the use of effect size along with statistical significance (Cohen et al., 2018). Similarly, statistical power refers to the likelihood of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is not true. It is the function of significance level (α) which is 0.05 in this study, the sample size which is 251 respondents, and the effect size which has been individually explored and discussed in the results (Hair et al., 2014). The results of power analysis have also been referred to in this study.

4. Results

Descriptive statistics were used to exhibit the level of perceived transfer of training among the TVET instructors. The average score of perceived training transfer was moderately high ($M = 4.86, SD = 0.51$). Further, the level of the perceived training transfer was assessed in three levels: low, medium, and high (De Vaus, 2002). As per the categorization, no respondent perceived a low level of training transfer whereas most of the instructors (86.1 %) showed to have a high level of transfer of training. The results appear in Table 1.

Table 1 - Level of perceived training transfer

Level of Transfer	Frequency	Percent
Low Level of Transfer	-	-
Medium Level of Transfer	35	13.9
High Level of Transfer	216	86.1
Total	251	100.0

4.1 Perceived Training Transfer across Gender, Marital Status and Type of Institutions

Prior to examining PTT across the six variables, Levene’s test was conducted for an equal variance on them. Among the six tests, tests on gender, age group, and marital status failed to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variance (see Table 02). Hence, for the tests of gender and marital status that use independent samples *t*-tests, the second row showing ‘equal variances not assumed’ ($p < .05$) was referred. Similarly, to adjust the violation of homogeneity of variances ($p < .05$) in which the ANOVA test is run (age group), Brown–Forsythe and Welch tests were further introduced as more robust tests than ANOVA (Cohen et al., 2018). Welsh’s *F* adjusts the ANOVA value as well as the residual degrees of freedom to address issues that come along when the assumption of homogeneity of variance is violated (Field, 2017). These adjustments also control the Type I error rate and address the issues of unequal group sizes within the independent variable in ANOVA.

PTT was then examined across i) personal attributes and ii) professional attributes. Within personal attributes, gender was categorized into male and female instructors, and marital status was categorized into single and married and no instructors reported an ‘other’ option for both gender and marital status. Similarly, the type of institution was categorized based on ownership in which public/constituent meant government ownership and institutional meant privately owned. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested not assuming equal variances whereas hypothesis 3 was tested assuming equal variances as shown in Table 3.

Table 2 - Levene’s equal variance test result for gender, marital status, age group, locale of the institution, type of institution, and experience in TVET instruction across perceived training transfer

Attributes	Levene Statistic	Df	Sig.
Personal Attributes			
<i>Gender</i>	6.667	1, 249	.010
<i>Age Group</i>	3.067	3, 247	.029
<i>Marital Status</i>	6.675	1, 249	.010
Professional Attributes			

Attributes	Levene Statistic	Df	Sig.
<i>Locale of the Institution</i>	1.066	2, 248	.346
<i>Type of Institution</i>	.002	1, 249	.962
<i>Experience in TVET Instruction</i>	1.068	3, 247	.363

The mean score of PTT among the male instructors ($M = 4.79, SD = .54$) was statistically significantly lower ($t = -2.352$, two-tailed $p < .05$) than that of female respondents ($M = 4.94, SD = .44$). Similarly, perceived training transfer in married instructors ($M = 4.91, SD = .45$) was statistically significantly greater ($t = -2.128$, two-tailed $p < .05$) than in single instructors ($M = 4.77, SD = .57$). So, the results support hypotheses H_1 and H_2 indicating perceived training transfer was higher among the female instructors and the instructors who were married. More to this, Cohen’s d effect size was calculated as the standardized effect size. For t -tests, Cohen et al. (2018) categorize the effect size of 0.20 as small, 0.50 as medium, and 0.80 as large. The Cohen’s d effect size for the test of gender was 0.31 and that for marital status was 0.27. So both these tests resulted in a small effect size. Besides, the power of the test considering the given sample size, effect size, and alpha score, the statistical power was calculated which was 0.77 for the test of gender and 0.67 for the test of marital status. A rule of thumb given by Hinton et al. (2014) is that 0.2 is taken as low power, 0.5 as medium power, and 0.8 as high power. So, 0.77 explains a nearly high level of statistical power signifying less than a 25% chance of making a type II error. Similarly, the statistical power of 0.67 shows a medium-high level indicating less than a 35% chance of making a type II error.

Regarding professional attributes, the result shows that the mean score of PTT of the instructors from public or constituent institutions (schools and colleges) ($M = 4.80, SD = .49$) was statistically significantly lower ($t = -2.095$, two-tailed $p < .05$) than that of instructors from institutional (private) schools and colleges ($M = 4.93, SD = .52$). Thus, the result supports H_3 and it was confirmed that the instructors teaching in institutional institutes perceive higher training transfer than those teaching in public/constituent institutes. The standardized effect size obtained using Cohen’s d was small, which was 0.26, and based on this size, the statistical power was 0.65 which was of medium-high level.

Table 3 - Descriptive statistics and perceived training transfer across gender, marital status and type of institution

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t value	‘p’ value Sig. (2- tailed)
Gender					
<i>Male</i>	140	4.79	0.54	-2.352*a	.019
<i>Female</i>	111	4.94	0.44		
Marital Status					
<i>Unmarried</i>	95	4.77	0.57	-2.128*b	.035
<i>Married</i>	156	4.91	0.45		
Type of Institution					
<i>Public/Constituent</i>	133	4.80	0.49	-2.095* b	.037
<i>Institutional</i>	118	4.93	0.52		

a. Equal variances not assumed

b. Equal variances assumed

*Statistically significant at $p < .05$

4.2 Perceived Training Transfer across Age Groups, Locale of the Institution, and Experience of the Instructors

Using one-way ANOVA, PTT was examined across age groups under personal attributes and locale of the institutions and experience of the instructors under professional attributes. The age group consisted of four categories: 15 years to 25 years; 25 years to 35 years; 35 years to 45 years; and 45 years to 55 years. The age group of 45-55 years was observed to be the highest ceiling for this study. Further, the locale of the institution was categorized into urban, semi-urban, and rural areas. Meanwhile, the experience of the instructors was categorized into four groups: less than one year, 1 to 5 years, 5 to 10 years, and 10 to 20 years which was the highest observed group in this study. An interval of 10 years was set in the last sub-group because of the limited number of respondents with higher experiences.

Table 4 - Descriptive statistics and perceived training transfer across age group, locale of the institution, and experience of the instructors

Variables	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Age Group					
<i>15 years to 25 years</i>	34	4.82	0.44	1.064	.365

Variables	N	Mean	SD	F	p
25 years to 35 years	181	4.87	0.53		
35 years to 45 years	29	4.94	0.32		
45 years to 55 years	7	4.57	0.65		
Locale of the Institution					
Urban	150	4.86	0.48		
Semi-Urban	69	4.89	0.56	.316	.729
Rural	32	4.81	0.48		
Experience					
Less than 1 year	26	4.65	0.49		
1 year to 5 years	160	4.85	0.53		
5 years to 10 years	54	4.98	0.40	2.568	.055
10 years to 20 years	11	4.82	0.60		

p. p-value of F-test (ANOVA).

Table 04 shows that there was no statistically significant difference among the categories of age group under the personal characteristics ($F = 1.064, p > .05$). However, this result could not be inferred because of the violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Therefore, further analysis with Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests was conducted (see Table 05). These tests also did not show a significance level ($p > .05$). Thus the result rejected H_4 confirming that the distribution of PTT was the same across all four categories of age group.

Among the locale of the institutions, the result of ANOVA statistics again showed that there was no statistical difference among urban, semi-urban, and rural areas ($F = .316, p > .05$). Further, Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests were run because of the unequal group sizes. Welch test ($F_{2, 78.96} = .30, p > .05$) and Brown-Forsythe test ($F_{2, 127.81} = .31, p > .05$) commonly produced statistically insignificant results. Therefore, this study rejected H_5 and established that there was no difference in the distribution of PTT across the three categories of locale.

Lastly, PTT was tested across the experience of the instructors. The result of ANOVA statistics showed that the mean score of the instructors with less than one year of experience was the lowest ($M = 4.65, SD = .49$) and that of instructors having five to 10 years of experience was the highest ($M = 4.98, SD = .40$) but there were no statistically significant differences in PTT across the four categories of experience ($F = 2.568, p > .05$). However, since the group sizes were highly unequal, this result was not dependable. Thus, Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests were further run to overcome this issue. It showed two different results in which the Brown-Forsythe test ($F_{3, 43.52} = 2.471, p > .05$) showed that the results were statistically insignificant as earlier but in contrast, the Welch test ($F_{3, 36.65} = 3.088, p < .05$) showed statistical significance. To overcome this conflicting result, further literature was reviewed. In this regard, it was found that Glantz et al. (2016) recommend using the Welch test in most cases since it is more powerful than the Brown-Forsythe test. Hence, H_6 was supported based on the result of the Welch test. So PTT was different across the categories of experience. The effect size of ANOVA denoted by Eta squared (η^2) was 0.03 which according to Cohen et al. (2018) was of a lower-medium level. Based on this effect size, the observed statistical power obtained from SPSS was 0.63 that was of upper-medium level signifying less than a 40 percent chance of making type II error ($F_{3, 24.51} = 1.008, p > .05$) ($F_{3, 43.52} = 2.471, p > .05$).

Table 5 - Welch & Brown-Forsythe tests on perceived training transfer across age group

Robust Tests of Equality of Means	Statistic ^a	Df	p
Age Group			
Welch	1.008	3, 24.51	.406
Brown-Forsythe	1.087	3, 19.15	.379
Locale of the Institution			
Welch	.30	2, 78.96	.741
Brown-Forsythe	.31	2, 127.81	.735
Experience of the Instructors			
Welch	3.088*	3, 36.65	.039
Brown-Forsythe	2.471	3, 43.52	.074

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

*Statistically significant at $p < .05$

Further to the result of the Welch test, the Post Hoc test was run adopting Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test to identify which group(s) of experience statistically significantly differed from one another as shown in Table 6.

Table 6 - Post Hoc test with multiple comparisons^{ab}

(I) Experience of respondent in instruction	(J) Experience of respondent in instruction	MD (I-J)	Sig.
Less than 1 year	1 year to 5 years	-.20	.232
	5 years to 10 years	-.33*	.033
	10 years to 20 years	-.16	.798
1 year to 5 years	Less than 1 year	.20	.232
	5 years to 10 years	-.13	.372
	10 years to 20 years	.04	.996
5 years to 10 years	Less than 1 year	.33*	.033
	1 year to 5 years	.13	.372
	10 years to 20 years	.16	.757
10 years to 20 years	Less than 1 year	.16	.798
	1 year to 5 years	-.04	.996
	5 years to 10 years	-.16	.757

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. MD = Mean Difference

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Training Transfer, b. Tukey HSD

Table 6 shows that the Post Hoc Tukey test was conducted with multiple comparisons among the experiences to assess the categories in which differences are statistically significant. It shows that the PTT differed only between the category 'less than one year' and 'five to 10 years' of experience ($MD = -.33, p < .05$). Remaining comparisons were insignificant ($p > .05$). Subsequently, it was found that the instructors having five to 10 years of experience in instruction statistically significantly perceive higher training transfer than do the fresh instructors with less than one year of experience in instruction.

5. Discussion

This study showed a higher level of training transfer as perceived by the TVET instructors in this self-reported survey. This indicates that TVET instructors find instructional skills-based training relevant and worthy for their job. More to this, perceived training transfer was found to differ across instructors' gender and marital status within personal attributes and institutional type and years of experience in instruction within professional attributes which was the prime concern of this research. This study shows that female instructors perceive higher training transfer than male instructors which contradicts the findings of extant research (Example: Hicks, 2006; Minja et al., 2022). It shows a new lens on how female trainees can transfer the training more than male trainees. Kin et al. (2018) explain that female trainees are more concerned about the negative effect of having children and taking maternity leave. Furthermore, external constraints such as family obligations, getting fired and such also affect their participation decisions in vocational training in Asian countries (Cho et al., 2015). As a result, female participants have more constraints than male. On the contrary, some studies (Example: Tiwari & Malati, 2023) have shown that formal training is linked with higher women empowerment. Hence, female instructors value the opportunities for training and make the most of the opportunities they receive. They show their sincerity and commitment towards their profession (Wahsheh & Alhawamdeh, 2015), a higher sense of ethics which again reflects in their sincerity (Bhattarai & Maharjan, 2016), and also a higher level of teaching enthusiasm (Kasalak & Dagar, 2022). Therefore, female instructors are more likely to transfer the learning from the training to their workplace.

Another finding of this study is that married instructors perceive training transfer more than single instructors. It points out that marriage might add seriousness to their profession due to their responsibilities toward their family. Relatively, married instructors are those who have reached an age of maturity and have become more responsible, thus preferring stability in their profession to unmarried instructors in the context of Nepal. Studies (Example: Choong et al., 2012) also have shown that married teachers perceive responsibilities towards their families due to which they prefer stability. This theory is further supported by other research findings which show that married employees exhibit greater organizational commitment compared to unmarried employees (Salami, 2008; Nifadkar & Dongre, 2014). As a result, they take training opportunities sincerely for their professional development and apply learning from the training to their schools.

Within professional attributes, training transfer was higher among the instructors working in institutional (private) TVET institutions than those working in public/constituent institutions. It is possible because private institutions have comparatively limited resources and therefore are more concerned with maximizing their institution's revenues and worth through quality education. Therefore, the senior management team gives them training opportunities as well as rewards and incentives for better performance which, in turn, help improve teachers' performance (Dee & Wyckoff, 2015). Thus, they are more likely to transfer the learning from the training to enhance their performance. Meanwhile, private schools exhibit not only a supporting role but also a controlling role by monitoring their post-training activities

to push them to transfer the training which is also theoretically supported (Bhurtel & Bhattarai, 2023). Within the revised Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI), the construct of *personal outcome – negative* also explains the controlling role that if instructors do not apply the learning, they are cautioned or even have to face strict actions (Bates et al., 2012). In this connection, private schools are more concerned about institutional performance and making the instructors aware and sincere to exhibit higher perceived training transfer.

Experience has a more meaningful role in terms of performance as well as training transfer. This study shows that instructors with 5 to 10 years of experience perceive higher training transfer than new instructors with less than 1 year of experience. As the job tenure increases, their commitment to the organization also increases (Konya et al., 2016; Salami, 2008). Their increased commitment leads to their tendency to perform better which is connected with their training transfer intention. Nkrumah (2018) specifically found teaching experiences of five to eight years have a positive effect on student performance in certain technical subjects. It can be interpreted that instructors with at least five years of experience are those who have decided to pursue their career as an instructor in the long run and have realized the importance of the training for their career development. This theory is supported by the construct *transfer-effort performance expectation* which explains the belief of the trainees that the application of the training will help them do better in their job (Bates et al., 2012). On the other hand, new instructors in their early career stage may not be sure of their long-term career orientation. In addition, they often struggle to blend into the new environment of the school and to get support from experienced ones. This theory is also supported by another construct named *resistance to change* (Bates et al., 2012) which explains that seniors and experienced employees may ridicule others as they try to transfer the training. Seniors are likely to exhibit dominance over the new instructors which may inhibit the new instructors in their training transfer process.

This study illuminates that not all demographic factors are influential in the process of training transfer. Since this study shows that training transfer does not differ across ages which is contradictory to past literature, it can be interpreted that the TVET institutions should offer training opportunities uniformly to the seniors and juniors and utilize the experiences of seniors for better knowledge transfer which is currently a growing concern for institutional sustainability (Fasbender & Gerpott, 2022). Also, training transfer is not seen to differ among instructors from the institutions situated in rural or urban areas which shows that the learning transfer in rural areas is not affected by the lack of access to resources. Therefore, an interpretation can be drawn that to ensure higher training transfer, both the TVET institutions and training providers should assess the effects of demographic factors before making training decisions rather than carrying the prejudice such as higher experience decreases learning motivation, or female instructors have higher social obstacles affecting their learning and learning transfer.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The study utilized self-assessment of the training transfer of the TVET instructors of Nepal to examine whether or not personal and professional characters differ across the training transfer as perceived by them. Several demographic factors such as gender, marital status, and experience of the instructors as well as the type of TVET institution based on ownership make influences the training transfer process, and the differences of these factors in the transfer process are theoretically supported. Training institutions and employers should therefore carefully study the personal and professional attributes of their instructors and the possible effects of external factors on their characteristic features before making training-related decisions. Desired results can be achieved from the training at the both individual and organizational levels if the trainees are provided with suitable training opportunities based on their attributes.

This study is coupled with a few limitations. First, only demographic variables have been used for the analysis of trainee characteristics. Since self-efficacy, motivation to learn, and such characteristics are heavily identified as the influential variables in the training transfer process, studies can be further carried out using such variables and concerning demographic variables to allow a broader understanding of how trainee characteristics influence the training transfer process on the whole. On the other hand, the data of the study was based on a survey using a self-reported questionnaire which is based on perceived data rather than factual data. Hence, further studies can be expanded using observation tools to measure actual training transfer rather than perceived training transfer.

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