UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TRAINERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND PERFORMANCE IN UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TRAINER PREPARATION

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BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Human Resource Management of the School of Business, College of humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Commerce in Human Resource Management

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: Raphael Papa Kweku Andoh

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: Prof. (Mrs.) Rebecca Dei Mensah

ABSTRACT

Self-efficacy studies examining employee trainers' training room management, instruction and trainee engagement self-efficacies and their performance is overlooked in the literature. Also, though preparation is touted as vital in the self-efficacy – performance nexus, it has not been given much attention especially in relation to employee trainers. This current study, therefore, examined the mediating role played by trainer preparation in the effect trainer self-efficacy has on trainer performance in universities in Ghana. Using a census, data was collected from 154 employee trainers in two universities namely, the University of Cape Coast and the University of Education, Winneba. In testing the hypotheses, a partial least square structural equation modelling based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was employed and the BCa CI was used to establish the significance of the hypotheses. Additionally, an importance performance map analysis (IPMA) was conducted. This study revealed that trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy have positive and significant effect on trainer performance and trainer preparation. Trainer preparation also had a positively significant effect on trainer performance. Again, it was discovered that trainer preparation played a complementary partial mediating role in the effect trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy had on trainer performance. It is concluded that generally, trainer self-efficacy has an effect on both trainer preparation and trainer performance. Similarly, trainer preparation has an effect on trainer performance and is also a mediator between trainer self-efficacy and trainer performance.

KEYWORDS

Employee training

Self-efficacy

Self-regulation

Learning and development

Workplace learning

Internal trainer

Job performance

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DEDICATION

Gerardine, Emmett and Daysha

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

UCC	University of Cape Coast
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
UDS	University for Development Studies
UEW	University of Education, Winneba
SET	Self-efficacy Theory
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
SRT	Self-regulation Theory
TSES	Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale
IRB	Institutional Review Board
VTJPS	Validated Teachers' Job Performance Scale
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait
IPMA	Importance Performance Map Analysis

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Trainers are critical in the employee training process yet, they are not considered much in the employee training literature in spite of the increased interest in training research. The focus of training research is mostly on trainees. In as much as effective training hinges on the skills and competencies of trainers, it is not enough. Their self-efficacy coupled with their preparation could also contribute to their performance. Yet again, self-efficacy studies found in the literature predominantly focus on trainees, teachers and trainee/pre-service teachers. More so, there are limited studies on trainer preparation as a mediator between trainer self-efficacy and trainer performance. This study brings to the limelight, the mediating role of trainer preparation on the effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance.

Background to the Study

Globally, the most progressive organisations now do not view most human resource management practices just as mandatory. Rather, these human resource management practices which include training are treated as strategic practices geared towards gaining competitive advantage (Blume et al., 2010). As a human resource management practice through which organisations equip their employees with effective knowledge and skills to meet their challenges, training has been accepted almost universally as a performance improvement intervention (Bhatti et al., 2014; Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008). It enables organisations to adapt, excel, compete, become safe, produce, and ultimately meet their targets (Salas et al., 2012).

As a result, training has become crucial to employee growth and holds a strategic role inside businesses (Arghode & Wang, 2016; Blume et al., 2010). Long-term competitive advantage maintenance for organisations depends on utilising the attitudes, abilities, and knowledge acquired during training (Hutchins, 2009). Additionally, in order for an organisation to remain competitive, its personnel must get ongoing training (Salas et al., 2012). Even though employee training programmes are expensive exercises (Gauld & Miller, 2004), many organisations spend so much money on them (Yamnill & McLean, 2001). According to Hughes et al. (2018), every year, organisations spend billions of dollars on staff training.

Interest in training has grown in recent years (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). This is a testament to the importance of training to organisations. According to Blume et al. (2010), many organisations are still uncertain about the actual return on their increased investment in training, even in spite of these efforts. For example, it is shown that there is insufficient training transfer (Burke & Saks, 2009). Thus, there has been an exponential interest in training research for some time now (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Researchers studying learning and development or training continue to investigate the essential elements of successful training (Harris et al., 2014).

The foregoing put a lot of expectations on trainers to ensure that training is effective (Burke & Hutchins, 2008). Training is effective when trainees use the skills, knowledge, and attitudes gotten from training to the work situation and is premised on trainees assimilating the training content (Andoh et al., 2022, 2023). The provision of effective training demands skilled trainers (Ben-Hador et al., 2020). Skilled trainers possess pedagogical content

knowledge and competencies that aid them in effectively performing training tasks (Andoh et al., 2022; Mamaqi et al., 2011; Nilsson, 2008; Nixon et al., 2013; Salman et al., 2020). Without skilled trainers, training becomes ineffective. Trainers are, therefore, a key component in employee training (Ford et al., 2018).

Work performance is the work-related behaviours engaged in at the workplace. Thus, it is concerned with the behaviour individuals exhibit in the work situation (Bhat and Beri, 2016; Fogaça et al., 2018; Limon & Sezgin-Nartgün, 2020). In simple terms, it is what individuals do to accomplish tasks assigned to them at work. According to Koopmans et al. (2013), work performance is focused on task execution behaviours that are under the direct influence of individual workers. Deducing from this, trainer performance is the behaviour that trainers exhibit in order to carry out training tasks or facilitate training sessions. These are enshrined in having some competencies such as instructional qualities, professional qualities, and personal qualities (Ali & Haider, 2017); and management skills, interpersonal skills, discipline and regularity, and teaching skills (Hanif & Pervez, 2004). These competencies enable trainers to meet training objectives.

Although having pedagogical competencies and subject matter expertise should enable trainers to carry out training activities effectively, it is not enough (Andoh et al., 2022; Randhawa, 2004). Highly qualified instructors may not be able to complete given training assignments in an efficient manner especially, when they do not see that they are good enough; not believing in their ability to perform training tasks (Andoh et al., 2022; Bellibas & Liu, 2017; Nixon et al., 2013). The tasks of trainers during training, the

preparation, and the perception they have of themselves as trainers when they interact with trainees are essential to their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Bellibas & Liu, 2017; Bordelon et al., 2012; United Nations, 2001).

Self-efficacy strongly predicts performance (Randhawa, 2004; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001) because Bandura (1994) posits that the self-efficacy theory is a psychological phenomenon that is central to the performance of people. In the words of Bandura (1997; p. 3), it is the "belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments". Thus, from this theory, confidence in peoples' abilities to execute a task could lead to successfully accomplishing the task. Conversely, without individuals' belief in the capabilities to accomplish a task, they are unlikely to undertake any activity as they would believe it would not yield any positive results (Tschannen-Moran & Mcmaster, 2009).

A key element of educational research nowadays is trainers' perception of their ability to improve trainees' learning through training activities (Hawkman et al., 2019; Ross & Bruce, 2007). Because self-efficacy is a concept of perceived competence of oneself, trainers' self-efficacy pertains to their ideas about their ability to do tasks in a given setting, rather than an objective assessment of their skill set because of the knowledge and skills they possess (Kappagoda, 2018; Sarfo et al., 2015). Yet, scholarly works indicate that trainers' self-efficacy is critical to their performance; trainers who are low on self-efficacy perceive training tasks as difficult and are unlikely to accomplish such tasks.

However, trainers who are self-efficacious most likely perform better since they believe in their capability to appropriately manage the training

process. Further, when trainers perceive that training has been successfully executed, their efficacy increases. High self-efficacy trainers could be more successful because research has revealed that such trainers can enhance trainees' learning through the performance of training tasks (Bandura, 1995; Bellibas & Liu, 2017; de Boer et al., 2016; Ross & Bruce, 2007). As indicated, self-efficacy originated from the self-efficacy theory. Hence, this present study considered self-efficacy from the perspective of self-efficacy theory.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) affirm that three components exist when it comes to instructors' self-efficacy. They are the conviction in their ability to engage trainees, managing the space in which training is conducted, and delivering instruction. These three are modified as trainee engagement, training room management, and instruction in this study. According to Bellibas and Liu (2017), trainer's confidence in having the ability to control trainee behaviour, convince them to obey rules, and quiet noisy trainees is what constitutes the self-efficacy of training room management.

According to Jang et al. (2010), self-efficacy of trainee engagement demonstrates a trainer's self-assurance in their capacity to inspire trainees and enhance their learning outcomes, which in turn improves the training outcomes. This could be achieved in a number of ways, such as through supporting learners in achieving their learning objectives and persuading them (Watson & Marschall, 2019). The notion that a trainer can carry out a training task by employing different strategies, questioning trainees and answering them, and giving clarifications when needed is known as trainer's instruction self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). According to Christensen and

Menzel (1998), self-efficacy of instruction is centred on improving trainees' intellectual capacities.

Studies conducted indicate that self-efficacy and work-related performance are related positively (Kappagoda, 2018; Randhawa, 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) especially those relating to training (Henson, 2001). Such outcomes are unsurprising because self-efficacy is believed to impact an individual's motivation. Trainer preparation is the actions that are planned and executed as well as behaviours exhibited by a trainer before performing training tasks. Planning courses of action to achieve performance objectives is an outcome of self-efficacy. Also, a trainer's persistence relative to their effort improves their performance. Trainer preparation, which is rooted in the self-regulation theory is one of the theories that underpins this study.

This is because the self-regulation theory is an individual's conscious management of their behaviour and cognition in helping them to attain set goals (Bandura, 2002). It also explains the ability of individuals to control their internal processes, reactions, and feelings in order to suppress their urges and adapt behaviour to attain established goals (Baumeister 1999; Baumeister et al., 1994). Undoubtedly, trainer preparation which is enshrined in the self-regulation theory is important in a trainer's performance of training tasks as it makes them feel more confident and likely to overcome difficulties during training (Bandura, 2002; Caprara et al., 2013; Sehgal et al., 2017; United Nations, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

Even though trainers play a crucial role in employee training, the learning and development literature rarely acknowledges this fact (Ford et al.,

2018; Steiner et al., 1991). Hutchins (2009) similarly notes that there are few studies that obtain trainers' opinions on training elements, despite the significant role they perform in the training process. The majority of research consider reports from trainees, and very few examine employee training from the viewpoints of trainers. Also, in the review of training literature, the experiences of trainers both before and during training are lacking.

More so, even though studies on self-efficacy abound (eg. Hawkman et al., 2019; Poulou et al., 2019; Romi & Leyser, 2006; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Sarfo et al., 2015; Slater & Main, 2020; Toran, 2019), none of them has examined the relationship between employee trainers' training room management, instruction and trainee engagement self-efficacies on trainer performance. Additionally, exploring possible mediating variables between the self-efficacy and job performance variables uncovers additional mechanisms through which self-efficacy and performance function. This could augment the literature while enhancing the understanding of the mechanisms responsible for the self-efficacy and performance nexus (Çetin & Aşkun, 2018; Hur et al., 2021; Miraglia et al., 2017) particularly when it comes to employee training.

However, according to Hur et al. (2021), there are not many studies offering insights on this relationship through mediating mechanisms. These few studies have used variables such as job crafting (Miraglia et al., 2017;), work environment (Abun et al., 2021), motivation (Çetin & Aşkun, 2018) and creativity (Hur et al., 2021) as well as workplace incivility and job anxiety (De Clercq et al., 2018). It is observed from the foregoing that preparation, though

could be vital in the self-efficacy and performance nexus (Ingusci et al., 2019), has not been given much attention.

The few studies (Davis, 2015; Giladi et al., 2022; Hayat et al., 2020; Honicke & Broadbent, 2016; Iheanyichukwu et al., 2017; Iskandar et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 2022) that have used preparation and its related variables like effort and self-regulation as intervening the self-efficacy – performance nexus focused on areas other than employee training. There are, thus, limited studies on preparation and its related variables intervening between trainer self- efficacy and trainer performance.

Furthermore, universities in Ghana remain committed to the training of their employees. The annual budgetary allocation to training and development of employees at the University of Cape Coast (UCC) for instance, increased by 74.2% from 2012 to 2019 (UCC Annual budget, 2012 & 2019). As a result of the investment in employee training, studies abound on the training situation in these universities. They include studies by Agyemang (2012), Andoh et al. (2016), Owusu and Andoh (2021), Antwi et al. (2019) and Segbenya and Berisie (2020).

The study of Agyemang (2012) focused on the training of administrators at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST); Andoh et al. (2016) and Owusu and Andoh (2021) studied performance and training transfer respectively of senior staff administrators at UCC; Antwi et al. (2019) were interested in orientation training of new staff at the University for Development Studies (UDS); and another at the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) by Segbenya and Berisie (2020) that was also about training and the performance of senior staff. It is worth noting that these

studies mainly considered the performance issues of the trainees. Specifically, none was dedicated to the performance of trainers and generally, none focused on trainers.

The inadequacy of information on trainers concerning how the belief in their capabilities of managing training rooms, providing instruction, and engaging trainees affect their performance of training tasks could be detrimental to the employee training efforts of the universities. In particular, trainers may not receive the necessary support to carry out their training activities, which entail providing employees with the knowledge, abilities, and attitudes throughout training, if awareness regarding their self-efficacy in relation to the three dimensions is lacking. Without adequate assistance, trainers used in the universities are unlikely to perform training tasks as expected since they are not full-time trainers. Additionally, since self-efficacy is a situation-specific phenomenon, extending findings from one area to another may be inappropriate (Asare, 2021; Wang et al., 2017).

More so, anecdotal evidence suggests that some employee trainers in universities in Ghana take preparation lightly. This may affect the self-efficacy of the trainers and their performance, but it has not been empirically examined. The foregoing prompted this study which seeks to examine the mediating role of trainer preparation on the effect of trainer self-efficacy (training room management, instruction, and trainee engagement) on performance of employee trainers in universities in Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the mediating role of trainer preparation in the effect trainer self-efficacy has on trainer performance in universities in Ghana.

Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of the study are to examine the:

1. effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance.
2. effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer preparation.
3. effect of trainer preparation on trainer performance.
4. mediating role of trainer preparation on the effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance.

Hypotheses

To achieve the objectives of this study, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1a: Training room management self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H1b: Trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H1c: Instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H2a: Training room management self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.

H2b: Trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.

H2c: Instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.

H3: Trainer preparation has a significant effect on trainer performance.

H4a: The effect of training room management self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation.

H4b: The effect of trainee engagement self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation.

H4c: The effect of instruction self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation.

Significance of the Study

It is anticipated that the study contributes generally, to the literature on learning and development and specifically, employee trainers which are mostly underrepresented in the literature. This would benefit learning and development scholars, practitioners, and students studying human resource development. Again, following this study, the self-efficacy and performance of employee trainers in universities will be brought to light. Specifically, trainee engagement, instruction, and training room management self-efficacies and their effect on trainer performance and preparation will be highlighted in the employee training literature and become the foundation for future studies. Also, this study will impact trainer selection, train-the-trainer programmes, and training policy.

Delimitations of the Study

The study considered only internal trainers in the UCC and UEW, Winneba Campus who had performed training tasks since 2016. Internal trainers who last performed a training task in 2015 were, therefore, excluded

from the study. Likewise, external trainers used by the Universities were omitted from the study. Also, while the Validated Teachers' Job Performance Scale (VTJP) by Ali and Haider (2017) consisted of three dimensions, only one dimension (instructional qualities) was employed to measure trainer performance.

Limitations of the Study

The respondents used are lecturers and administrators who are not appointed as full-time trainers. Though they are academics and administrators, they are used as trainers because of their expertise and experience. This could impact the generalisability of the findings that were obtained in this study. In addition, most of the respondents are either fulltime or part-time lecturers who teach regularly. This could influence the responses they provided in the study. Another limitation that could affect the generalisability of the revelations made in this study is the use of only internal trainers as respondents. Caution must, therefore, be taken in generalising the revelations of this study to all trainers including external trainers.

Also, due to resource constraints, trainers from two universities in Ghana were used in the study which could impact how universities in Ghana are represented. More so, even though the data for this study was garnered from two universities, the data analyses and results of this study were done and presented as a composite without segregation to reveal the self-efficacy and performance situation in each university.

Definition of Terms

Trainer self-efficacy: The feelings and beliefs a trainer has of themselves regarding their abilities to perform training tasks to bring about

trainees' learning. A high trainer self-efficacy implies a trainer's feelings and beliefs of having the capabilities of performing a training task. A low trainer self-efficacy is the reverse.

Training room management self-efficacy: It involves a trainer's belief in their ability to effectively manage the room training is held mainly by regulating the behaviour of the trainees using means like getting trainees to follow rules and calming trainees that are disruptive during a training session.

Trainee engagement self-efficacy: It is an aspect of trainer self-efficacy that reflects a trainer's confidence in their ability to motivate trainees during the performance of training tasks so that trainees fully participate in the training session.

Instruction self-efficacy: This involves a trainers' perceptions of being able to perform a training task through the use of varying delivery strategies to get trainees to assimilate the training content during a training session.

Trainer preparation: The actions trainers take in readiness for an impending training task to be performed. Such actions include planning, looking up information and materials, making lesson plans, and rehearsing.

Trainer performance: This is the behaviour and actions directly under the control of a trainer when executing training tasks during a training session but are relevant to the contracting organisation in meeting its goals (Koopmans et al., 2013).

Organisation of the Study

This research report has five chapters; from chapters one to five. Chapter one is the introductory chapter. The background, statement of the problem, the purpose, objectives and hypotheses are presented in this chapter.

Other components of the chapter are the study's significance, delimitations, study limitations, terms' definition, and organisation of the study. The second chapter, Chapter two, is dedicated to the literature review. Specifically, theoretical reviews, conceptual reviews, reviews of related empirical studies, and conceptual framework make up the chapter.

Chapter three is the methods section of the research which comprise the research paradigm, research approach, research design, and study units. Also contained in chapter three are the population, technique for sampling, criteria for inclusion and exclusion, data collection instrument, data collection procedures, and data processing and analyses. Lastly, ethical considerations are presented. Chapter four mainly deals with the results and the discussion. Chapter five is about the summary, key findings, conclusions, recommendations, and directions for future studies.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section of the thesis presents a review of the literature related to the mediating role of trainer preparation on the effect of trainers' self-efficacy has on performance. The self-efficacy and self-regulation theories that underpin this study have been reviewed. The principal concepts of the study; self-efficacy, preparation, and performance have also been reviewed. In addition, relevant empirical studies have been reviewed. Lastly, the conceptual framework that guided this study has been presented.

Theoretical Review

Two theories underpin this study of trainers' self-efficacy, preparation and performance. The theories are the self-efficacy theory which evolved from the works of Bandura and the self-regulation theory which is also influenced by Bandura and Baumeister. The origin of the theories, tenets and their evolution have been reviewed. In addition, the relevance of the theories to this study, as well as the objectives each theory supports, have been emphasised.

Self-efficacy Theory

The Self-efficacy Theory (SET) originated from the work of Bandura in 1977. According to Abun et al. (2021), SET has its root in Social Learning Theory (SLT) which became Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). According to Bandura (1994), self-efficacy is a psychological phenomenon that is central to the performance of people. Ryerson (2008) averred that the SET is underpinned by individuals' belief in their abilities to perform. Thus, individuals who are confident in having the capabilities to execute a task could succeed in accomplishing the task. Conversely, Tschannen-Moran and

Mcmaster (2009) add that without individuals' confidence in their abilities to perform, they are unlikely to undertake any activity as they would believe it would not yield any positive results. Notably, being highly self-efficacious could lead to complacency which could affect the effort expended in executing a task (Bandura & Locke, 2003). As a result, self-efficacy is thought to have an influence on the effort made toward executing a task.

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy stems from four sources. That is mastery experience (past accomplishment), vicarious experience (modelling), verbal persuasion (social persuasion), and emotional state (affective state). Mastery experience involves how behaviour towards a task and its accomplishment affect self-efficacy (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996). Thus, when people are able to learn the skills and create adaptive strategies to master the behaviours required to finish assigned task, their self-efficacy is enhanced or strengthened (Gist, 1987; van Rooij et al., 2019). Repeated successes especially through difficult circumstances firmly establish self-efficacy whereas repeated failures undermine it. However, when repeated success is achieved easily, self-efficacy tends to be fragile and reduced in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1977). In the view of Bandura (1997), mastery experience is the most compelling evidence to individuals that they have what it takes to successfully accomplish a task or not.

Vicarious experience is a case of individuals situating their capabilities within a social context to develop and or increase their self-efficacy. Individuals in doing this (1) observe other individuals perform a task without adverse effects which creates a belief in the observing individuals that they can do the same. In this case, a negative effect on the model reduces the

observer's belief in successfully executing the task. (2) compare their capabilities in relation to others who possess the capabilities they aspire which becomes the benchmark for those individuals in determining their self-efficacy. Sense of efficacy becomes heightened when the capabilities are superior to those they compare with and becomes low when capabilities are believed to be below the comparative standard (Bandura, 1977, 1997).

Verbal persuasion is a situation where individuals are made to believe through word of mouth that they can overcome obstacles that they couldn't surmount with respect to a specific task in the past. According to Bandura (1997), verbal persuasion alone has its limitation in enhancing self-efficacy because Bandura (1977) asserts that it only raises expectations of outcomes and does not enhance self-efficacy on its own. However, it is believed that when used strategically, such as combining words of affirmation with the provision of aids to effectively execute a task, self-efficacy is enhanced (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996; Bandura, 1977). Knowledge of the persuader in relation to the individual being persuaded and the task to be executed as well as their credibility is critical in the persuasion and so it is effective when it comes from the individual's social circle (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

According to Gist (1987), the emotional or affective state influences the perception individuals have of their self-efficacy. Negative emotions including stress, fear, and pain undermine individuals' self-efficacy because when the individuals experience any of these, they tend to believe that they do not have the capabilities to perform. Conversely, optimistic feelings like confidence and excitement boost people's sense of self-efficacy (Bandura,

1977, 1997; van Rooij et al., 2019). Appelbaum and Hare (1996), thus, aver that when individuals reduce their negative emotions or improve their physical condition, self-efficacy becomes enhanced.

It is believed that individuals gradually acquire and consolidate self-efficacy beliefs through a never-ending influence of the sources of information for self-efficacy (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996). Bandura (1997) mentions that this is done through a weighting and integration method with the weight assigned to each source of the efficacy information varying based on the domain of functioning. Bandura adds that individuals in forming their efficacy apply varying integration rules. As a result, some individuals combine efficacy-relevant factors additively, a relative weighting rule, multiplicative-combinative rule, or combine efficacy-relevant factors in a configural manner.

Concerning the order of importance of the self-efficacy sources, mastery experience was over the years viewed as the source which influenced self-efficacy the most. This was followed by vicarious experience. After vicarious experience was verbal persuasion as the next influential. Emotional state was the least influential of the factors (Bandura, 1977, 1994; Gist, 1987). However, the aforementioned order has been contested in recent times. Watson and Marschall (2019) for example, have established that verbal persuasion and vicarious experience are the most significant causes of developing confidence in oneself, particularly for early-stage teacher trainees. Likewise, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) indicated that verbal persuasion is the most influential source of self-efficacy for early-career teachers.

van Rooij et al. (2019) have also found that mastery experience and positive emotional states were significant sources of self-efficacy, but

vicarious experience, social persuasion, and negative emotional state were not significant sources of self-efficacy to teacher trainees. More so, Wang et al. (2017) confirmed that the four earlier mentioned sources are valid but are not enough in explaining self-efficacy from the perspective of instructors. They, therefore, have added three more non-psychologically inclined sources of self-efficacy. The three new sources are knowledge about students, rapport with them, and past work experiences. It is worthy of note that the contrary findings as enumerated earlier are related to teaching at the pre-tertiary level. The foregoing questions the universality, sufficiency, and the order in which the sources influence self-efficacy. This has led Appelbaum and Hare (1996) to affirm that each of the factors has peculiar significance when efficacy beliefs are being applied to work settings.

According to Watson and Marschall (2019), the dimensions of trainer self-efficacy develop sequentially. Self-efficacy of training room management develops first and is followed by self-efficacy of trainee engagement. According to them, instruction self-efficacy develops later with experience. These self-efficacy dimensions have implications for the performance of trainers. Thus, the role of SET in this study as the theory that underpins the relationship between self-efficacy of trainers and performance as well as trainers' self-efficacy and preparation. Self-efficacy is vital to the job behaviours of trainers (Koçoğlu, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007); that is, trainers' performance of trainers tasks. Self-efficacy is also vital in terms of the preparation trainers make when they have employee training programmes to facilitate. This based on the premise that planning and preparing for tasks

are outcomes of the self-efficacy of individuals (Schunk, 1995). Put differently, self-efficacy influences preparation.

Self-regulation Theory

Self-regulation theory (SRT) was propounded by Bandura (1986). Fundamentally, it is an individual's conscious management of their behaviour and cognition in helping them attain set goals (Bandura, 2002). Bandura (1991) postulates that self-regulation comprises three processes namely; self-monitoring (an individual's observation of their behaviour), judgement (an individual's evaluation of their behaviour against set goals), and self-reaction (an individual's emotional response after making a judgement). According to Hernández (2021), in self-regulation, individuals ensure that they put up behaviours that lead to only positive self-reaction.

A major contributor to SRT is Baumeister who similarly explains that SRT is the ability of individuals to control their internal processes, reactions, and feelings in order to suppress their urges and adapt behaviour to attain established goals (Baumeister 1999; Baumeister et al., 1994). According to Baumeister et al. (1994), SRT has three components. They are (1) standard – well-defined criteria against which behaviour is measured; (2) monitoring – observing behaviour to ensure the standard is/will be met and; (3) willpower – the strength or energy required to proceed with self-regulation. Baumeister and Vohs (2007) have added a fourth component which is motivation – caring about attaining the goal. Motivation is the driving force behind self-regulation. Without it, self-regulation will fail even when there are standards, monitoring, and willpower (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007).

From the two perspectives of the influencers of SRT, it could be deduced that self-regulation is about self-influence, goal setting, capacity, intention, monitoring, and promoting effort (Alnakhli et al., 2020; Kuntz & Gomes, 2012; Ozhiganova, 2018; Trevelyan, 2011). In light of this, Lyons and Bandura (2018) aver that self-regulation is a proactive, deliberate and person-centred approach that makes use of drive, goal-setting, and effort management. Na-Nan and Saribut (2020) add that it is people's behaviour devoid of the influences of reinforcement, punishment, and the external environment.

Thus, self-regulation is about an individual being the sole agent in shaping their life by prioritising activities and behaviours that enable them to attain their desired targets (Abraham & Sheeran, 2000; de Ridder & de Wit, 2006). This becomes possible if the goal to be attained is meaningful and the individual can execute the required actions (Mischel et al., 1996). de Ridder and de Wit (2006) add that successful self-regulation depends on good planning and sufficient self-instruction to carry out plans. In addition, Kuntz and Gomes (2012) and Ozhiganova (2018) affirm that self-regulation spans an individual's deliberate control of cognition, emotion, behaviour, and or attention by deliberately using particular mechanisms to guide one's self through a particular path to the desired goal. According to de Ridder and de Wit (2006), its key feature is the process of pursuing goals which are characterised by efforts amidst temptations and obstacles.

According to Kanar (2017), the goal pursuit procedure contains numerous phases. Among the phases are goal setting and goal striving (efforts and actions) which are distinct. The distinction as revealed by Kanar is that

goal setting deals with what an individual wants to achieve, whereas goal striving is focused on how the individual tries to achieve the goal set. Zimmerman (2002, p. 66) recommends strategies such as "setting specific proximal goals for oneself; adopting powerful strategies for attaining the goals; monitoring one's performance selectively for signs of progress; restructuring one's physical and social context to make it compatible with one's goals; managing one's time use efficiently; self-evaluating one's methods; attributing causation to results; adapting future methods" for learners' self-regulation. These strategies, however, are generic and not peculiar to learners. Everyone, including trainers, can use them as self-regulation strategies.

In the view of Zeidner et al. (2000), there is significant confusion surrounding self-regulation, with numerous definitions and concepts across various fields of study. The term is often used differently, with various terms like self-regulation, self-control, effort, and self-regulated learning being used to describe the same concept. Haslam et al. (2019) also allude to the confusion regarding the conceptualisation of self-regulation. The aforementioned makes the theory lack universality as every field of study have their unique conceptualisation making its application field-specific.

According to de Ridder and de Wit (2006), SRT is relevant in learning and organisational behaviour contexts even though it has been used extensively in health behaviour studies. Kuhl et al. (2006) on their part also indicate that it is relevant in situations where job performance is being emphasised. More so, trainer preparation is a goal-striving phenomenon in which a trainer takes charge of their cognition and behaviour before executing

a training task so that they can perform an assigned training task (Kanar, 2017; Manz, 1986). It is worthy of note that self-regulation hinges on being self-efficacious (Schunk, 1995). Hence, without self-efficacy, self-regulation may not lead to the execution of tasks.

Feeling efficacious and having an expectation to do well in a particular task fuels effort intensification for the task (Eden & Aviram, 1992). In this regard, a trainer without reinforcement, punishment, or any influence in the external environment intentionally sets a goal and strives to attain the goal by controlling their efforts and monitoring themselves. This is done so that they will be able to perform training tasks (Alnakhli et al., 2020; Lyons & Bandura, 2018; Na-Nan & Saribut, 2020; Ozhiganova, 2018; Trevelyan, 2011).

Furthermore, even though self-efficacy is a vital characteristic for self-regulation as self-beliefs influence the behaviour choices towards tasks and the amount of effort exerted for job performance (Lunenburg, 2011; Mooi, 2006), Hur et al. (2021) assert that individuals who have high self-efficacy can be complacent with the time and effort spent in achieving their goals which can affect their performance adversely. The foregoing is the reason SRT is adopted as the theoretical backing of the trainers' preparation – performance connection and the mediating role played by trainer preparation in the trainer self-efficacy – performance link.

Conceptual Review

The major concepts such as self-efficacy, preparation and performance as used in this study have been comprehensively reviewed below. Concerning the self-efficacy concept, the review bordered on self-efficacy itself, the types of self-efficacy together with trainer self-efficacy and its types. The review of

preparation consisted of trainer preparation and types of trainer preparation. Regarding performance, job performance; dimensions of job performance; and trainer job performance were reviewed.

Self-efficacy

In the words of Bandura (1997; p. 3), "self-efficacy refers to belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments". This description of self-efficacy excludes how the belief in individuals' capabilities comes about. Eriksen et al. (2021), thus, aver that it is an individual's valuation of their aptitudes with respect to performance standards in a field of endeavour. Like that of Bandura, this is also missing the outcomes of the assessment made by the individual. These two assertions provide a complementary view of self-efficacy. From these two definitions, self-efficacy can be said to be the confidence individuals have in their abilities to finish a given task following a self-assessment.

According to Maddux and Kleiman (2014), self-efficacy is not a trait nor is it an ability. Putting it differently, Watson and Marschall (2019) indicate that it is a context-specific phenomenon and no individual has self-efficacy as a general characteristic. More so, it is not constant, it varies based on new information (Wilde & Hsu, 2019). The foregoing implies that no individual can claim to be having self-efficacy. People can only be self-efficacious about some tasks they believe they possess the capabilities that are required to execute after assessing their skill sets in relation to the said tasks.

Types of Self-efficacy

Broadly, two types of self-efficacy are emphasised in the literature. They are general and specific self-efficacies (Pajares, 1996; Ryerson, 2008).

According to Wilde and Hsu (2019), both types give an individual a variety of self-efficacies about themselves at any point in time. General self-efficacy sometimes labelled global, overall, or composite self-efficacy (Asare, 2021; Putwain & von der Embse, 2019; Ryerson, 2008) is the belief of people in their capabilities to execute general tasks (Ryerson, 2008). Pajares (1996) identifies a weakness with this type of efficacy because it deals with people's confidence in their abilities to perform tasks without being specific with any task. This criticism stems from the position of Bandura (1986) that self-efficacy is context-specific even though he indicates that self-efficacy once established may be generalised to similar tasks.

This notwithstanding, Schwoerer et al. (2005) postulate that general self-efficacy is important because it is the base upon which specific self-efficacy is built. Shelton (1990) also adds that the self-efficacy concept can be thought of as being general. It is also to be noted that in some situations, scholars (Asare, 2021; Pajares, 1996; Putwain & von der Embse, 2019; Tsigilis et al., 2019) use general, composite, or overall self-efficacy because they combined the various dimensions of a specific self-efficacy. Although others (Hur et al., 2021; Kale, 2020; Miraglia et al., 2017) use general self-efficacy on its own; without combing any of the dimensions of a specific self-efficacy.

Specific self-efficacy also known as task-specific self-efficacy (Schwab, 2019; Wilde & Hsu, 2019), job-specific self-efficacy (Putwain & von der Embse, 2019) or work-specific self-efficacy according to Schwoerer et al. (2005) is the belief individuals have that they have the capability to execute a particular task at a point in time (Wilde & Hsu, 2019). Examples of

specific self-efficacy include teaching self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Schwab, 2019; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007;), lecturing self-efficacy (Griffioen et al., 2013), and sales self-efficacy (Ryerson, 2008).

Specific self-efficacy usually has several dimensions and this is where the multidimensionality of self-efficacy (Deemer & Minke, 1999; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007) is manifested. The totality of the dimensions of specific self-efficacy is what makes up a specific self-efficacy. For instance, sales self-efficacy has giving, getting, using and planning self-efficacies as its dimensions (Ryerson, 2008). Similarly, research and teaching self-efficacies make up the dimensions of lecturing self-efficacy (Griffioen et al., 2013). The dimensions of self-efficacy highlight the specificity of self-efficacy Bandura talks about (Pajares, 1996). One could argue based on the aforementioned that specific self-efficacy such as sales self-efficacy should be considered as general self-efficacy and its dimensions be considered as specific self-efficacy.

Grether et al. (2018) also identify domain-specific self-efficacy which Schutte & Malouff (2016) label as realm-specific self-efficacy as one that comes in between general and specific self-efficacies. According to them, domain-specific self-efficacy is a form of self-efficacy an individual has in a particular location such as the workplace or at home. With this, an individual believes in their capabilities to function for example at work. Rigotti et al. (2008) identify work domain self-efficacy as occupational self-efficacy. In its loose form, domain-specific self-efficacy can be classified as a form of general self-efficacy in that it is general only that it is restricted by location.

From the foregoing, the types of self-efficacy may be categorised into three levels; i.e., macro, meso and micro levels of self-efficacy. In this regard,

general self-efficacy could be considered as being the macro level self-efficacy, specific self-efficacy could also be considered at the meso level and lastly, dimensions of specific self-efficacy could be considered at the micro level.

Trainer Self-efficacy

A trainer's self-efficacy involves their belief in having the abilities to execute certain training activities at a specific level and situation (Dellinger et al., 2008). Notably, Goddard et al. (2004) advocate the use of a trainer's sense of efficacy instead of trainer self-efficacy because the latter gives an impression of actual competence instead of a perception of competence. Although trainer self-efficacy is used in the current research, it is operationalised as a trainer's belief in their capabilities to connote a trainer's sense of efficacy, efficacy judgement, perception of efficacy, efficacy beliefs, or perceptions of efficacy as indicated by Goddard et al. (2004). Hence, the definition above.

Trainers come in various varieties. Teachers are those who instruct students at the pre-tertiary education level; professors, lecturers or university teachers are those who instruct students at higher education institutions; and employee trainers are those who instruct staff members. According to Wyatt (2014), they make information more accessible, motivate particpants to build analytical skills, make sure the setting is favourable for learning, and promote the kinds of interactions that are essential for learning. However, because of the variations in the participants (trainees), duration, setting, and training aim, there are basic disparities in how each of them approach training.

While there is an agreement that trainer self-efficacy is vital to the job behaviours of trainers (Koçoğlu, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), scholars associate different dimensions with this specific self-efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Putman (2012) for instance, mentions two dimensions; general and personal teaching efficacy. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) have come up with a six-dimensional trainer self-efficacy comprising adapting, discipline, motivating, instruction, coping, and cooperating. Overbaugh and Lu (2008) also espoused four dimensions of trainer self-efficacy as follows; course delivery method and media, technology and process/learning, curriculum standards and product/productivity. Tschannen-Moran et al (1998) also have three dimensions namely, instruction, student engagement and classroom management self-efficacies.

Several criticisms have been labelled against the trainer self-efficacy dimensions enumerated. The main criticism is that the dimensions are not a true reflection of the everyday or core activities of all trainers and in all contexts (Wyatt, 2014). Putman (2012), however, opines that the diverse dimensions of trainer self-efficacy are a result of the complex and multifaceted nature of trainer self-efficacy. Despite all these, Wyatt (2016) singles out the three dimensions by Tschannen-Moran et al (1998) as ground-breaking. Most importantly, Wyatt (2014) indicates that they are the dimensions that are used by all trainers in all subjects/courses and all contexts.

The foregoing implies that instruction, engagement and room management are the basic tasks of all trainers in all contexts on a typical day. Consequently, these dimensions have become the most popular of all the trainer self-efficacy dimensions (Babaei & Abednia, 2016). These three

dimensions as a result have been adapted in this research as instruction, trainee engagement and training room management self-efficacies. This is to reflect employee trainers' tasks during employee training.

Training room management self-efficacy: According to van der Want et al. (2019), self-efficacy of training room management involves a trainer's belief in being able to maintain order in the room training is held. Watson and Marschall (2019) put it as a trainer's belief in managing the behaviour of trainees and being in control of the training room. In managing trainees' behaviour and establishing control, Bellibas and Liu (2017) indicate that it includes a trainer having the belief in being able to outline expectations of trainees' behaviour, getting trainees to be orderly, and calming noisy trainees during training a session.

Trainee engagement self-efficacy: According to Jang et al. (2010) and van der Want et al. (2019), this self-efficacy is linked to trainers' belief in their capacity to inspire and involve learners to enhance their learning outcomes and, as a result, the training results. This could be achieved in a number of ways, such as through supporting learners in achieving their learning objectives and persuading them (Watson & Marschall, 2019).

Instruction self-efficacy: This involves trainers' beliefs in their ability to execute training tasks via different instructional techniques and alternating them depending on the situation (van der Want et al., 2019; Watson & Marschall, 2019). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) assert that a trainer that has self-efficacy in instruction asks trainees questions, responds to their queries, and provides explanations to trainees when required. Overall, Christensen and Menzel (1998) indicate that instruction self-efficacy is the

belief of a trainer in having the capabilities to enhance trainees' abilities in the execution of training tasks. According to Watson and Marschall (2019), the dimensions of trainer self-efficacy develop sequentially. Self-efficacy of training room management develops first and is followed by self-efficacy of trainee engagement. According to them, instruction self-efficacy develops later with experience.

Trainer Preparation

Trainer preparation as mentioned by Noe (2010) is also referred to as trainer planning (Ruiz, 2009). Others also combine the two -planning and preparation- as one phenomenon (Haynes, 2010; Straessle, 2014) while others such as Stronge (2007) use planning and organising. It is action-oriented and critical to the performance of every training task. Goad (1997) touts it as one of the essentials of being an effective trainer. According to Haynes (2010), it is the first thing in the activity line-up of a trainer when performing a training task.

Trainer preparation is the actions executed and behaviours exhibited by a trainer before performing training tasks which according to Na-Nan and Saribut (2020), is done without any external influence. Irrespective of the type of training being executed, be it trainer-centred or trainee-centred training (Management Sciences for Health, 2012), preparation is important in effectively executing training tasks as it makes a trainer feel more confident and likely to overcome difficulties during training (United Nations, 2001). Preparation is a deliberate process and through that, a trainer is able to control him/herself to perform training tasks (Jaeger & Adair, 2018; Kuntz & Gomes, 2012).

Preparation has a time dimension in that it is done before performing a training task and according to Management Sciences for Health (2012), time spent in preparation for a training task is time well spent. The trainer is the sole agent in this endeavour and uses a prioritisation of particular mechanisms such as organisation of the environment and reflection in the preparatory process to enhance job performance (Abraham & Sheeran, 2000; Bandura, 2006; de Ridder & de Wit, 2006; Kuntz & Gomes, 2012). In simple terms, it is self-determined, self-centred, and uses an independently developed plan of activities that would enable a trainer to perform a training task as expected. This makes trainer preparation a goal-striving activity for a trainer (Kanar, 2017). In most cases, it culminates in a lesson plan (Jensen, 2001; Noe, 2010; Ruiz, 2009) which is a document prepared by the trainers that serve as a guide to him/her on what and how trainees are to learn.

An important feature of trainer preparation is that it is ongoing and keeps evolving (Department of Education, 2021). This is attributed to continuously having new knowledge about trainees, reviewing the performance of previous training tasks, and variations in self-efficacy beliefs during and after training. These make trainer preparation a cyclical activity (Department of Education, 2021; Haynes, 2010). Thus, the Department of Education (2021) avers that preparation can take place before, during, and after performing a training task. This makes preparation a never-ending activity. This, however, does not nullify preparation as a time-bound activity done before performing a training task. In this regard, preparation done during and after training is mainly to improve the next training task to be performed.

Types of Trainer Preparation

According to the Department of Education (2021), there are three types of trainers' preparation. They are invisible preparation, visible preparation, and recorded preparation.

Invisible preparation: Invisible preparation is a type of preparation in which a trainer continuously reflects on their knowledge of trainees, experiences, content knowledge, engagement with the social environment (colleagues, trainees, supervisors of trainees, etc.), and the content (topic) to be delivered to make decisions about the training task to be performed (Department of Education, 2021). This form of preparation, mainly a mental activity, serves as the foundation for visible and recorded preparations.

Visible preparation: This form of preparation is action-based and ensures that efforts are made by a trainer to provide appropriate learning experiences for trainees in the performance of training tasks (Department of Education, 2021). In this type of preparation, a trainer looks up information and materials for the training session, rehearses them, and gets familiar with the training environment, as well as the equipment to be used for the training (Department of Education, 2021; Management Sciences for Health, 2012; Noe, 2010).

Recorded preparation: According to the Department of Education (2021), recorded preparation is any documentation made and or used by a trainer to help him/her perform a training task. Examples are the prepared content or training/lesson plan, personal notes, and documents from colleagues and the organisation whose employees' training is being organised for

(Department of Education, 2021; Management Sciences for Health, 2012; Noe, 2010).

Department of Education (2021) considers these types of preparation as complementary and should be done simultaneously. It can thus, be added that they are mutually inclusive. This is because all the types of preparation need to be done by a trainer for their successful performance of a training task. A trainer cannot prioritise one type of preparation to the neglect of the other and expect to successfully execute a training task since according to the Department of Education (2021), they are valued in equal measure.

In the strictest sense, visible preparation and recorded preparation could be categorised as one because a recorded activity is visible. Ruiz (2009) also mentions pre-planning preparation. This is akin to invisible preparation and could be categorised as such since invisible preparation like pre-planning, involves what a trainer does before commencing the preparation itself. Jensen (2001) also has come up with two categorisations of preparation; micro preparation and macro preparation.

In the view of Jensen (2001), micro preparation is the preparatory activities a trainer does a few hours before a training session. It usually starts the night before the training and is largely about finetuning the preparations earlier made. Macro preparation on the other hand involves all the other preparatory activities before finetuning begins. Like the aforementioned types of preparation by the Department of Education (2021), Jenson (2001) indicates that both micro and macro preparation are requirements for an effective training session.

The foregoing categorisations of trainer preparation by Department of Education (2021) and Jensen (2001) are not entirely different but are complementary. Whereas invisible, visible, and recorded preparations have their focus on the type of preparatory activities done by a trainer, micro and macro preparation tend to emphasise the time preparation is done. In this regard, it is prudent that a trainer engages in all preparations as posited by Department of Education and Jensen for the successful performance of a training task.

Job Performance

Job performance is of high relevance to organisations just as it is to individual employees (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). It is a key element of human resource management as well as work and organisational psychology (Fogaça et al., 2018; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). In the literature, performance, productivity, presenteeism, employee performance, individual work performance, work performance, and perceived job performance are used interchangeably in reference to job performance (Bhat & Beri, 2016; Koopmans et al., 2014). Irrespective of which name is used, it is the basis for the achievement of organisational objectives as well as the sustainability of organisations (Limon & Sezgin-Nartgün, 2020). Without job performance, there will be no need for any organisation to be in existence.

In terms of what job performance entails, two schools of thought exist. This is confirmed by Limon and Sezgin-Nartgün (2020) with the postulation that job performance is thought to be either employee behaviour or the result of the behaviour. Sonnentag et al. (2008) similarly classify this categorisation as process and outcome respectively. The behaviour/process means what

employees do at work whereas the outcomes/results mean the effect of what they do at work.

Fogaça et al. (2018) emphasise that the behavioural aspect of job performance is concerned with what the individual employees do in the work situation and the outcome deals with the consequences of the behaviour. Fogaça et al. (2018) add that in the job performance literature, as a result of this categorisation, there has been a consensus that whenever job performance is used, there should be clarity as to whether the behavioural aspect or the outcome aspect is being referred to. Sonnentag and Frese (2002) also make a similar claim about the agreement of differentiation between behaviour and outcome aspects of performance in the literature. What this means is that in the literature, job performance is seen as a dichotomous concept. Which is to say the two concepts are mutually exclusive.

There is, however, a preference for job performance to focus on the behavioural aspect instead of the outcome aspect. Fogaça et al. (2018) for instance, argue that the behaviour aspect should be used to define job performance and not the results aspect. Similarly, Koopmans and colleagues who have one of the most popular and extensive works on individual work performance (Koopmans et al., 2013, 2014; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019) assert that individual work performance is explained relative to employees' behaviours and not the results of their actions. Others, including Bhat and Beri (2016) and Limon and Sezgin-Nartgün (2020) also look at job performance from the behavioural perspective.

Consequently, Fogaça et al. (2018) conceptualise job performance as all work-related behaviours engaged in by employees that meet organisational

objectives. Koopmans et al. (2013) add that the focus of individual work performance is the work behaviours that are influenced directly by individual employees. Thus, once work behaviours fall outside the direct control of employees, they should not be considered individual work performance. An observation made by Fogaça et al. (2018) is that scholars view the result aspect of job performance to go beyond the control of individual employees. What this portends is that generally, job performance, whether behavioural or outcome-oriented is within the control of individual employees but according to Sonnentag et al. (2008), must be goal-oriented.

The view of scholars on job performance as a dichotomous concept; either behaviour or results should be further interrogated. This is because the conceptualisation of behaviour and results aspects of job performance should make the two categorisations complementary and more importantly, a continuum. This is on the basis that the work-related behaviour aspect of job performance has as a consequence, the result aspect. Thus, without the behaviour aspect, the result aspect of job performance is not possible. The definition of Na-Nan and Sanamthong (2020) that employee job performance is a reflection of the work output of individuals, departments, and organisations highlights this position. More so, Sonnentag and Frese (2002) question the practicality of this dichotomy. According to them, it is arduous to talk about the behavioural aspect of performance without referring to the result aspect.

Sonnentag et al. (2008), however, provide some clarity that though the two aspects are related, they do not completely overlap because the outcome aspect is determined by factors other than the behaviour aspect. The outcome

could be determined by factors beyond the individual employees or their direct control. For instance, Fogaça et al. (2018) posit that job performance is not independent of social, cultural, demographic, job, and organisational conditions. Sonnentag et al. (2008) also make a similar assertion. This could be the reason why scholars emphasise that job performance must only be directly under the influence of individual employees.

The definition of job performance by Na-Nan and Sanamthong (2020) also brings to question, the assertion of Fogaça et al. (2018) that individual employee performance differs from group/team and organisational performance. This assertion, though true to some extent, cannot be accepted in its entirety because individual employee performance contributes to group/team, departmental, and organisational performance. As posited by Na-Nan and Sanamthong (2020), the performance of individual employees reflects the performance of departmental and organisational performance. Additionally, Sonnentag et al. (2008) indicate that the performance of tasks contributes to organisational performance. Furthermore, Sonnentag and Frese (2002) opine that organisations need employees to perform to achieve their goals.

Dimensions of Job Performance

The multi-dimensional nature of job performance is acknowledged and agreed upon in the performance literature. The dimensions of job performance, however, seem to keep evolving. For example, Sonnentag and Frese (2002) affirmed that the dimensions of job performance are two; task and contextual performance. Sonnentag et al. (2008) on their part posited that the dimensions were three. They included task, contextual, and adaptive performance. In

addition to the three dimensions of job performance indicated by Sonnentag et al. (2008), Koopmans et al. (2013, 2014) added counterproductive work behaviour as a fourth dimension. On the contrary, Ramos-Villagrasa et al. (2019) mention task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviours as the three dimensions of job performance.

Task performance: Task performance involves fulfilling the requirements enshrined in the agreement between the employee and employer. Thus, it is an in-role behaviour that is enforceable because it is included in the job description and also the reward system established in the organisation (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Its focus is on proficiency in performing the core technical components of the work using work quantity, quality, and time (Koopmans et al., 2014; Na-Nan & Sanamthong, 2020). Hence, it is subject to employee skills and abilities (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). From the perspective of Koopmans et al. (2013), task performance encompasses planning and organising work, result-oriented behaviour, prioritising and efficient working.

Contextual performance: This dimension of job behaviour emphasises that task performance needs to be complemented by exhibiting extra-role behaviours that are not enforceable and included in the formal reward systems but ensure that the organisation is conducive for other positive work behaviours (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). According to Borman and Motowidlo (1997), it is a catalyst for task performance. This encompasses a wide range of behaviours. They include volunteering, helping and cooperating with others, taking on challenging work tasks, and providing

solutions to novel problems (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Koopmans et al., 2013).

Adaptive performance: This dimension of job performance has been a response to the changes that keep occurring in the work environment as a result of technology and socio-cultural dynamics. Thus, Park and Park (2019) view adaptive performance as a reflection of employees' need to adapt to the changes that occur in work-related settings. Park and Park (2019) add that the knowledge, skills, and ability of individual employees are vital to their adaptive performance. Also, job characteristics (for instance, job resources and job demand), group characteristics (e.g., support from colleagues and supervisors), and organisational characteristics (e.g., climate for innovation) are contextual factors that affect adaptive performance, they add.

An important thing to note about adaptive performance is that in developing a validated scale for the measurement of employee work performance, Koopmans et al. (2013) demonstrated that it was not a dimension of job performance on its own. It was an aspect of contextual performance as both of them are extra-role behaviours that support the core technical functions to be performed easily. According to them, the difference is that contextual performance emphasises proactive work behaviours whereas adaptive emphasises reactive behaviours. Koopmans et al. (2013), however, caution that it must not be discarded as a standalone dimension of work behaviour because it's a relatively new dimension. Adaptive performance must, therefore, be further investigated.

Counterproductive work behaviour: This form of employee behaviour is not desirable in the work setting. They are employee actions that are

detractions from the organisational well-being and bring negative consequences to the organisation (Koopmans et al., 2013, 2014; Ones & Dilchert, 2013). According to Ones and Dilchert, (2013), they add to the financial costs of organisations and so are of concern to both the stakeholders and shareholders of the organisation. Ones and Dilchert give examples of counterproductive work behaviour to include absenteeism, aggression, discrimination, destruction of assets, bullying, abusive supervision, harassment, fraud, blackmailing, theft and pilfering, lying, and kickbacks. These examples show that as indicated by Koopmans et al. (2013) and Anjum and Parvez (2013), counterproductive work behaviour consists of minor and serious issues and also occurs at the interpersonal and organisational levels.

Trainer Job Performance

According to Bhat and Beri (2016), trainer performance is made up of three dimensions. They are task, contextual, and adaptive performance. This is corroborated by Limon and Sezgin-Nartgün (2020). Similarly, Yusoff et al. (2014) established that the job performance scale developed by Goodman and Svyantek which consisted of two broad dimensions (task and contextual performance) had the psychometric properties to be used as a job performance scale for trainers.

On the contrary, the trainer job performance scale developed and validated by Ali and Haider (2017) comprised three dimensions namely; instructional qualities, professional qualities, and personal qualities. Likewise, Shahzad et al. (2016) developed and validated six dimensions of trainer job performance. They were knowledge of work, power of expression, work output and quality, supervision and guidance, analytical ability and ability to

take decisions. In the scale developed and validated by Hanif and Pervez (2004) trainers' job performance scale consisted of four dimensions. The dimensions were management skills, interpersonal skills, discipline and regularity, and teaching skills.

From the foregoing, it would be superficially argued that there is no a greement on the dimensions of trainer job performance. However, a critical examination of the various dimensions by Ali and Haider (2017), Hanif and Pervez (2004) and Shahzad et al. (2016) show that they are performances that are behavioural. More specifically, they point towards the task performance of trainers to a greater extent as virtually the various dimensions are in-role behaviours. For example, discipline and regularity, analytical ability and instructional qualities are all in-role behaviours.

It is, therefore, safe to say that trainer job performance comprises task and contextual performance depending on whether one wants to view adaptive performance as part of contextual performance. However, if one would want to maintain contextual and adaptive performance as independent dimensions, then trainer job performance would encompass task, contextual, and adaptive performances. An observation worthy of highlighting is the absence of counterproductive work behaviour dimension in all the trainer job performance dimensions. This gives the impression that trainers do not engage in undesirable work behaviours which is highly unlikely. This could, however, be because it has not been studied and would be interesting if researchers investigated it.

Review of Related Empirical Studies

The review of empirical studies was thematised according to the objectives of the study. Thus, related empirical studies of self-efficacy and performance were reviewed. Also, related empirical studies of self-efficacy and preparation were reviewed. In addition, related empirical studies of preparation and performance were done. Lastly, related empirical studies of the intervening role of preparation in the self-efficacy – performance nexus was also presented.

Self-efficacy and Performance

Sezen-Gültekin et al. (2022) in a study that investigated classroom management self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance of preservice teachers based on a sample from a university in Turkey discovered that a link existed between classroom management efficacy beliefs and performance of the preservice teachers. In the study of Dicke et al. (2014), it came out that classroom management self-efficacy of the respondents, teacher candidates based in Germany, led to fewer classroom disturbances and less emotional exhaustion. With fewer classroom disturbances and less emotional exhaustion, the teacher candidates would then be able to perform their job. Lazarides et al. (2020) also showed that Australian teachers had class management self-efficacy and aspects of their perceived class management early in their career were positively related.

İnceçay and Dollar (2012) also studied the classroom management self-efficacy of trainee teachers in a Turkish university and their preparedness to handle challenging classroom behaviours. The study which used both questionnaires and observation as the data collection instruments revealed that

a relationship existed between the self-efficacy of trainee teachers in managing the classroom and their preparedness to handle difficult behaviour. However, no significant difference existed between implementing classroom management skills in the actual teaching environment. The findings made by İnceçay and Dollar (2012) implied that classroom management self-efficacy of the preservice teachers had no effect on their teaching performance.

In a meta-analysis of class management and teacher effectiveness in Africa, Muchena and Moalisi (2018) concluded that the studies demonstrate that teacher self-efficacy and performance are related because teachers' self-efficacy makes them influence the motivation and performance of students. Again, Kempf (2019) considered the connection instruction self-efficacy has with school teachers' job satisfaction. In that study, a link between instruction self-efficacy and job satisfaction was established. Job satisfaction which was measured using nine dimensions which included pay, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, work, and communication are likely to have a distal effect on the performance of the teachers.

Sidabutar (2021) examined the preparation of student teachers of science before teaching in English and also, determined the self-efficacy of the teachers. A triangulation of data obtained from three sources were carried out. It was demonstrated in the study that the high instructional self-efficacy of the teachers enhanced their performance as they were able to motivate students who had low capabilities in science in the English class to learn and help them to progress. Kwarteng and Sappor (2021) in examining the self-efficacy of trainee cost accounting teachers in UCC concluded that the teachers had high self-efficacies in instruction, student engagement and class management which

culminated in their ability to perform tasks such as making students follow rules, motivating them and also fostering their creativity.

Again, Lewis (2009) in a study of self-efficacy and academic performance of students conducted in the USA found that students' self-efficacy did not have a connection with their performance. Joët et al. (2011) assessed the influence of self-efficacy sources on the academic achievement and self-regulation learning of students in France. They indicated that students who had low self-efficacy showed poor academic achievement. The findings are an indication that self-efficacy influences performance. More so, Lai and Chen (2012) in their study which included self-efficacy, effort and job performance, employees who are into sales in Taiwan found that performance was positively impacted by self-efficacy.

Thundiyil et al. (2016) on their part studied the effect of creative self-efficacy and affect on the creative performance of employees in a company in China. Regarding the self-efficacy – performance nexus in that study, it was positively significant. The link self-efficacy in reading and self-efficacy in writing has with students' writing performance using UK university students was investigated by Prat-Sala and Redford (2012). The results indicated that self-efficacy in reading and self-efficacy in writing were related to the students' performance.

Kappagoda (2018) examined what impact self-efficacy has on different types of job performance using data from non-managerial and managerial employees in the Sri Lankan banking industry. The findings revealed that self-efficacy has an effect on both task and contextual performances. Among the several relationships analysed based on data gathered from hotel managers in

Turkey, Kale (2020) discovered that the self-efficacy of the managers impacted performance positively. Similarly, a positive effect of self-efficacy on performance was discovered in a study that focused on the connection between several variables including self-efficacy and performance of salespersons in a bank in UAE by Kaakeh et al. (2020).

Kiel et al. (2020) aimed at considering self-efficacy in executing inclusive education among teachers in inclusive schools in Germany. In the study, the teachers valued different dimensions of self-efficacy differently. Some showed a high self-efficacy in one dimension (inclusive curriculum development) but low self-efficacy in another dimension (inclusive collaboration) concurrently. In addition, those with positive self-efficacy assessed the application of inclusion to the highest degree with the reverse also being revealed. These findings showed that self-efficacy affected performance.

In their study on the nexus between teacher self-efficacy and their causal beliefs about children with and without specified learning difficulties, Woodcock and Faith (2021) used data from Australian in-service teachers. They concluded that self-efficacy of teachers had an effect on their performance as teachers with higher self-efficacy viewed students' negative performance to be within their sphere of influence and so felt capable of altering the performance outcome of such students while the opposite was concluded for teachers with low self-efficacy. Alegre (2014) intended to understand the connection among academic self-efficacy, self-regulation, and achievement among university students in a Peruvian metropolitan area. Following the results obtained from the hypotheses tests, the study concluded that self-efficacy has a link with performance of the students.

Self-efficacy and Preparation

Concerning the effect of self-efficacy on preparation, studies such as Thompson et al. (2022) which examined the connection between Japanese university students' self-efficacy and success indicated that self-efficacy was directly linked to the preparation of the students. This was because students who were highly self-efficacious put more effort into their studies to prepare for lectures. Conversely, those with low self-efficacy did not put in much effort. Similarly, Joët et al. (2011) assessed the influence of self-efficacy sources on the achievement and self-regulated learning of students, they revealed that the academic achievement of students who had low self-efficacy was poor. This implied that self-efficacy impacted self-regulation.

Furthermore, Hanks and Beier (2012) on their part conducted a study that was longitudinal to test the effect of self-efficacy in preparation and examination performance contexts among university students in the USA. Among their findings was more preparation of those with low preparatory self-efficacy and less preparation of the students with high preparatory self-efficacy. Thus, revealing the link self-efficacy has with preparation. In a study by Dissanayake et al. (2019), they had the purpose to investigate the nexus between self-efficacy and effort using competition as a moderating variable. In competitive circumstances, Dissanayake and colleagues established that self-efficacy influenced effort positively but influenced effort negatively in non-competitive situations.

Lee et al. (2021) studied the relations self-efficacy has with self-regulated learning using college learners in the USA. The result failed to reject the hypothesis that self-efficacy significantly predicts self-regulation. In

addition, the result indicated that the higher the self-efficacy, the higher the self-regulation. Similarly, study motivation was taken into consideration when Duchatelet and Donche (2019) looked into among others, the connections between self-regulation and self-efficacy. The study demonstrated a significant correlation of self-efficacy and self-regulation. In Alegre (2014), the study upheld the hypothesis which indicated that there is a link between self-efficacy and self-regulation which positive.

Los (2014) explored the impact of self-regulation and self-efficacy on the academic outcomes of college students. The results indicated that self-efficacy for self-regulated learning and self-regulation had a significant connection. Hayat et al. (2020) examined the relations among metacognitive learning strategies, self-efficacy and performance of medical students in Iran brought to bear that self-efficacy had an effect on metacognitive learning strategies. Toharudin et al. (2019) also studied the correlation between self-efficacy and self-regulation among senior high school students in Indonesia. In their study, it was discovered that the self-efficacy of the participating students correlated with their self-regulation. The correlation was, however, inverse. Thus, students with lower self-efficacy engaged in self-regulation the more.

The study of Iskandar et al. (2012) established a positive association in the self-efficacy – effort relationship. The study by Davis (2015) rejected the hypothesis, “self-efficacy will not be significantly related to self-regulation”. The finding of Davis showed a significant self-efficacy – self-regulation connection. Giladi et al. (2022) intimated in their study that a positive association existed between language learning self-efficacy and the effort of

students learning English as a foreign language. Self-efficacy, however, did not significantly relate to effort in Dempsey's (2016) study.

Trainer Preparation and Performance

The study of Lai and Chen (2012) regarding self-efficacy, effort and performance of employees in Taiwan revealed that effort positively affected performance. Additionally, Hanks and Beier (2012) in their study that tested the effect of self-efficacy in preparation and examination performance situations among university students established that there was a non-existent connection between preparation and performance. Among the revelations made in the study of Sidabutar (2021) was the effect preparation of the student teachers had on their performance in microteaching. Alegre (2014) also espoused that a positive link between self-regulation and performance existed. Further, Dissanayake et al. (2019) found that in competitive situations, effort had an effect on performance that was positive. However, in non-competitive circumstances, the effort – performance link was negative.

Los' study in 2014 evinced that resource management which is a dimension of self-regulation had a significant relationship with academic outcomes but other self-regulation dimensions like general cognitive and metacognitive did not have a significant relationship with academic outcomes. More so, metacognitive learning strategies were discovered to be significantly affecting the performance of the medical students in the study of Hayat et al. (2020). In a study by Gol and Royaei (2013), the nexus between self-regulation and teachers' job performance in Iran was explored. They confirmed that a positive correlation existed between self-regulation and job performance of the teachers. Furthermore, preparation time and number of

rehearsals were among the significant factors in the quality of speech performance in the study of Menzel and Carrell (1994).

Kornhauser and James (2015) attempted to establish the link between effort and performance of freshmen. For both groups of students, positive correlations were found between effort and performance of two different tests. Similarly, Nemati et al. (2020) investigated the connection self-regulation has with performance in mathematics among college students in Germany and Iran. The study evinced that self-regulation was not a predictor of multiplication performance among both German and Iranian students but considering the area of study, self-regulation affected the performance of students studying human sciences in both countries and not engineering or informatics.

Sahranavard et al. (2018) in a study that was carried out in Iran aimed to examine the link that existed between self-regulation and educational performance of daughters of police officers in two universities. The results established that a significant association existed between the self-regulation and performance of the students in one university but not in the public university. Again, elite and non-elite football players in Norway were compared in terms of self-regulation and performance level by Toering et al. (2009). Toering and colleagues surmised that the self-regulatory skills of the elite players would translate into effective learning environment and eventually lead to and increased capacity for performance than non-elite players.

Iskandar et al. (2012) also, revealed that there was an association that was positive between effort and audit judgement performance. According to

data presented by Davis (2015), there is no link between self-regulation and the overall number of exercise days. Self-regulation hence has a relationship with the total number of days spent exercising. Giladi et al. (2022) found a correlation between the reading performance of students studying English as a foreign language and their level of effort. However, in the study of Dempsey (2016), effort did not significantly relate to performance tasks.

Mediating Role of Preparation in the Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Performance

Regarding the intervening role of preparation, Thompson et al. (2022) affirmed that students having high self-efficacy saw preparation as an opportunity to develop and enhance their performance. Thus, self-efficacy's effect on performance was transmitted through preparation. In the study of Hanks and Beier (2012), it was revealed that low preparatory self-efficacy led to committing more in preparation while high preparatory self-efficacy led to committing less in preparation. It was therefore concluded that low self-efficacy may negatively affect performance in cases where the individuals concerned are familiar with the task that is to be executed as they would not make much commitment in terms of preparation.

In investigating the intervening effects of metacognitive learning strategies in the relationship between academic self-efficacy and performance, Hayat et al. (2020) established that metacognitive learning strategies mediated the effect academic self-efficacy had on academic performance. Iheanyichukwu et al. (2017) ascertained the intervening effect of self-regulation on the nexus between self-efficacy and academic performance of secondary school students in Nigeria. The discovery made by Iheanyichukwu

and colleagues was that self-regulation indirectly affected the nexus between the students' self-efficacy and academic performance. Thus, self-regulation had a partial mediation effect.

Iskandar et al. (2012) tested the intervening effect of effort in the link self-efficacy had with auditors' performance. The study espoused that effort partially transmitted (partial mediating effect) the impact self-efficacy had on the auditors' performance. Davis (2015) postulated that self-regulation will not play a mediating role in the link between self-efficacy and the total number of days of exercise. The data analyses following the postulation of Davis provided evidence to reject it. The finding indicated that in the link between self-efficacy and the total number of days of exercise, self-regulation played a mediating role.

Giladi et al. (2022) considered the intervening role of effort in the connection between learning language self-efficacy and reading comprehension performance of students learning English as a foreign language. Analysing the data obtained, it was revealed that effort intervened the nexus between self-efficacy and performance of the students. Honicke and Broadbent (2016) also confirmed in their study that the academic self-efficacy and academic performance correlation of university populations had effort regulation as a mediating factor. In a related study by Dempsey (2016), effort did not intervene the link between self-efficacy and performance.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 depicts the study's conceptual framework. It is depicted in the figure that the self-efficacy of trainers is expressed in three dimensions. Namely, self-efficacies of training room management, trainee engagement and

instruction. This conceptual framework also depicts that trainers' self-efficacy which is expressed in the three dimensions has an effect each on trainers' preparation and trainers' performance. Also, preparation has an effect on trainers' performance. In addition, the preparation of trainers before the execution of a training task plays a mediating role in the effect each trainer self-efficacy dimension has on trainers' performance.

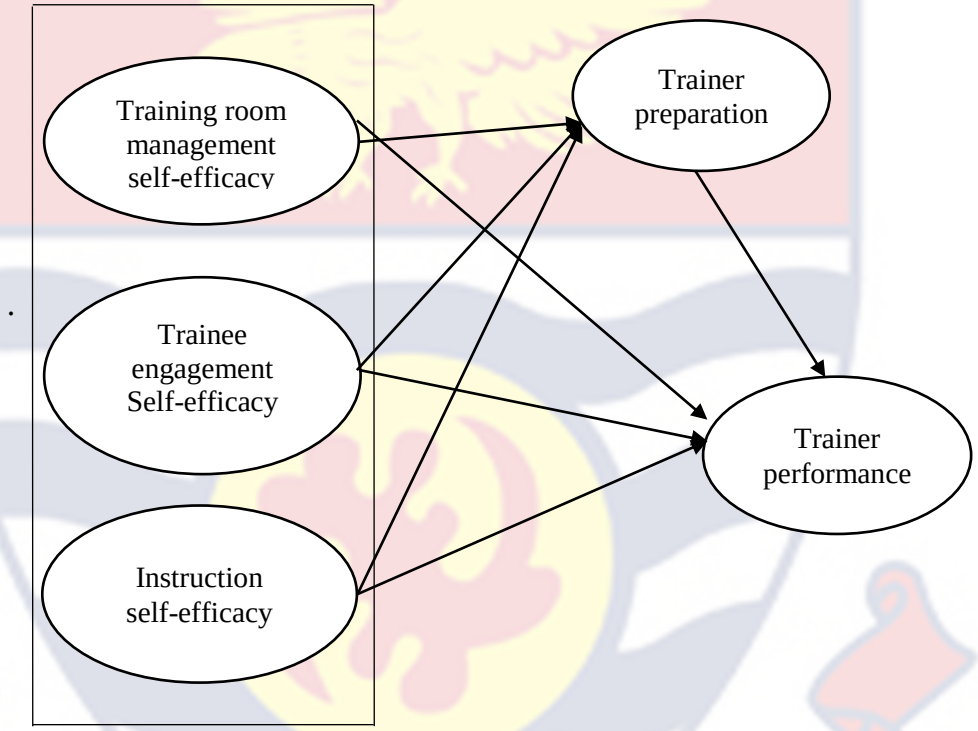

Figure 1: Relationships among trainer self-efficacy, performance and preparation
Source: Author (2023)

Chapter Summary

This chapter was mainly about the literature review of the topic under investigation. The theoretical underpinnings, SET and SRT, were reviewed. Again, a conceptual review of self-efficacy, preparation and job performance was conducted. In addition, empirical reviews of the nexus between self-efficacy and performance; self-efficacy and preparation; preparation and performance; and the mediating role of preparation in the self-efficacy –

performance connection were conducted. The empirical review showed mixed relationships among the variables largely because of the context-specific nature of the constructs. Lastly, the conceptual framework of this study was presented.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

This study examined the mediating role of trainer preparation in the effect of trainer self-efficacy on performance of employee trainers in universities in Ghana. In this current chapter, the research methods that were used in conducting this study have been highlighted. The chapter follows this order; research paradigm, the approach of the research, design of the research, population, sample and sampling technique, inclusion and exclusion criteria, instrument for data collection, procedures for data collection, data processing and analyses, and lastly, chapter summary.

Research Paradigm

The research paradigm that guided this study was post-positivism. The literature on this paradigm proffer that there is reality but there is no such thing as absolute reality and so outcomes of research are neither totally objective, nor are they unquestionably certain; different people have their own realities which can be studied through the scientific method (Chilisa & Kawulick, 2012; Kumatango & Muzata, 2022). Put differently, post-positivism deals with multiple realities as individuals observe the same event and understand it differently because of their unique experiences, beliefs and biases (Chilisa & Kawulick, 2012; Thapaliya & Pathak, 2022). Research, thus, establishes a cause-and-effect relationship by reporting what the majority of respondents deem acceptable (Chilisa & Kawulick, 2012; Kumatango & Muzata, 2022; Panhwar et al., 2017).

Furthermore, from the post-positivist view point, the same research questions or hypotheses may yield different results when conducted in

different areas, at different times and with different respondents because reality is not singular as well as not absolutely accurate (Thapaliya & Pathak, 2022). Additionally, truth cannot be proven but untruth can be proven. In this regard, a hypothesis cannot be proven but there can be a failure to accept or failure to reject it (Thapaliya & Pathak, 2022; Young & Ryan, 2020). Because of the reliance on respondents' perspectives in the conduct of research, attempts are made to reduce biases by the phrasing of questions, the population used, measures, data analyses and acknowledging limitations in the research methods to ensure rigor of the study (Young & Ryan, 2020).

Research Approach

In this current study, the quantitative approach was used to achieve the objectives of the study (Creswell, 2007; Holden & Lynch, 2004). The data which was collected was converted numerically and analysed with statistical procedures to establish relationships among the constructs (Saunders et al., 2012). An advantage the quantitative approach offered was how quickly and easily the research could be done (Amarantunga et al., 2002).

Research Design

The explanatory research design was the design that was employed in this study. The choice of explanatory research design was made because it is used to gain familiarity in phenomena that need more insights. More so, it mostly relies on quantitative data and involves the use of statistical analyses that culminate in generalising the findings to the population. Characteristically, research hypotheses in explanatory studies specify the nature and direction of the connections that exist between the constructs that are under investigation. Again, such studies determine the contribution the

exogenous constructs make to the endogenous constructs (Akhtar, 2016; Sue & Ritter, 2012).

Study Units

Two study units were involved in the study. The study units were; (1) UCC and (2) UEW. The year the study units were established and the laws that established them have been mentioned. Also, the purpose for the establishment of the two study units has been highlighted. Most importantly, the role of training and development in the study units has been indicated.

University of Cape Coast

UCC was founded to offer higher education to those who were qualified and could benefit from higher education, to teach students how to think critically and independently; to educate students on their duty to utilise their education for the benefit of the Ghanaian society; and to provide resources for, and to conduct research and teach with a focus on advancing learning and knowledge to fulfill the desires and needs of Ghanaians and the citizens of African countries.

In 1962, UCC was established as a university college in the country. The University of Cape Coast Act, 1971 (Act 390), which took effect on October 1, 1971, and the University of Cape Coast Law, 1992 (PNDC Law 278) that followed it transformed the University College into a full-fledged university. Therefore, the University had the right to award diplomas, degrees, and certificates. When UCC first opened, it had the responsibility of producing teachers for schools in the country. Since then, however, it has expanded to offer training across a wide range of fields for Ghana and other countries. Five colleges, comprising the Colleges of Health and Allied Sciences, Agriculture

and Natural Sciences, Humanities and Legal Studies, Distance Education and Education Studies have been established because of this.

Since the late 1990s, UCC has prioritised personnel training and development so that its mandate will be fulfilled. The Training and Development (T & D) Section was established as a result in 1997. Planning, coordinating, and carrying out University-wide training and development plans and programs for staff fall under the purview of this Section. As a higher education institution of excellence, in addition to creating the T & D Section, UCC has included training and development of members of staff in its strategic objectives of recruiting high calibre teaching and non-teaching staff and ensuring their retention (Sarbeng, 2013).

University of Education, Winneba

May 14, 2004 was the day the University of Education, Winneba Act 2004, Act 672, was passed to found UEW. The Advanced Teacher Training College, National Academy of Music and Specialist Training College all of which are located in Winneba, as well as the School of Ghana Languages in Ajumako, the College of Special Education in Mampong-Akwapim, St. Andrews Training College in Mampong-Ashanti, and the Advanced Technical Teacher College, were originally combined to form the University College of Education of Winneba under PNDC Law 322 (1992).

The University is tasked, per its Special Status and Mandate, with developing educators professionally to lead a national vision of education intended at refocusing Ghana's efforts in the direction of rapid economic and social growth. It is anticipated that the UEW will take the lead in the nation's

determination to develop academics whose knowledge and skills will be able to the needs of modern-day Ghana and the West African subregion.

Winneba Campus, Ajumako Campus, Kumasi Campus, and Mampong Ashanti Campus were the previous names of UEW's four campuses. It currently has two campuses: the Winneba Campus, which serves as the university's main campus and is split among three sites in the Winneba Municipality (North, Central, and South); and the Ajumako Campus. The Department of Staff Training and Development in the Division of Human Resources oversees offering opportunities for training and development that enhance faculty and staff members' personal and professional skills, support the University's mission and goals, help departments with specific training requirements, and encourage lifelong learning. By taking part in a range of growth programs, it also prepares academics and staff for new duties.

Population

The population for this study was the internal employee trainers in the universities. The internal employee trainers of the universities are academics and university administrators such as Registrars, Lecturers, Accountants, Auditors, Librarians, and Procurement Officers who because of their experiences and expertise are used as trainers during employee training programmes even though they are not employed for that purpose. According to the Training and Development Section, the targeted population in UCC was 146 out of which 116 were accessible. As of February 2023, the number of internal trainers used in UEW was 79. Thus, the accessible population for the study was 195.

Sampling technique

In obtaining data for this study, a census was conducted. It is established in the literature that a sampling technique is adopted for studies when the population for the study is large making it costly, time consuming and most importantly impracticable to source data from the entire population (Bhardwaj, 2019; Taherdoost, 2016). A census was used as a result of the relatively small study population (195) and the practicality of surveying the entire study population in the two study units (Saunders et al., 2012). Also, the population was homogeneous, with employee training as a defining characteristic.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The study included only internal trainers in UCC and UEW who have performed training tasks since 2016. All other trainers in universities in Ghana other than the above-named were excluded from this study. Also, UCC and UEW internal trainers who last performed a training task before 2016 were excluded from the study. Likewise, external trainers used by the two Universities were not involved in this study.

Data Collection Instrument

The data collection instrument was a questionnaire (Appendix B). It comprised an introductory section that emphasised the study's purpose and sought the consent of the respondents. It also contained assurances of anonymity and confidentiality, voluntary participation, and the option to withdraw from participating in the study at any time without being penalised. In addition, directions regarding how to respond to the questionnaire were provided. Lastly, ethical clearance by the UCC Institutional Review Board

(UCCIRB) was indicated. These were done to comply with collecting data ethically and to obtain access to and cooperation of the respondents (Cohen et al., 2007; Kelley et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 2012).

Excluding the introductory section, the instrument had four sections; Sections A to D. Section A comprised the background characteristics of the trainers. Section B was made up of indicators of trainer self-efficacy which were structured into trainee engagement self-efficacy, instruction self-efficacy, and training room management self-efficacy. Section C contained the indicators of trainer preparation while Section D consisted of trainer performance indicators. The constructs were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale with 1 being Strong Disagreement and 5 being Strong Agreement.

Concerning the measures of the constructs, they were adapted from the literature. Trainer self- efficacy dimensions of trainee engagement self-efficacy, instruction self-efficacy, and training room management self-efficacy were adapted from the long version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). Teacher self-efficacy, student engagement self-efficacy, instruction self-efficacy, and classroom management self-efficacy had Cronbach's alpha of 0.94, 0.87, 0.91, and 0.90 respectively. Originally, they comprised eight items each and measured on a 10-point Likert-type scale. Trainer preparation was adapted from McCrory et al. (2013) and Noe (2010). The last construct, trainer performance, was measured using the instructional qualities dimension of the VTJPS by Ali and Haider (2017). This dimension of the scale originally had eight items, was measured on a four-point Likert scale, and had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.74.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection commenced after approval for the study had been obtained from UCCIRB (see Appendix A). An introductory letter was issued by the Department of Human Resource Management to the UCC Training and Development Section and Division of Human Resource, UEW to obtain access to the internal trainers (Saunders et al., 2012). Based on the introductory letter submitted to the UEW Division of Human Resource, another introductory letter was issued to aid access to their internal trainers. The instrument was self-administered and so left with the respondents to fill at their convenience. The collection was done when the respondents had provided their responses and at a time decided by them as convenient. The data collection spanned approximately four months; from 17th November, 2022 to 14th March, 2023 with 154 trainers responding and making the filled questionnaire available for retrieval.

Data Processing and Analyses

To process the data that was gathered, SPSS 21 and SmartPLS 4 were the statistical software used. The data processing was preceded by data preparation where the data was cleaned, coded, and entered in Microsoft Excel before being entered into the software that was used (Sarantakos, 1998). Frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the respondents' background characteristics. The hypotheses were tested using a structural equation model because currently, it has become the standard in management research, particularly in studies containing pre-assumed correlations between dimensions. Moreover, it is more powerful than multiple regression analyses despite sharing conceptual and practical similarities. Also, it combines

confirmatory factor analyses and path analyses, can deal with measurement error, has more statistical power, and is more accurate (Beran & Violata, 2010; Fan et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2016).

Three main steps were followed in analysing the structural equation model. They included specifying the model and evaluating the measurement and structural models (Hair et al., 2014). In the model specification stage, the model for the study as depicted in Figure 2 was set-up and the links between the constructs indicated. The evaluation of the measurement (outer) model involved ascertaining the indicator reliability, construct reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was determined using the average variance extracted (AVE) whereas construct reliability was determined using rho_A. Indicator reliability was based on the indicator loadings. Discriminant validity was investigated via the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) method (Benitez et al., 2020; Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2015).

Next was the evaluation of the structural (inner) model. In analysing the structural model, collinearity through variance inflation factors (VIF) was examined. The ability of the model to predict the exogenous constructs was also determined. Specifically, significance of the hypothesised paths based on the specific objectives of the study was determined in accordance with the Bias-Corrected and Accelerated confidence intervals (BCa CI) using a 10,000-subsample bootstrapping. In addition, explanatory power (R^2), effect size (f^2) and out-of-sample predictive power (PLS_predict) were assessed to ensure the structural model's quality (Hair et al., 2014; 2017; 2019; Kock, 2016; Sarstedt et al., 2023). Lastly, an importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) was done to determine the constructs that needed managerial attention and action.

Hence, the constructs with high importance but low performance were discovered (Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016).

Ethical Considerations

The following ethical principles were complied with when conducting this study:

Informed consent: All information that pertains to participating in this study was disclosed to the respondents to enable them to decide voluntarily, whether to participate in the study or not.

Potential risks: There were no foreseeable risks related to participation.

Privacy and confidentiality: Access to all information given by the respondents was restricted.

Anonymity: Respondents of this study were not identified individually by name or any means that would give out their identity throughout the study (from the data collection to the presentation of the research report).

Voluntary participation/withdrawal: Participating in this study was not compulsory. Also, the respondents had the right to skip questions they wished not to answer or discontinue participating in the study at any time without any reason. Withdrawing from the study did not come with any penalty.

Compensation: Respondents were not given any compensation for participating in this study.

Conflicts of interest: The researcher had an interest in the study but did not conflict with the outcome of the study.

Ethical clearance: Before commencing the data collection, approval was gotten from UCCIRB (Appendix A).

Chapter Summary

This chapter considered the methods used in this study. An explanatory research design was employed in this study. The data was obtained through a census of internal employee trainers in two conveniently selected universities. A five-point Likert-type scale questionnaire comprising measures of the constructs; trainer self-efficacy, preparation and performance sourced from the literature was used in collecting the data. The data analyses were mainly carried out through partial least square structural equation modelling. Ethical clearance was provided by UCCIRB.

Limitations of the study are from respondents used. They are lecturers and administrators who are not appointed as full-time trainers but are used as trainers because of their expertise and experience. This could impact the generalisability of the findings that were obtained in this study. Another limitation that could affect the generalisability of the revelations made in this study is the use of only internal trainers as respondents. Caution must, therefore, be taken in generalising the findings of this study to all trainers including external trainers. Also, due to time and resource constraints, trainers from two universities in Ghana were conveniently sampled and used in the study which could affect the representativeness of the universities in Ghana.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this current study was to examine the mediating role of trainer preparation in the effect trainer self-efficacy has on trainer performance in universities in Ghana. This chapter is dedicated to the results of the hypotheses obtained through the PLS-SEM and a discussion of the results. The results and discussion are preceded by a presentation of the background characteristics of the respondents as well as the reliability and validity of the measurement model.

Results

The results of this study have been presented in the subsequent sections. Background characteristics of the respondents giving a breakdown of their sex, designation, level of education, trainer qualification and frequency of training facilitated have been presented. Results of measurement model evaluation which showed the model's validity and reliability have also been presented. Lastly, the results of the structural model evaluation have been highlighted. The results of the structural model emphasised the collinearity, explanatory power, predictive power, significance of hypothesised paths, effect size, and IPMA.

Background Characteristics of Respondents

Eighty-six (86) trainers from UCC and 68 from UEW provided responses for the study. The background characteristics of these respondents (sex, designation, level of education, trainer qualification and frequency of training facilitated) are displayed in Table 1. It is detected from the table that

the female respondents in the study were 57 (37.0%) while 97, representing 63.0% were males.

Table 1: Background characteristics of respondents

Characteristic	Group	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Female	57	37.0
	Male	97	63.0
	Total	*154*	*100.0*
Job category	Lecturer	46	29.9
	Administrator	67	43.5
	Research Fellow	19	12.3
	Librarian	22	14.3
	Total	*154*	*100.0*
Level of education	Master's degree	94	61.0
	Doctorate degree	47	30.5
	Bachelor's degree	9	5.8
	Other	4	2.6
	Total	*154*	*100.0*
Trainer qualification	None	26	16.9
	Train-the-trainer	58	37.7
	Trained teacher	70	45.5
	Total	*154*	*100.0*
Trainer experience	5 times or less	47	30.5
	6 to 10 times	54	35.1
	More than 10 times	53	34.4
	Total	*154*	*100.0*

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Concerning the job category; the lecturers, administrators, research fellows and librarians were 46 (29.9%), 67 (43.5%), 19 (12.3%) and 22 (14.3%) respectively. Regarding the level of education, respondents who had master's degree were 94. This number represented 61.0% of the respondents. Respondents who had doctorate degree were 47 in number (30.5%). 5.8% of

the respondents had bachelor's degree. Specifically, they were nine in number. Also, four of the respondents (2.6%) were at other levels of education.

Further from Table 1, the trainer qualification of the respondents also indicates that 26 of them (16.9%) were without any trainer qualification. Fifty-eight, which was 37.7% of the respondents, had train-the-trainer qualifications. In addition, 70 (45.5%) had qualifications as teachers. Concerning the experience of the trainers, 47 (30.5%) had facilitated 5 or less training sessions. Those who had facilitated between 6 to 10 training sessions were 54 (34.9%) whereas 53 (34.4%) had facilitated more than 10 training sessions.

Measurement Model Evaluation

The indicator and construct reliabilities of the measurement (inner) model are shown as indicator loadings together with rho_a in Table 2. Confirmation of the indicator loadings is Figure 2. The AVE which represents the convergent validity of the model is also evident in Table 2. The indicator loadings from the table show that all but INSE8, TESE3, TESE5, TESE6, TMSE1, TMSE2, TMSE4, TPERF5, TPERF6, TPREP4, and TPREP6 were within the suggested threshold of ≥0.708 (Hair et al., 2019). However, on the recommendation of Benitez et al. (2020), the indicators with loadings <0.708 were retained in the measurement model since their presence did not negatively affect the overall reliability and validity of the model.

In this regard, indicators such as TMSE3, TPREP7, TPREP8, TPREP9 and TPERF4 were expunged from the model since they had loadings below the recommended threshold and affected the validity and reliability of the model. Thus, indicator reliability was achieved. According to Wong (2019),

the rho_a values between 0.823 and 0.882 is an indication of construct reliability. Similarly, convergent validity was also achieved since the AVE values of the constructs in the measurement model were more than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014, 2019; Henseler et al., 2016).

Table 2: Reliability and convergent validity

Construct	Indicator	Loading	Rho_a	AVE
Instruction Self-efficacy	INSE1	0.731	0.882	0.540
	INSE2	0.711		
	INSE3	0.766		
	INSE4	0.828		
	INSE5	0.735		
	INSE6	0.758		
	INSE7	0.717		
	INSE8	0.615		
Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy	TESE1	0.786	0.862	0.534
	TESE2	0.800		
	TESE3	0.703		
	TESE4	0.765		
	TESE5	0.670		
	TESE6	0.671		
	TESE7	0.709		
Training Room Management Self-efficacy	TMSE1	0.686	0.860	0.534
	TMSE2	0.658		
	TMSE4	0.671		
	TMSE5	0.815		
	TMSE6	0.754		
	TMSE7	0.781		
	TMSE8	0.738		
Trainer Performance	TPERF1	0.809	0.823	0.568
	TPERF2	0.798		
	TPERF3	0.777		
	TPERF5	0.677		
	TPERF6	0.699		
Trainer Preparation	TPREP1	0.804	0.882	0.603
	TPREP2	0.871		
	TPREP3	0.799		
	TPREP4	0.699		
	TPREP5	0.821		
	TPREP6	0.645		

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

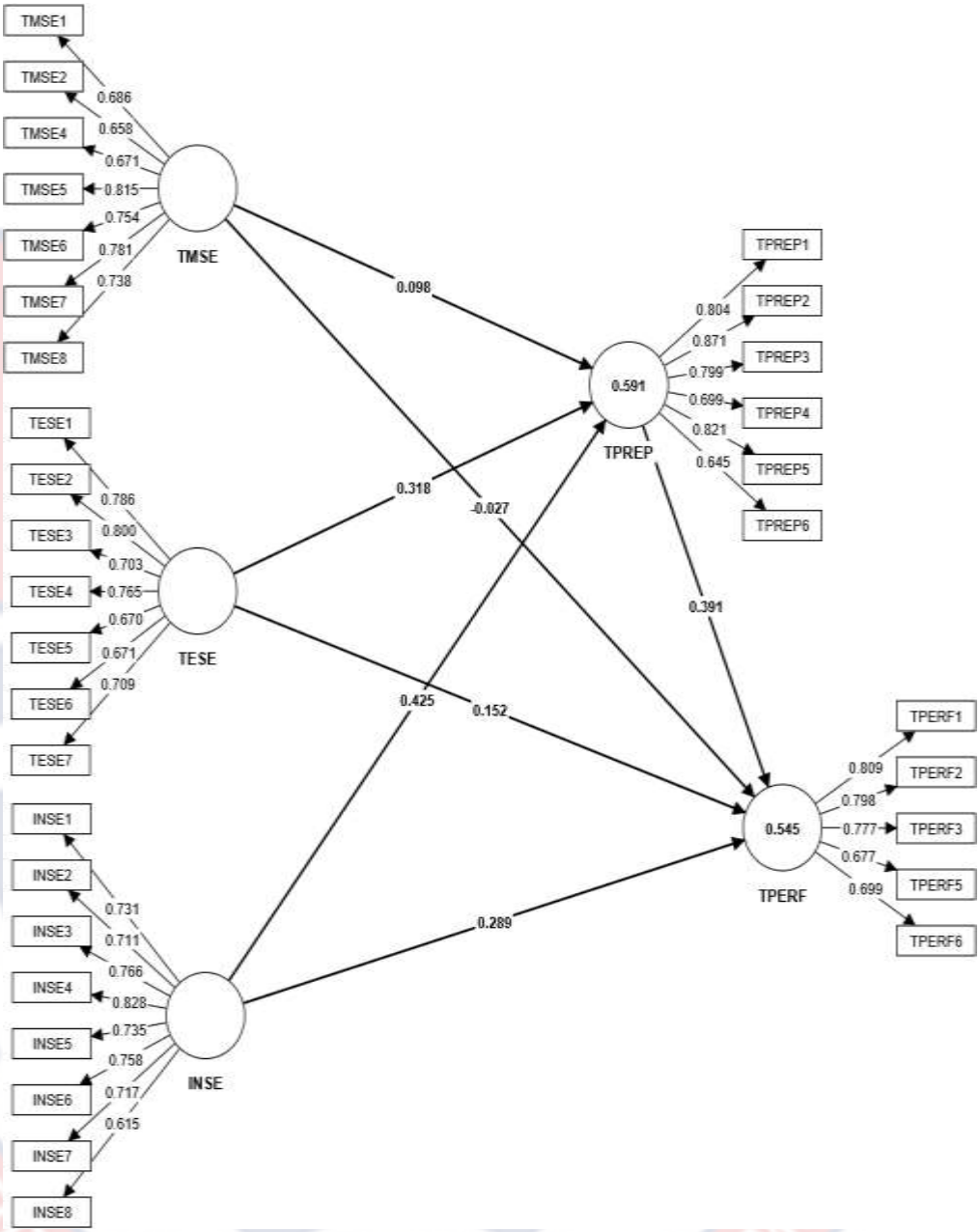

Figure 2: Indicator loadings of the measurement model

The discriminant validity represented by HTMT is shown in Table 3. From the table, it is concluded that the measurement model had discriminant validity because the values were less than the liberal threshold of 0.9. The liberal threshold was accepted because conceptually, the constructs were similar (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2015).

Table 3: Discriminant validity

Construct	1	2	3	4	5
1. Instruction Self-efficacy					
2. Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy	0.857				
3. Training Room Management Self-efficacy	0.812	0.728			
4. Trainer Performance	0.789	0.736	0.598		
5. Trainer Preparation	0.825	0.787	0.681	0.806	

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Structural Model Evaluation

In evaluating the structural model, the VIF that are contained in Table 4 were first evaluated to ensure the model was devoid of collinearity. The table, which has its highest VIF as 3.291 is indicative of the absence of collinearity according to Kock (2015).

Table 4: Collinearity

Path	VIF
Instruction Self-efficacy → Trainer Performance	3.291
Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy → Trainer Performance	2.617
Training Room Management Self-efficacy → Trainer Performance	2.112
Trainer Preparation → Trainer Performance	2.446
Instruction Self-efficacy → Trainer Preparation	2.849
Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy → Trainer Preparation	2.370
Training Room Management Self-efficacy → Trainer Preparation	2.089

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Subsequently, the explanatory power of the model was ascertained. The R^2 in Table 5 denotes the explanatory power of the model. In the table, it is highlighted that the R^2 of trainer preparation is 0.591 and that of trainer performance is 0.545. It can be deduced that trainer self-efficacy (instruction self-efficacy, trainee engagement self-efficacy and training room management self-efficacy) explains 59.1% of the variance in trainer preparation. In

addition, the trainer self-efficacy constructs combine with trainer preparation to explain 54.5% of the variance in trainer performance. The foregoing explanatory powers are moderate subject to Hair et al.'s (2017) interpretation.

Table 5: Explanatory power

Construct	R-Square	R-Square Adjusted
Trainer Performance	0.545	0.532
Trainer Preparation	0.591	0.583

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Additionally, the model's predictive power is depicted in Table 6. Examination of the Q^2predict in the table confirmed the model's predictive relevance. This is on the basis that the Q^2predict values of the exogenous constructs were greater than zero.

Table 6: Predictive power

Indicator	Q^2predict	PLS-SEM_RMSE	LM_RMSE	PLS-SEM_RMSE - LM_RMSE
TPERF1	0.330	0.673	0.739	-0.065
TPERF2	0.267	0.711	0.825	-0.115
TPERF3	0.252	0.589	0.647	-0.059
TPERF5	0.185	0.699	0.751	-0.051
TPERF6	0.161	0.778	0.862	-0.083
TPREP1	0.348	0.723	0.812	-0.089
TPREP2	0.512	0.637	0.677	-0.040
TPREP3	0.379	0.797	0.864	-0.066
TPREP4	0.191	0.844	0.952	-0.108
TPREP5	0.363	0.646	0.664	-0.018
TPREP6	0.172	0.802	0.897	-0.095

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Concerning the degree of the predictive power of the model, it had a high predictive power as 100% of the indicators had a PLS-SEM_RMSE

lower than the LM_RMSE. This is highlighted in the negative values in the column titled PLS-SEM_RMSE - LM_RMSE (i.e., PLS-SEM_RMSE minus LM_RMSE) (Hair et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2023; Shmueli et al., 2019).

Table 7 displays the statistical significance of the direct hypothesised paths and effect sizes (f^2). Using the BCa CI, a hypothesised path is statistically significant if zero falls outside the CI and not statistically significant if the CI includes zero (Kock, 2016; Hair et al., 2017; Sarstedt et al., 2023). The interpretations of the effect sizes were based on the suggestions highlighted in Benitez et al. (2020). Going by the premise, training room management self-efficacy (BCa CI= -0.206 – 0.143) did not have significant effect on trainer performance. However, with no substantial effect (0.019) and weak effect size (0.056), trainee engagement self-efficacy (BCa CI= 0.009 – 0.294) and instruction self-efficacy (BCa CI= 0.095 – 0.479) respectively had positive significant effect on trainer performance. As a result, H1a failed to be accepted but H1b and H1c failed to be rejected.

Table 7: Significance of direct hypothesised paths and effect sizes

Direct Path	β	SE	BCa CI	Remark	f^2
H1a: TMSE → TPERF	-0.027	0.107	-0.206 – 0.143	Failed to accept	0.001
H1b: TESE → TPERF	0.152	0.087	0.009 – 0.294	Failed to reject	0.019
H1c: INSE → TPERF	0.289	0.117	0.095 – 0.479	Failed to reject	0.056
H2a: TMSE → TPREP	0.098	0.088	-0.041 – 0.239	Failed to accept	0.011
H2b: TESE → TPREP	0.318	0.091	0.166 – 0.468	Failed to reject	0.104
H2c: INSE → TPREP	0.425	0.118	0.239 – 0.624	Failed to reject	0.155
H3: TPREP → TPERF	0.391	0.109	0.201 – 0.559	Failed to reject	0.137

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Note: TMSE= Training Room Management Self-efficacy; INSE= Instruction Self-efficacy; TESE= Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy; TPREP= Trainer Preparation; TPERF= Trainer Performance; SE=Standard Error; BCa CI= Bias-Corrected and Accelerated confidence interval; f^2=effect size; $p<0.05$ (1-tailed)

Again, from Table 7, it is revealed that training room management self-efficacy (BCa CI= -0.041 – 0.239) did not have a significant effect on trainer preparation. On the contrary, with weak (0.104) and moderate (0.155) effect sizes respectively, trainee engagement self-efficacy (BCa CI= 0.166 – 0.468) and instruction self-efficacy (BCa CI= 0.239 – 0.624) both had significant effects on trainer preparation. In this regard, there was a lack of evidence to accept H2a. However, there were evidence not to reject H2b and H2c. The BCa CI of 0.201 – 0.559 of the TPREP -> TPERF path also provided evidence not to reject H3 and so trainer preparation has a significant effect on trainer performance. The effect size associated with this path was weak (0.137). The beta and t values of the structural model are also depicted in Figure 3.

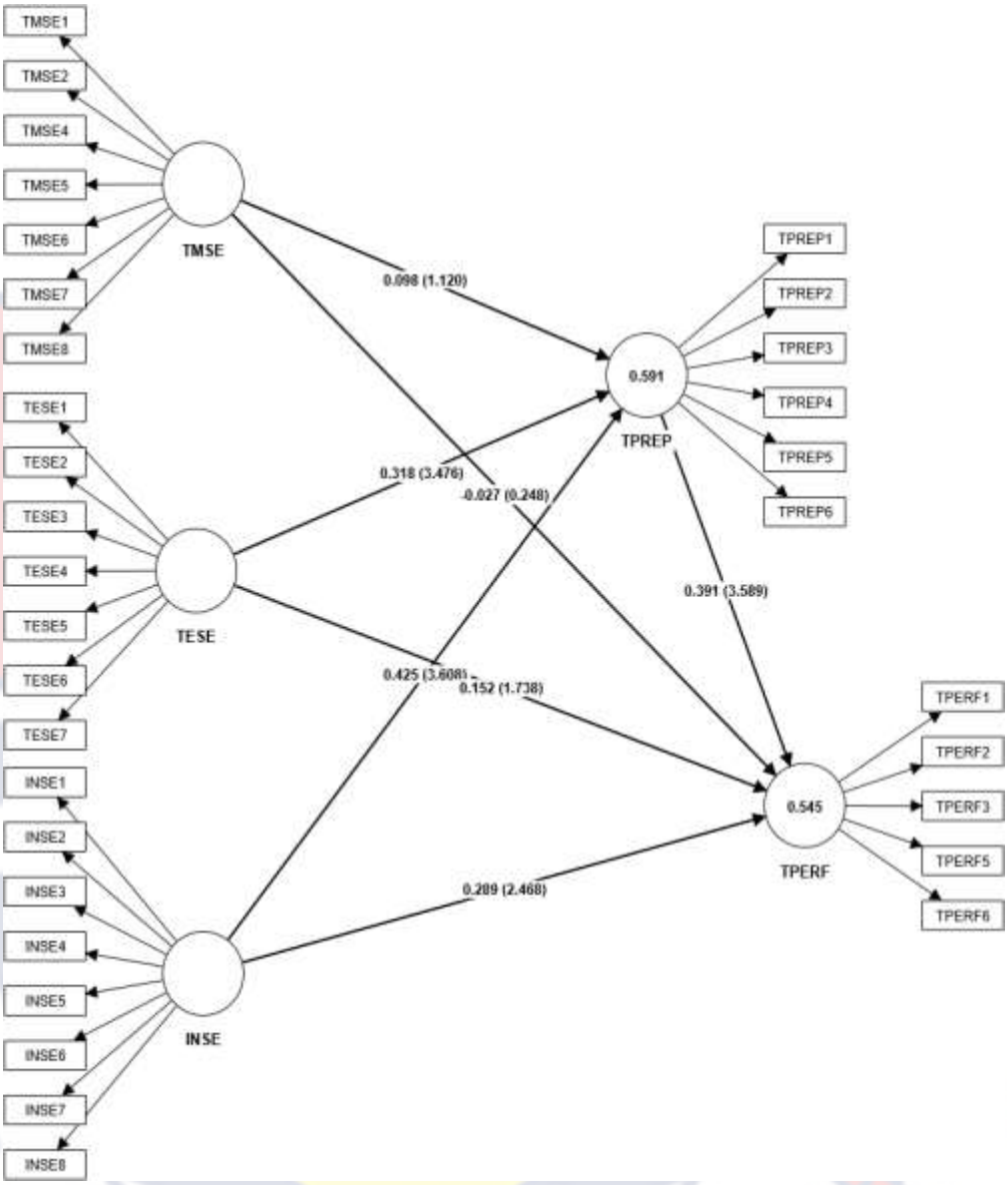

Figure 3: Beta and t values of the structural model

The specific indirect (mediated) paths can be observed in Table 8. From the table, the confidence interval of the TMSE → TPREP → TPERF path shows that trainer preparation did not mediate the effect training room management self-efficacy has on trainer performance. Thus, H4a failed to be accepted in this study. Again, with a BCa CI of 0.054 – 0.230, trainer preparation played a mediating role in the effect trainee engagement self-efficacy had on trainer performance. H4b, therefore, failed to be rejected.

Considering that trainee engagement self-efficacy had a positive and

significant effect on trainer performance, the type of mediating role trainer preparation played is complementary partial mediation according to Nitzl et al. (2016). More so, H4c failed to be rejected since zero was outside the BCa CI of the path, INSE → TPREP → TPERF (0.083 – 0.298). According to Nitzl and colleagues, this mediation is also complementary partial mediation as the direct effect of the corresponding path was positive just like the mediation effect.

Table 8: Significance of specific indirect (mediated) paths

Mediated Path	β	SE	BCa CI	Remark
H4a: TMSE → TPREP → TPERF	0.038	0.038	-0.010 – 0.111	Failed to accept
H4b: TESE → TPREP → TPERF	0.124	0.052	0.054 – 0.230	Failed to reject
H4c: INSE → TPREP → TPERF	0.166	0.063	0.083 – 0.298	Failed to reject

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

Note: TMSE= Training Room Management Self-efficacy; INSE= Instruction Self-efficacy; TESE= Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy; TPREP= Trainer Preparation; TPERF= Trainer Performance; SE=Standard Error; BCa CI= Bias-Corrected and Accelerated confidence interval; p<0.05 (1-tailed)

The IPMA for trainer performance is presented in Table 9. The preliminary conditions for IPMA were satisfied; the indicator codes pointed in the same way and the estimates of the outer weight of the constructs' indicators were positive (ranged from 0.094 – 0.240) as evidenced in Figure 5 (Hair et al., 2017; Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016).

Table 9: Importance-performance of constructs for trainer performance

Construct	Importance	Performances
Instruction Self-efficacy	0.455	80.243
Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy	0.276	78.326
Training Room Management Self-efficacy	0.012	75.911
Trainer Preparation	0.391	80.816

Source: Field data, Author (2023)

It is realised from Table 9 that the most important factor in the trainer performance model is instruction self-efficacy (0.455) which was followed by trainer preparation (0.391). However, in terms of performance, trainer preparation was the highest performing factor (80.816). Instruction self-efficacy was, therefore, not the highest performing factor. What this portends is, targeting instruction self-efficacy for optimisation would improve trainer performance. Figure 4 shows the IPMA map of trainer performance.

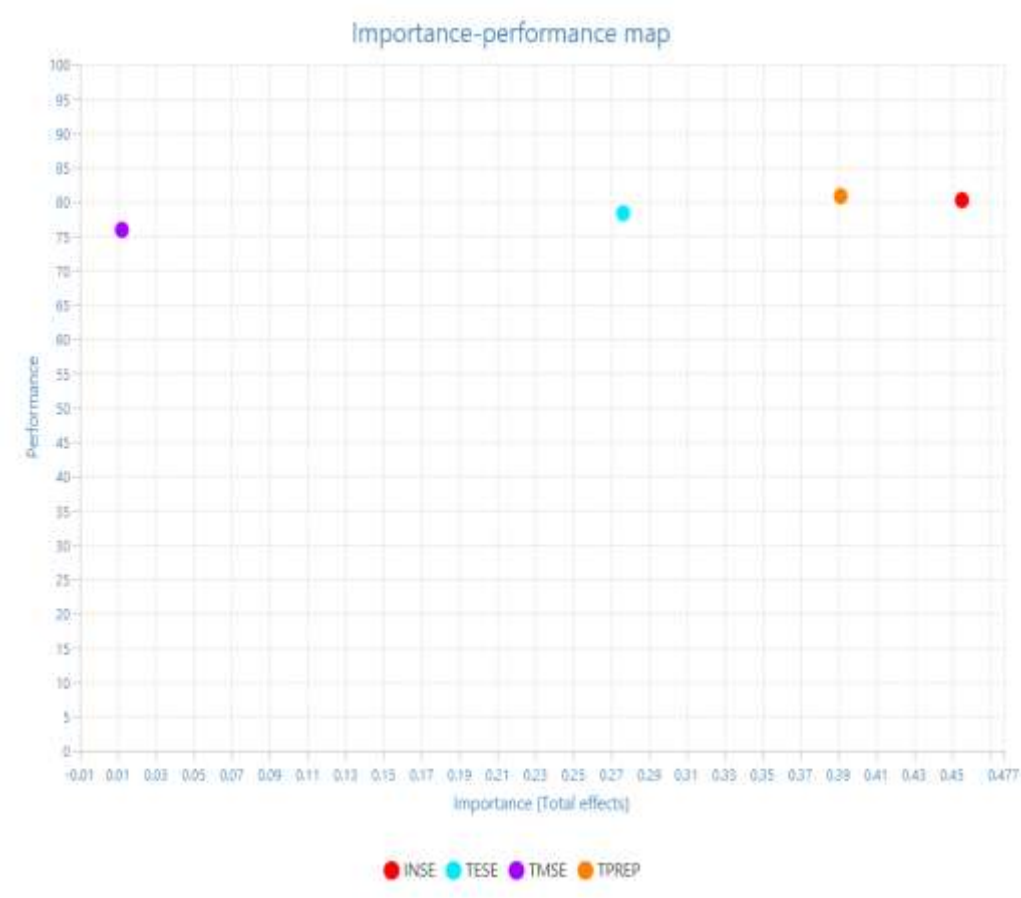

Figure 4: Importance-performance map of trainer performance

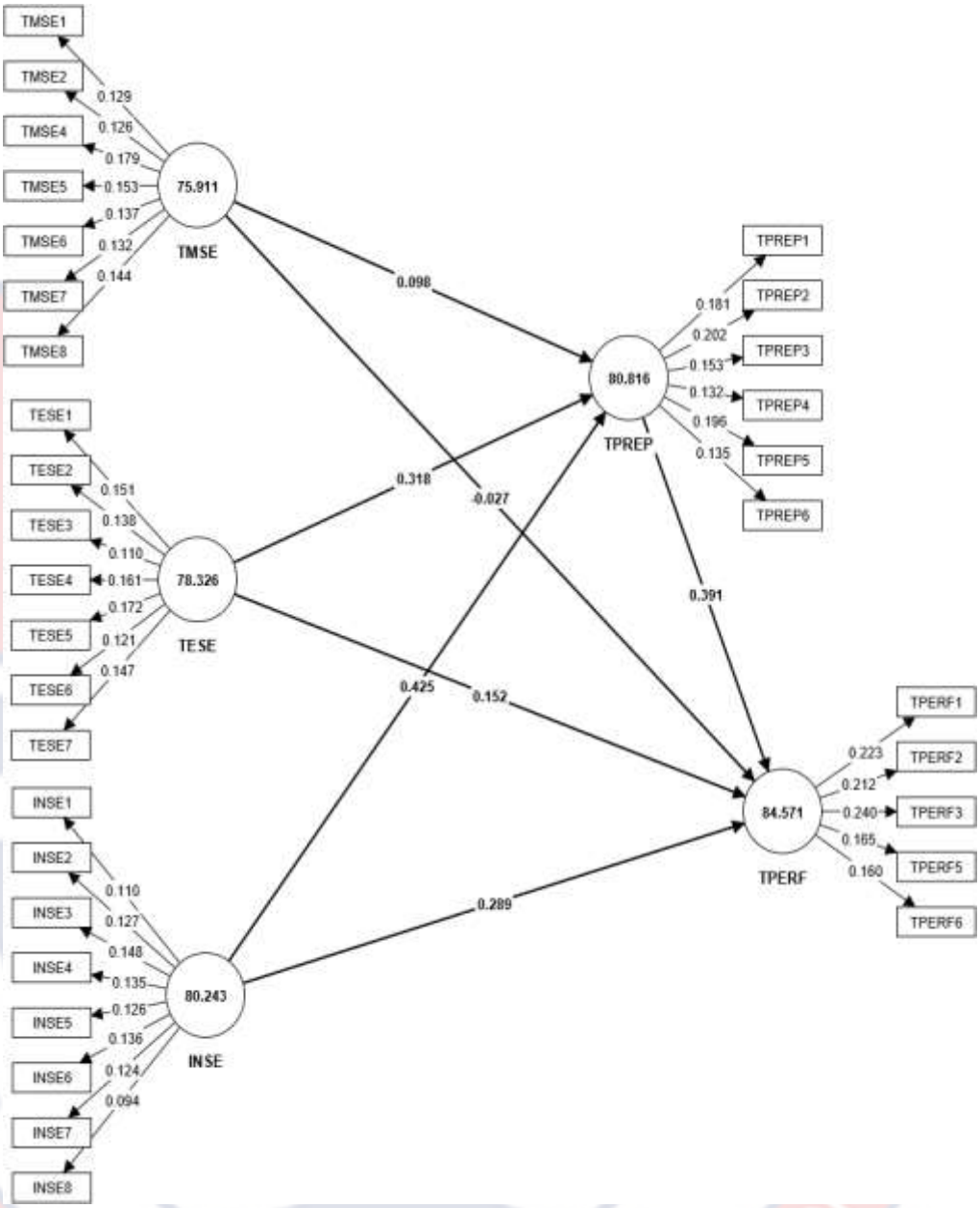

Figure 5: Outer weight estimates of construct indicators

Discussion

Objective 1: Effect of Trainer Self-Efficacy on Trainer Performance

Objective 1 of the study sought to examine the effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance. In line with this, three hypotheses were postulated and subsequently tested. The hypotheses were H1a: training room management self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance; H1b: trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and

significant effect on trainer performance; and H1c: instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance. The findings indicated that training room management self-efficacy (H1a) did not have a statistically significant effect on trainer performance which was contrary to what was expected. However, as expected, trainee engagement self-efficacy (H1b) and instruction self-efficacy (H1c) both had positive and significant effects on trainer performance. In this regard, H1a failed to be accepted whereas H1b and H1c failed to be rejected.

The finding relative to training room management self-efficacy and trainer performance was contrary to the study of Sezen-Gültekin et al. (2022) who established a statistically significant link between classroom management self-efficacy and performance of preservice teachers. It was also in contrast to the discoveries made in other studies such as Dicke et al. (2014) and Lazarides et al. (2020). However, the absence of a significant effect of training room management self-efficacy on trainer performance was similar to that of İnceçay and Dollar (2012) who discovered that classroom management self-efficacy had no effect on preservice teachers' performance in a real teaching environment.

Regarding the positive and statistically significant effect of trainee engagement self-efficacy on trainer performance, a similar revelation was made by Kwarteng and Sappor (2021). They concluded in their study of self-efficacy of preservice cost accounting teachers that the teachers had student engagement self-efficacy which culminated in having the ability to perform tasks in the classroom. Similarly, Kempf (2019) and Sidabutar (2021) confirmed the effect instructional self-efficacy had on trainer performance in

their study. for instance, Sidabutar (2021) evinced that instructional self-efficacy enhanced the performance of teachers; as a result of the teachers' instructional self-efficacy, they were able to motivate students who had low abilities to learn and help them progress.

Generally, in learning settings, the self-efficacy of trainers and trainees alike is found as a factor that affects performance. Evidence of this is provided in studies including Alegre (2014); Joët et al. (2011); Kiel et al. (2020); Muchena and Moalisi (2018); Prat-Sala and Redford (2012); Woodcock and Faith (2021). However, on the effect of self-efficacy on performance in the context of educational settings, Lewis (2009) makes an opposite revelation. Furthermore, in a general context, the positive and significant effect of self-efficacy and performance is confirmed. Such confirmation is provided in studies such as Kaakeh et al. (2020); Kale (2020); Kappagoda (2018); Lai and Chen (2012); and Thundiyil et al. (2016).

Objective 2: Effect of Trainer Self-Efficacy on Trainer Preparation

In Objective 2 which examined the effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance, three hypotheses were tested to achieve objective 2. From H2a, it was postulated that training room management self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation. The postulation in H2b was that trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation. It was hypothesised in H2c that instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation. In testing the hypothesised paths, it was established that training room management self-efficacy has no significant effect on trainer preparation. This failed to accept H2a. H2b and H2c, however, failed to be rejected as trainee engagement self-

efficacy and instruction self-efficacy respectively had positive and significant effects on trainer preparation.

The findings made in this study were consistent with the revelations made in other empirical studies. Using varying aspects of self-efficacy, scholars such as Thompson et al. (2022), Joët et al. (2011), Hanks and Beier (2012), Dissanayake et al. (2019), Lee et al. (2021), Duchatelet and Donche (2019), Alegre (2014), Hayat et al. (2020), Iskandar et al. (2012), Davis (2015), and Giladi et al. (2022) found that self-efficacy had a positive effect on preparation and other related variables including self-regulation and effort. The absence of a statistically significant effect of training room management self-efficacy on trainer preparation is similar to the revelation made by Demsey (2016) that self-efficacy did not relate significantly to effort.

Objective 3: Effect of Trainer Preparation on Trainer Performance

In examining the effect of trainer preparation on trainer performance, H3 was postulated. The hypothesis was that: trainer preparation has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance. The hypothesis failed to be rejected as trainer preparation had a positive and significant effect on trainer performance. This exposition is not far from what is made by other scholars. For instance, Giladi et al. (2022), Dissanayake et al. (2019), Kornhauser and James (2015), Lai and Chen (2012), Iskandar et al. (2012) and Menzel and Carrell (1994) demonstrated that effort had a positive effect on performance. In a similar vein, Sidabutar (2021) affirmed the effect of preparation on performance of student teachers in microteaching just like self-regulation was found as a predictor of performance by Davis (2015), Toering et al. (2009), Hayat et al. (2020) and Gol and Royaei (2013).

However, the positive and significant effect of trainer preparation on performance was the direct opposite of the revelations made by Hanks and Beier (2012), Los (2014), Nemati et al. (2020) and Dempsey (2016). According to Hanks and Beier (2012), no relationship existed between preparation and performance. Los (2014) also established that a couple of self-regulation dimensions had no relationship with the academic outcome of students. Similarly, Nemati et al. (2020) highlighted that self-regulation did not predict students' performance. Likewise, Dempsey (2016) brought to the fore that effort did not significantly relate to performance.

Objective 4: Mediating Role of Trainer Preparation on the Effect of Trainer Self-Efficacy on Trainer Performance

The three hypotheses that were postulated to examine the mediating role trainer preparation has on the effect trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance were as follows: H4a – the effect of training room management self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation; H4a – the effect of trainee engagement self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation; and H4c – the effect of instruction self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation. Because trainer preparation did not mediate the effect training room management self-efficacy has on trainer performance, H4a failed to be accepted. H4b and H4c, however, failed to be rejected since trainer preparation mediated the effects trainee engagement and instruction self-efficacies had on trainer performance.

While Dempsey (2016) evinced that effort did not play a mediating role in the self-efficacy and performance nexus, Honicke and Broadbent (2016), Giladi et al. (2022) and Iskandar et al. (2012) confirmed effort as a

mediator in the relationship that existed between self-efficacy and performance. More so, self-regulation was found to be playing a mediating role in the connection self-efficacy had with performance by Iheanyichukwu et al. (2017), Davis (2015) and Hayat et al. (2020). In addition, the outcome of the study by Thompson et al. (2022) meant that the effect of self-efficacy on performance was transmitted through preparation. It can be observed that the aforementioned empirical findings and the findings in this current study are consistent.

The absence of effect of training room management on trainer performance and trainer preparation is an indication that in the context of this study, it is not an important consideration to employee trainers. This is attested to by the IPMA that was conducted. Overall, the revelations made in this study are consistent with its theoretical underpinnings; that is self-efficacy theory and self-regulation theory. Regarding self-efficacy theory, it is shown that even though it is a psychological concept, employee trainers' belief in their capabilities in facilitating employee training has an effect on performing training tasks (Bandura, 1977, 1994; Ryerson, 2008). Concerning self-regulation theory, this study supports the assertion that self-regulation hinges on being self-efficacious (Schunk, 1995). Hence, feeling efficacious and having an expectation to do well in a particular task fuels effort intensification for the task (Eden & Aviram, 1992).

Chapter Summary

The results of the data analyses were presented in this chapter. Subsequent to the evaluation of the measurement (outer) model, the structural (inner) model was evaluated. Regarding the hypotheses of the study, evidence

was found not to reject H1b, H1c, H2b, H2c, H3, H4b and H4c. Thus, trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy had positive and significant effect on trainer performance. Similarly, trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy had positive and significant effects on trainer preparation. Trainer preparation also had a positive and significant effect on trainer performance. Again, it was discovered that trainer preparation played a complementary partial mediating role in the effect trainee engagement self-efficacy had on trainer performance. Concerning the significant effect instruction self-efficacy had on trainer performance, trainer preparation played a complementary partial mediating role.

The lack of evidence to accept H1a, H2a and H4a meant that training room management self-efficacy did not have a statistically significant effect on trainer performance. Also, training room management self-efficacy did not have a statistically significant effect on trainer preparation. More so, trainer preparation did not play any mediating role in the path TMSE -> TPREP -> TPERF as the direct path itself was not statistically significant. Lastly, the IPMA also demonstrated that instruction self-efficacy was the most important factor in the model yet, it was not the highest performing factor. The results obtained were discussed in relation to the literature.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The summary of the study, key findings, conclusions drawn, recommendations for practice and directions for future studies are contained in this chapter of the research report. The summary deals with the purpose of the study, its objectives and hypotheses, and the research methods utilised. The conclusions and recommendations proffered are based on the key findings.

Summary

This study sought to examine the role trainer preparation plays as a mediator between trainer self-efficacy and trainer performance in universities in Ghana. The objectives of the study were to examine:

1. effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance.
2. effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer preparation.
3. effect of trainer preparation on trainer performance.
4. mediating role of trainer preparation on the effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance.

Consequently, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1a: Training room management self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H1b: Trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H1c: Instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H2a: Training room management self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.

H2b: Trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.

H2c: Instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.

H3: Trainer preparation has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.

H4a: The effect of training room management self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation.

H4b: The effect of trainee engagement self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation.

H4c: The effect of instruction self-efficacy on trainer performance is mediated by trainer preparation.

Concerning the research methods, an explanatory research design was chosen for this study. The data was obtained through a census of 154 internal employee trainers in two universities; UCC and UEW. Eighty-six (86) of the responses were obtained from trainers in UCC and 68 were from UEW. A questionnaire comprising measures of the constructs; trainer self-efficacy, trainer preparation and trainer performance sourced from the literature was used in collecting the data. Specifically, the TSES by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) with its three dimensions of student engagement self-efficacy, instruction self-efficacy, and classroom management self-efficacy were adapted as trainers' self-efficacy. The adapted scale had trainee engagement self-efficacy, instruction self-efficacy, and training room management self-efficacy as its dimensions.

Trainer preparation was adapted from McCrory et al. (2013) and Noe (2010) whereas trainer performance was measured using the instructional qualities dimension of the VTJPS by Ali and Haider (2017). In the questionnaire, a five-point Likert-type scale with 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 representing strong disagreement, disagreement, no agreement/disagreement, agreement, and strong agreement respectively was used to measure the indicators of the constructs. Ethical clearance was provided by the UCCIRB before commencing data collection.

In terms of the data analyses, frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the respondents' background characteristics with SPSS as the data processing tool. Using SmartPLS 4, structural equation modelling was employed in testing the hypotheses. In line with the guidelines for SEM analyses, the model specification was done followed by the evaluation of the measurement (inner) model and the structural (outer) model. The analyses were consequently carried out through a PLS-SEM.

Key Findings

Following the data analyses, the under-listed key findings were established:

1. Trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.
2. Instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.
3. Trainee engagement self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer preparation.
4. Instruction self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on trainer

preparation.

5. Trainer preparation has a positive and significant effect on trainer performance.
6. Trainer preparation plays a complementary partial mediating role in the effect trainee engagement self-efficacy had on trainer performance.
7. Trainer preparation plays a complementary partial mediating role in the effect instruction self-efficacy has on trainer performance.

Conclusions

In this study, it is concluded that trainer self-efficacy is a significant predictor of both trainer preparation and trainer performance. Similarly, trainer preparation is also a significant predictor of trainer performance. Additionally, the effect that trainer self-efficacy has on trainer performance is transmitted through trainer preparation. Specifically, trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy are the dimensions of trainer self-efficacy that predict trainer preparation and performance. Also, the mediating role of trainer preparation on the effect of trainer self-efficacy on trainer performance occurs through trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy.

Furthermore, the findings of this study relative to training room management self-efficacy is an indication that it does not have a significant effect on trainer preparation nor does it have a significant effect on trainer performance. The absence of a significant effect of this dimension of trainer self-efficacy on trainer preparation and trainer performance also prevents the mediating role of preparation from occurring.

More so, the top three most important factors of trainer performance are instruction self-efficacy, trainer preparation and trainee engagement self-

efficacy. Training room management self-efficacy, the fourth factor in this study is considered not important. In terms of their performance, the order of performance, starting from the highest is trainer preparation; instruction self-efficacy; and training engagement self-efficacy. Training room management self-efficacy is the worst performing factor for trainer performance.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are proffered:

1. Included in training policies should be a direction to recruit employee trainers who have high beliefs in their capabilities as trainers, especially in the dimensions of trainee engagement and instruction self-efficacies. In addition, training policies should emphasise strategies that should be put in place to identify trainers who are high in self-efficacy especially instruction self-efficacy as it is the most important factor that affects trainer performance. Identifying the level of trainers' self-efficacy could be done through written or verbal means. Thus, officials responsible for recruiting trainers should not only focus on recruiting content experts.
2. Those responsible for training should assist trainers who do not have high self-efficacy but are subject-matter experts to become self-efficacious. To do this, trainers should be encouraged by the training and development sections to engage in mock presentations and given more opportunities to facilitate training sessions (mastery experience), encourage them to observe colleagues while they are performing training tasks (vicarious experience) and make them believe they can perform training tasks (verbal persuasion).

3. Employee trainers, as a matter of necessity, should engage in acts that can enhance their trainee engagement self-efficacy and instruction self-efficacy. They should not focus their attention only on becoming subject matter experts. The efforts they put into becoming content experts should be of a similar magnitude to the ones they put into becoming self-efficacious if they are to become high-performing employee trainers. Thus, they should use a variety of instructional techniques, constantly assist trainees and also make training sessions trainee-centred so that their self-efficacy regarding instruction and trainee engagement could be enhanced.
4. Employee trainers should not underestimate the importance of preparation in the execution of assigned training tasks since it is the second most important factor that affects trainer performance. They should systematically commit resources and also put in more effort in preparation for training tasks that they have been assigned to execute.

Directions for Future Studies

1. This study used only university internal trainers as its respondents. This could affect the generalisability of the revelations made in this study. Future studies should, therefore, include external and all other categories of trainers.
2. Due to resource constraints, the sample was drawn from two universities which could affect the representativeness of the universities in Ghana. Future studies should consider drawing samples from many more universities.

3. Even though the data used in this study was drawn from two universities, the data analyses and results of the study were done and presented as a composite without segregation to reveal the self-efficacy and performance situation in each university. In future studies, a comparative analysis should be conducted so that institution-specific recommendations would be made.
4. The data was drawn from institutions of higher learning where a good number of the respondents regularly teach either as part-time or fulltime lecturers. This could influence the findings obtained in this study. In future studies, corporate organisations should be used as the study units.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT
TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309
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OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/1628
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0011497

14TH NOVEMBER, 2022

Mr. Raphael Papa Kweku Andoh
Department of Human Resource Management
University of Cape Coast

Dear Mr. Andoh,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CHLS/2022/98)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted Provisional Approval for the implementation of your research **Trainers' Self-efficacy and Performance in Universities in Ghana: The Mediating Role of Trainer Preparation.** This approval is valid from 14th November, 2022 to 13th November, 2023. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Kofi F. Amuquandoh
Ag. UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

Dear Training Facilitator,

I am a graduate student of the School of Business, UCC, conducting a study on ***Trainers' self-efficacy and performance in universities in Ghana: The mediating role of trainer preparation.*** As an employee training facilitator in your University, I would be grateful if you could dedicate some time in responding to this one-time study. Your valued responses to this questionnaire will help contribute to knowledge on employee trainers which is under-represented in the literature and also, enable me partially fulfill the requirements for completing my programme of study. The anonymity and confidentiality of the responses you provide are assured. Kindly provide unbiased responses as you have consented to participating in this study. Most importantly, ethical clearance has been given by UCCIRB.

SECTION A: Background characteristics

Please, indicate the appropriate response

1. What is your sex? Female[ ] Male [ ]
2. What is your job category?

   Lecturer [ ] University Administrator [ ]

   Research Fellow [ ] Librarian [ ]

   Other (Please specify) .....

3. What is your highest level of education?

   Master's degree [ ] Doctorate degree [ ]

   Other (Please specify).....

4. What trainer qualification do you have?

   Without trainer qualification [ ] Train-the-trainer certificate [ ]

   Trained teacher (Postgraduate Diploma/Certificate in Education;

   Diploma in education; Bachelor of education) [ ]

   Other (Please specify) .....

5. How many times have you facilitated a training session?

   5 times or less [ ] 6 – 10 times [ ] More than 10 times [ ]

SECTION B: Trainer Self-efficacy

This section seeks your responses on the beliefs you have in your capabilities as a trainer. Please for each statement tick the most appropriate response (1=Strong Disagreement – 5=Strong Agreement).

	Trainee Engagement Self-efficacy	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6	I can do much to get through to the most difficult trainees					
7	I can do much to help trainees think critically					
8	I can do much to motivate trainees who show low interest in training					
9	I can do much to get trainees to believe that they can do well in training activities					
10	I can do much to help trainees value learning					
11	I can do much to foster trainee creativity					
12	I can do much to improve the understanding of a struggling trainee					
	Instruction Self-efficacy	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13	I can respond well to difficult questions from trainees					
14	I can gauge trainee comprehension of what I have taught					
15	I can craft good questions for trainees					
16	I can do much to adjust training content to the					

	level of individual trainees					
17	I can use a variety of assessment strategies to assess trainees					
18	I can provide an alternative explanation/example when trainees are confused					
19	I can implement alternative strategies during training					
20	I can provide appropriate challenges for very capable trainees					
	Training Room Management Self-efficacy	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
21	I can do much to control disruptive behaviour in the training room					
22	I can make my expectations clear about trainee behaviour					
23	I can establish routines to keep training activities running smoothly					
24	I can do much to get trainees to follow established rules					
25	I can do much to calm a trainee who is disruptive/noisy					
26	I can establish a training room management system with each group of trainees					
27	I can keep a few problem trainees from ruining an entire session					
28	I can respond to defiant trainees					

SECTION C: Trainer Preparation

This section seeks your responses on preparation toward training. Please for each statement tick the most appropriate response (1=Strong Disagreement – 5=Strong Agreement).

	Trainer Preparation	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
29	I set goals for training task to be performed					
30	I plan towards the goals set for the training task					
31	I engage in rehearsals (mental/physical) before performing training task					
32	I seek assistance from colleagues					
33	I seek information (research) for training tasks					
34	I review previously made notes					

35	I evaluate myself					
36	I make back up plans for training task (e.g. What would be done when lights go out)					
37	I visit the training room ahead of the training session					

SECTION D: Trainer Performance

This section seeks your responses on performance. Please for each statement tick the most appropriate response (1=Strong Disagreement – 5=Strong Agreement).

	Trainer Performance	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
38	I use daily life examples to clarify concepts					
39	I use different teaching methods					
40	I appreciate trainees' questioning and discussion					
41	I use variety of teaching aids					
42	I provide favourable learning environment to trainees					
43	I constantly evaluate trainees' learning					

Thank you